

# Chapter 10

- 10.1 Numerical integration (overview)
- 10.2 Distributional approximations (overview, more in Chapter 4 and 13)
- 10.3 Direct simulation and rejection sampling (overview)
- 10.4 Importance sampling (used in PSIS-LOO discussed later)
- 10.5 How many simulation draws are needed? (Ex 10.1 and 10.2)
  - see chapter notes and extra slides for how many significant digits to report
- 10.6 Software (can be skipped)
- 10.7 Debugging (can be skipped)

# Notation

- In this chapter, generic  $p(\theta)$  is used instead of  $p(\theta|y)$
- Unnormalized distribution is denoted by  $q(\cdot)$ 
  - $\int q(\theta)d\theta \neq 1$ , but finite
  - $q(\cdot) \propto p(\cdot)$
- Proposal distribution is denoted by  $g(\cdot)$

# Numerical accuracy – floating point

- Floating point presentation of numbers. e.g. with 64bits
  - closest value to zero is  $\approx 2.2 \cdot 10^{-308}$ 
    - generate sample of 600 from normal distribution:  
`qr=rnorm(600)`
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    - Laplace and ratio of girl and boy babies
    - `pbeta(0.5, 241945, 251527)` → 1 (rounding)

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    - `pbeta(0.5, 241945, 251527)` → 1 (rounding)
    - `pbeta(0.5, 241945, 251527, lower.tail=FALSE)`  $\approx -1.2 \cdot 10^{-42}$   
there is more accuracy near 0

# Numerical accuracy – log scale

- Log densities
  - use log densities to avoid over- and underflows in floating point presentation
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but `800 + log(1 + exp(800 - 800))` ≈ 800.69
    - e.g. in Metropolis-algorithm (Assignment 5) compute the log of ratio of densities using the identity
$$\log(a/b) = \log(a) - \log(b)$$

## It's all about expectations

$$E_{p(\theta|y)}[f(\theta)] = \int f(\theta) p(\theta|y) d\theta,$$

where  $p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{\int p(y|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta}$

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- Grid (equal spacing) evaluation with self-normalization

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- Monte Carlo methods which can sample from  $p(\theta^{(s)}|y)$  using only  $q(\theta^{(s)}|y)$  (each draw has weight  $1/S$ )

$$E_{p(\theta|y)}[f(\theta)] \approx \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S f(\theta^{(s)})$$

# It's all about expectations

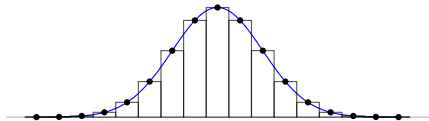
$$E_{\theta}[f(\theta)] = \int f(\theta)p(\theta|y)d\theta$$

- Conjugate priors and analytic solutions (Ch 1-5)
- Grid integration and other quadrature rules (Ch 3, 10)
- Independent Monte Carlo, rejection and importance sampling (Ch 10)
- Markov Chain Monte Carlo (Ch 11-12)
- Distributional approximations (Laplace, VB, EP) (Ch 4, 13)

# Quadrature integration

- The simplest quadrature integration is grid integration

$$E[\theta] \approx \sum_{t=1}^T \theta^{(t)} w^{(t)},$$

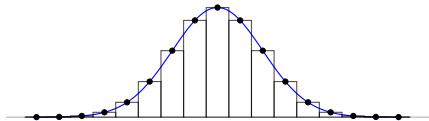


where  $w^{(t)}$  is the normalized probability of a grid cell  $t$ , and  $\alpha^{(t)}$  and  $\beta^{(t)}$  are center locations of grid cells

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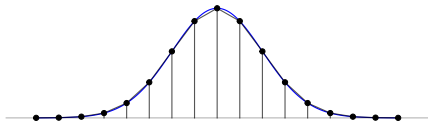
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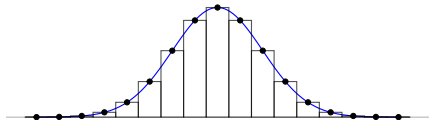
- In 1D further variations with better accuracy, e.g. trapezoid



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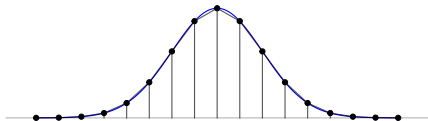
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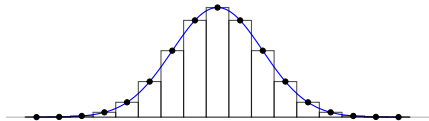


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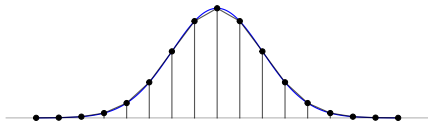
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- Adaptive quadrature methods add evaluation points where needed, e.g., R function `integrate()`
- In 2D and higher
  - nested quadrature
  - product rules

# Monte Carlo - history

- Used already before computers
  - Buffon (18th century; needles)
  - De Forest, Darwin, Galton (19th century)
  - Pearson (19th century; roulette)
  - Gosset (Student, 1908; hat)



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- Bayesians started to have enough cheap computation time in 1990s
  - BUGS project started 1989 (last OpenBUGS release 2014)
  - Gelfand & Smith, 1990
  - Stan initial release 2012

# Monte Carlo

- Simulate draws from the target distribution
  - these draws can be treated as any observations
  - a collection of draws is sample
- Use these draws, for example,
  - to compute means, deviations, quantiles
  - to draw histograms
  - to marginalize
  - etc.

# Monte Carlo vs. deterministic

- Monte Carlo = simulation methods
  - evaluation points are selected stochastically (randomly)
- Deterministic methods (e.g. grid)
  - evaluation points are selected by some deterministic rule
  - good deterministic methods converge faster (need less function evaluations)

# How many simulation draws are needed?

- How many draws or how big sample size?
- If draws are independent
  - usual methods to estimate the uncertainty due to a finite number of observations (finite sample size)
- Markov chain Monte Carlo produces dependent draws
  - requires additional work to estimate the **effective sample size**

# How many simulation draws are needed?

- Expectation of unknown quantity

$$E(\theta) \approx \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S \theta^{(s)}$$

if  $S$  is big and  $\theta^{(s)}$  are independent, way may assume that the distribution of the expectation approaches normal distribution (see BDA3 Ch 4) with variance  $\sigma_{\theta}^2/S$  (asymptotic normality)

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$$\sigma_\theta^2 + \sigma_\theta^2/S$$

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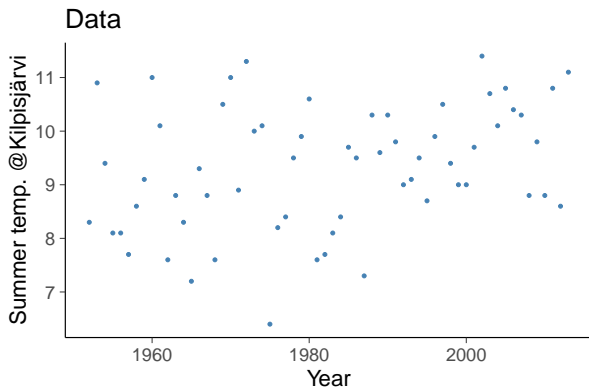
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- e.g. if  $S = 100$ , deviation increases by  $\sqrt{1 + 1/S} = 1.005$  i.e. Monte Carlo error is very small (for the expectation)
- See BDA3 Ch 4 for counter-examples for asymptotic normality

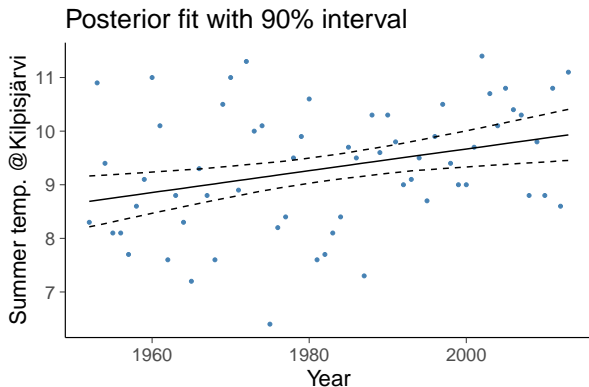
# Example: Kilpisjärvi summer temperature

Average temperature in June, July, and August at Kilpisjärvi, Finland in 1952–2013



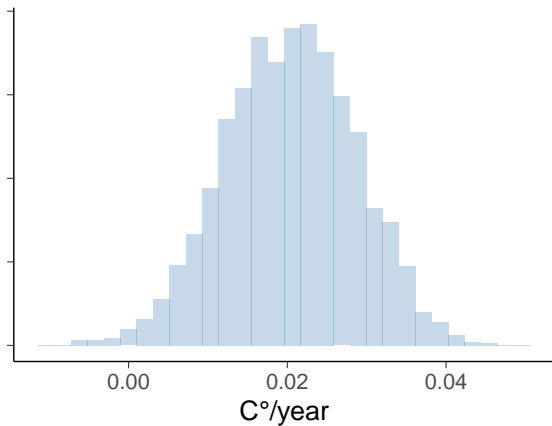
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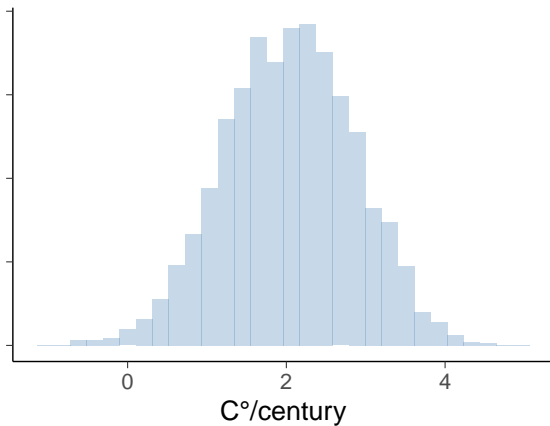
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Posterior of temperature change



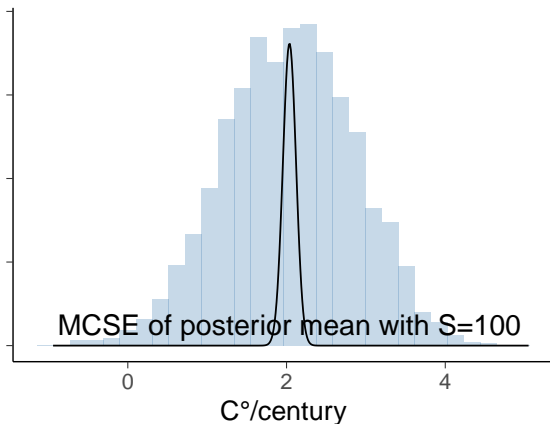
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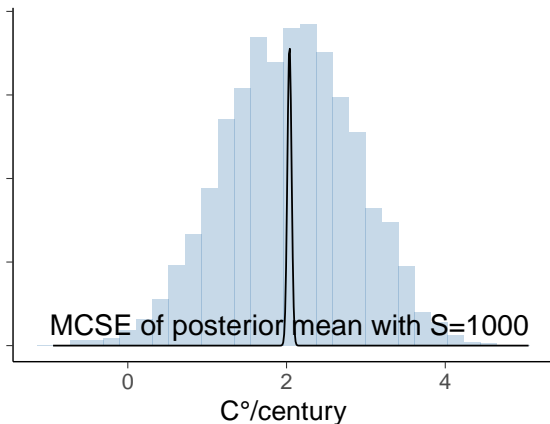


$\sigma_{\theta} \approx 0.827$ ,  $\text{MCSE} \approx 0.0827$ , total deviation  $\approx 0.831$

$$\text{total deviation}^2 = \sigma_{\theta}^2 + \text{MCSE}^2$$

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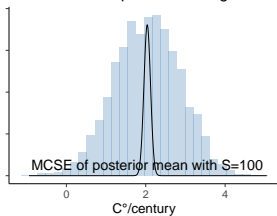
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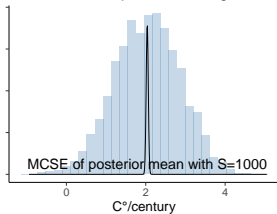


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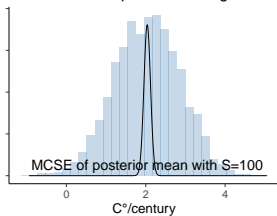


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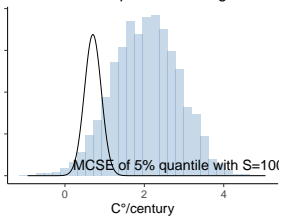


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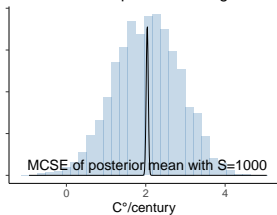
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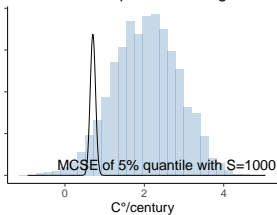
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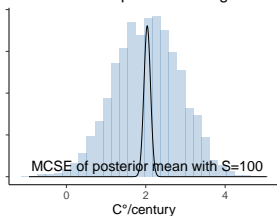


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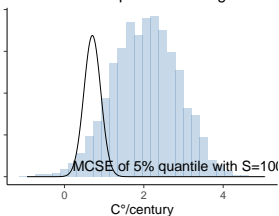


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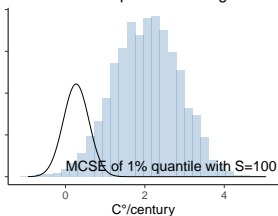
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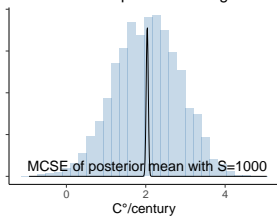
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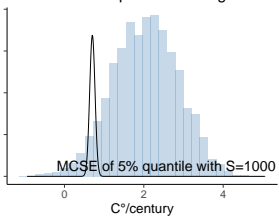
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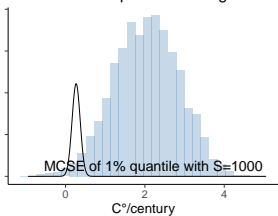
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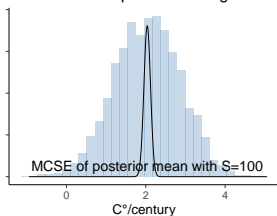


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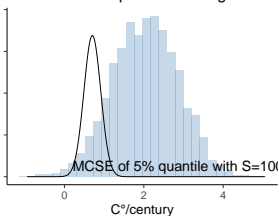


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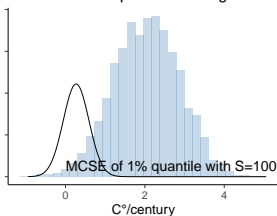
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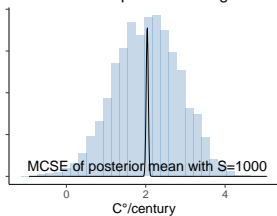
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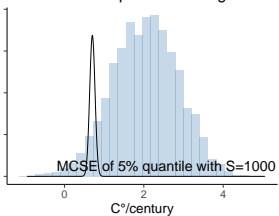
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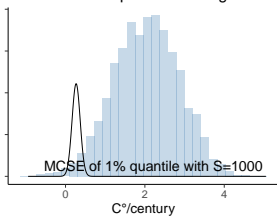
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Tail quantiles are more difficult to estimate

# How many simulation draws are needed?

- Posterior probability

$$p(\theta \in A) \approx \frac{1}{S} \sum_l I(\theta^{(s)} \in A)$$

where  $I(\theta^{(s)} \in A) = 1$  if  $\theta^{(s)} \in A$

- $I(\cdot)$  is binomially distributed as  $p(\theta \in A)$ 
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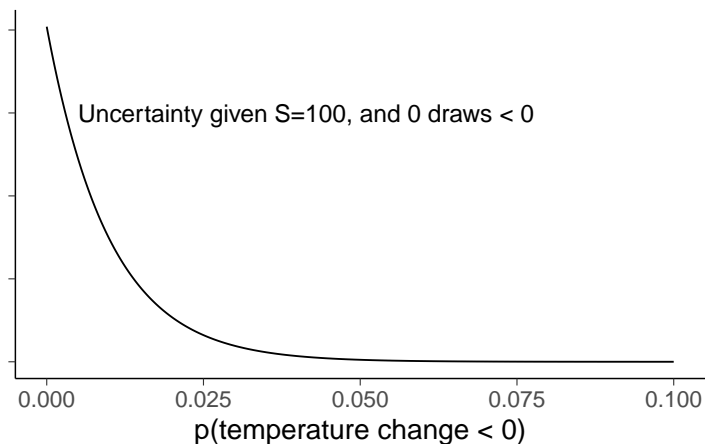
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- $S = 2500$  draws needed for 1% unit accuracy
- To estimate small probabilities, a large number of draws is needed
  - to be able to estimate  $p$ , need to get draws with  $\theta^{(l)} \in A$ ,  
which in expectation requires  $S \gg 1/p$



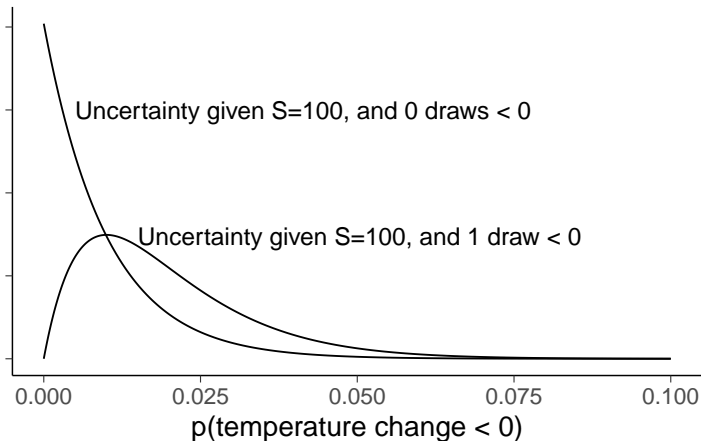
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Posterior uncertainty  $p(\text{temperature change} < 0)$



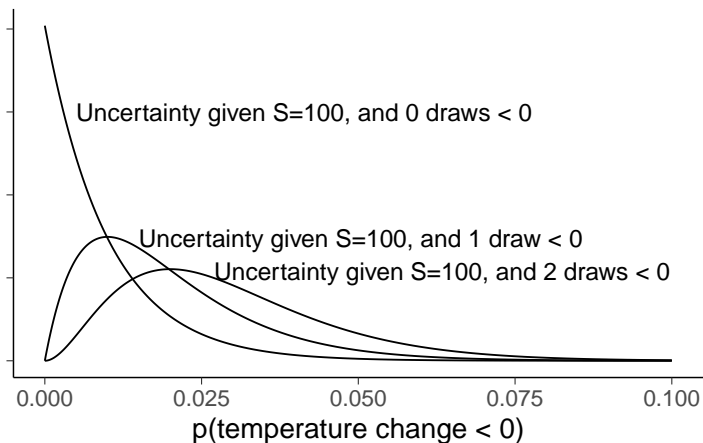
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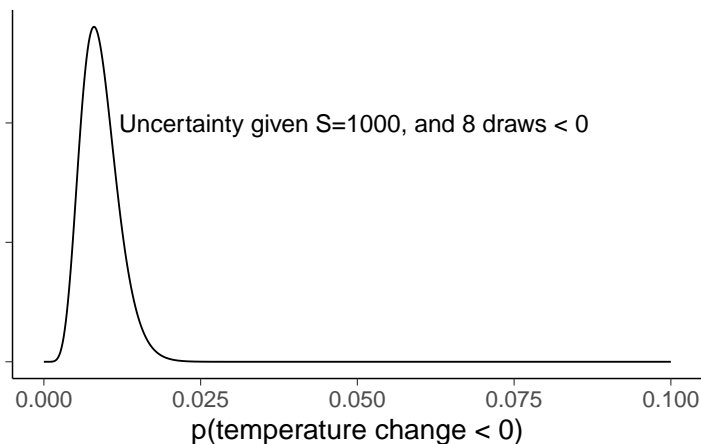
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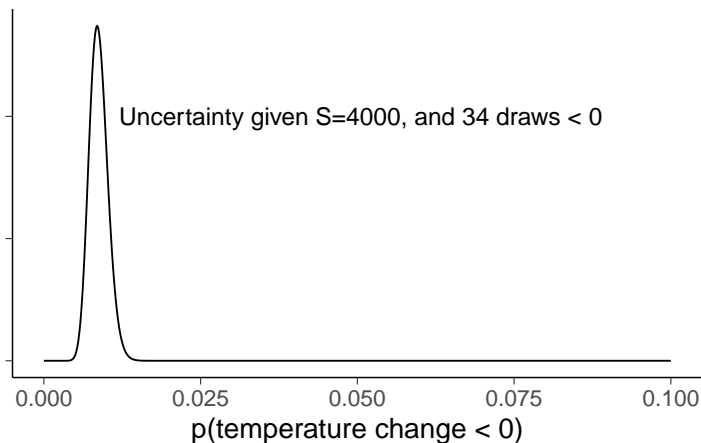
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## More data

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- The analysis I just showed used data from 1952–2013
- With data data from 1952–2022
  - The probability that temp increase is positive:  
 $0.9995 \pm 0.000353$ ,  
which can be reported as more than 99.9% probability
  - With data from other locations we would be even more certain

# How many simulation draws are needed?

- Less draws needed with
  - deterministic methods
  - marginalization (Rao-Blackwellization)
  - variance reduction methods, such, control variates

# How many simulation draws are needed?

- Number of independent draws needed doesn't depend on the number of dimensions
  - but it may be difficult to obtain independent draws in high dimensional case

# Direct simulation

- Produces independent draws
  - Using analytic transformations of uniform random numbers (e.g. appendix A)
  - factorization
  - numerical inverse-CDF
- Problem: restricted to limited set of models

# Random number generators

- Good pseudo random number generators are sufficient for Bayesian inference
  - pseudo random generator uses deterministic algorithm to produce a sequence which is difficult to make difference from truly random sequence
  - modern software used for statistical analysis have good pseudo RNGs



# Direct simulation: Example

- Box-Muller -method:

If  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  are independent draws from distribution  $U(0, 1)$ , and

$$X_1 = \sqrt{-2 \log(U_1)} \cos(2\pi U_2)$$

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- not the fastest method due to trigonometric computations
- for normal distribution more than ten different methods
- e.g. R uses inverse-CDF

# Grid sampling and curse of dimensionality

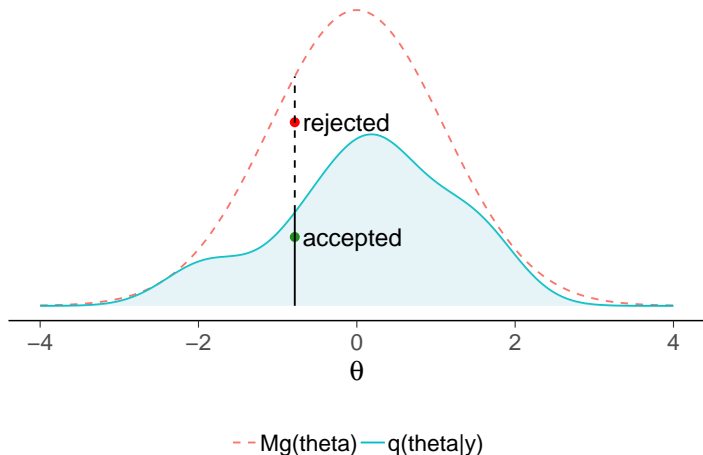
- 10 parameters
- if we don't know beforehand where the posterior mass is
  - need to choose wide box for the grid
  - need to have enough grid points to get some of them where essential mass is
- e.g. 50 or 1000 grid points per dimension
  - $50^{10} \approx 1\text{e}17$  grid points
  - $1000^{10} \approx 1\text{e}30$  grid points
- R and my current laptop can compute density of normal distribution about 50 million times per second
  - evaluation in  $1\text{e}17$  grid points would take 60 years
  - evaluation in  $1\text{e}30$  grid points would take 600 billion years

# Indirect sampling

- Rejection sampling
- Importance sampling
- Markov chain Monte Carlo (next week)

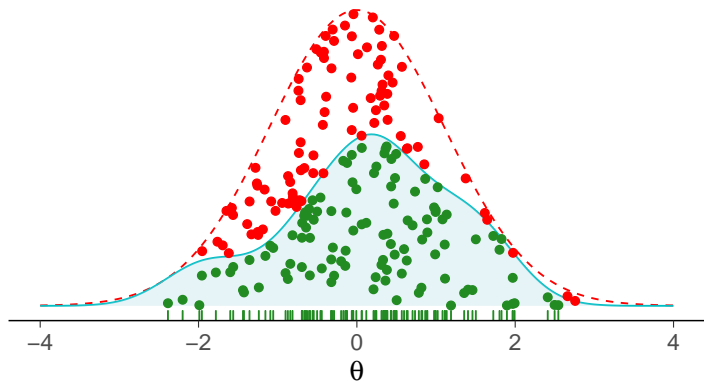
# Rejection sampling

- Proposal forms envelope over the target distribution  
 $q(\theta|y)/Mg(\theta) \leq 1$
- Draw from the proposal and accept with probability  
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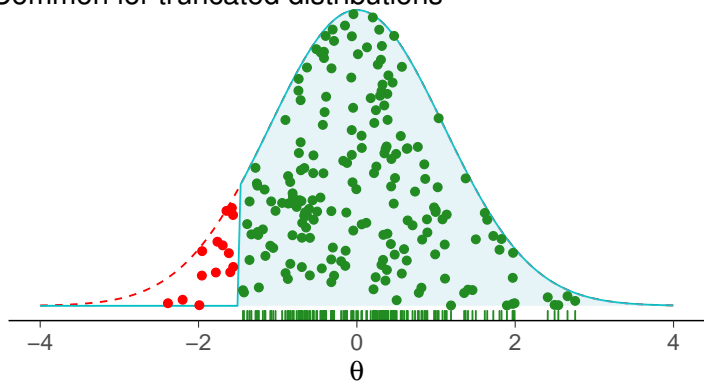
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# Rejection sampling

- Proposal forms envelope over the target distribution  
 $q(\theta|y)/Mg(\theta) \leq 1$
- Draw from the proposal and accept with probability  
 $q(\theta|y)/Mg(\theta)$
- Common for truncated distributions



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# Rejection sampling

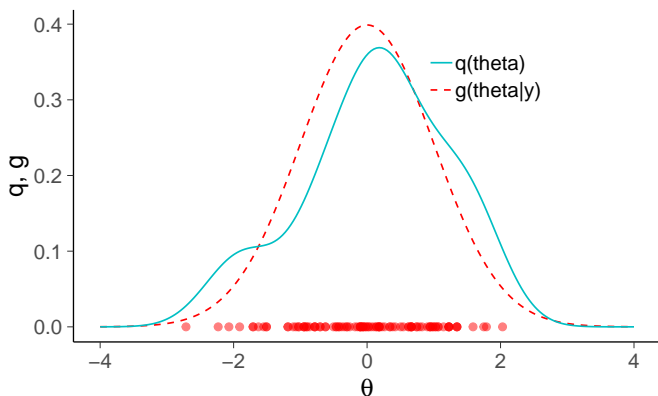
- The number of accepted draws is the effective sample size
  - with bad proposal distribution may require a lot of trials
  - selection of good proposal gets very difficult when the number of dimensions increase
  - reliable diagnostics and thus can be a useful part



# Importance sampling

- Proposal does not need to have a higher value everywhere

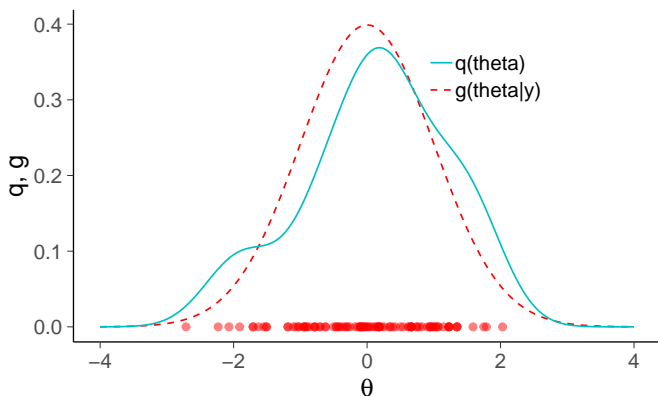
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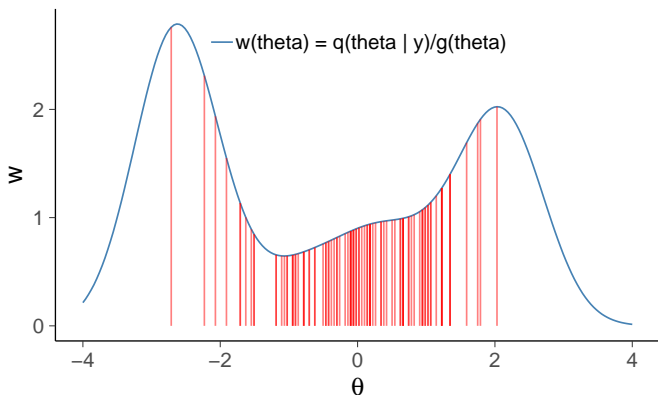


$$E[f(\theta)] \approx \frac{\sum_s w_s f(\theta^{(s)})}{\sum_s w_s}, \quad \text{where} \quad w_s = \frac{q(\theta^{(s)})}{g(\theta^{(s)})}$$

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- Proposal does not need to have a higher value everywhere

Draws and importance weights



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## Some uses of importance sampling

In general selection of good proposal gets more difficult when the number of dimensions increase, but there are many use case

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In general selection of good proposal gets more difficult when the number of dimensions increase, but there are many use case

- Fast leave-one-out cross-validation
- Fast bootstrapping
- Fast prior and likelihood sensitivity analysis
- Conformal Bayesian computation
- Particle filtering
- Improving distributional approximations (e.g Laplace, VI)

# IS finite variance and central limit theorem

- If  $h(\theta)w$  and  $w$  have finite variance  $\rightarrow$  CLT
  - variance goes down as  $1/S$
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 $\rightarrow$  *generalized CLT and asymptotic consistency*
- Pre-asymptotic and asymptotic behavior can be really different!

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# Importance re-sampling

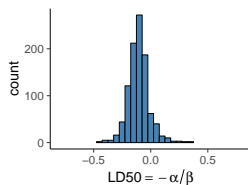
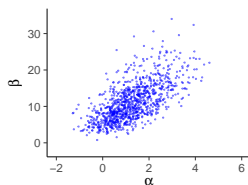
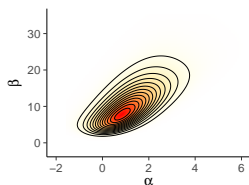
- Using the weighted draws is good

$$E[f(\theta)] \approx \frac{\sum_s w_s f(\theta^{(s)})}{\sum_s w_s}$$

- But it can be convenient to obtain draws with equal weights
  - resample the draws according to the weights
  - some original draws may be included more than once
  - loses some information, but now the weights are equal

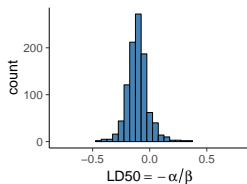
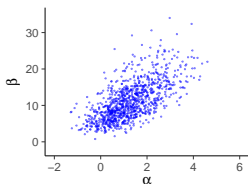
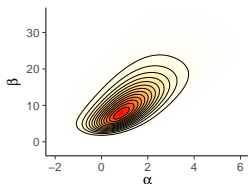
# Example: Importance sampling in Bioassay

Grid

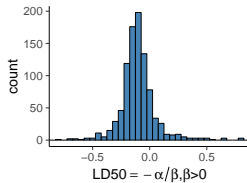
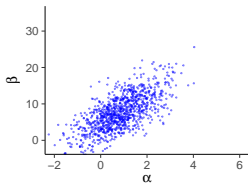
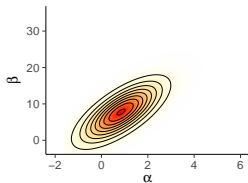


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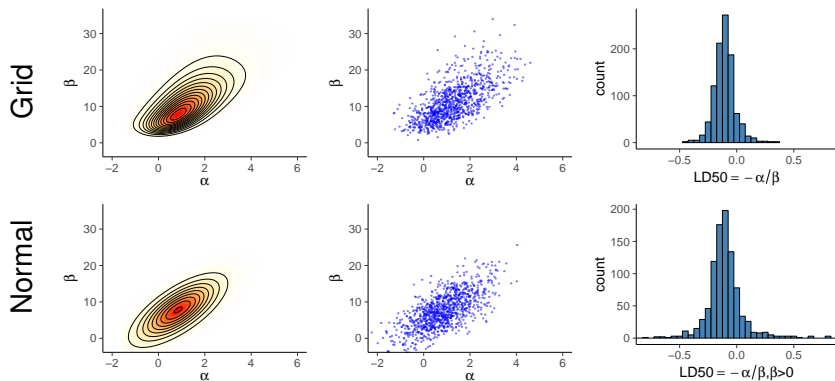


Normal



Normal approximation is discussed more in BDA3 Ch 4

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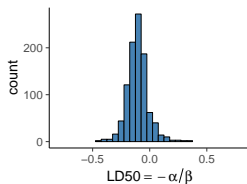
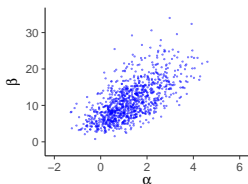
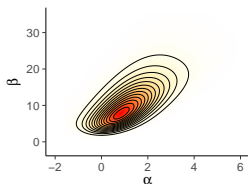
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But the normal approximation is not that good here:

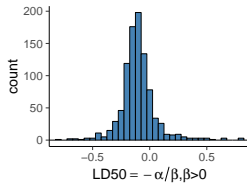
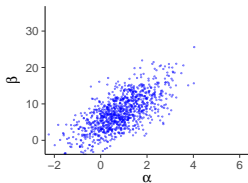
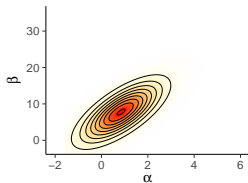
Grid  $\text{sd}(\text{LD50}) \approx 0.1$ , Normal  $\text{sd}(\text{LD50}) \approx .75!$

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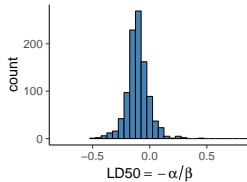
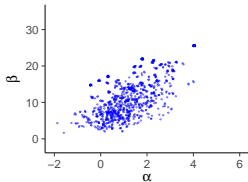
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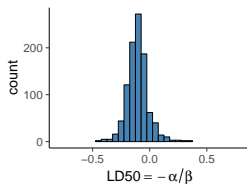
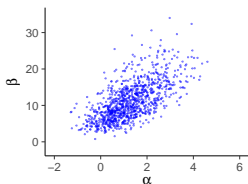
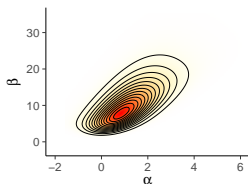


IR

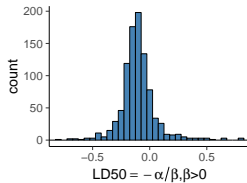
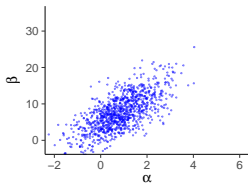
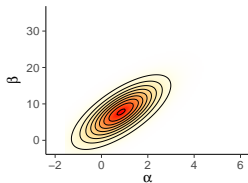


# Example: Importance sampling in Bioassay

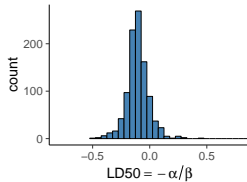
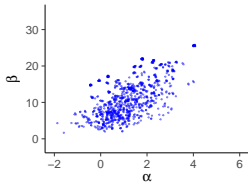
Grid



Normal



IR

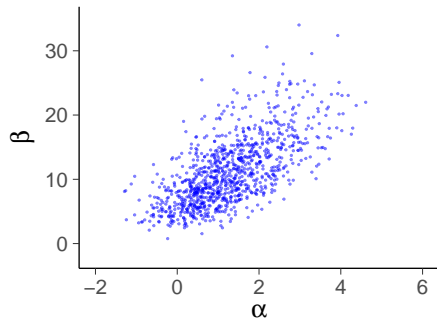


Grid  $sd(LD50) \approx 0.1$ , IR  $sd(LD50) \approx 0.1$

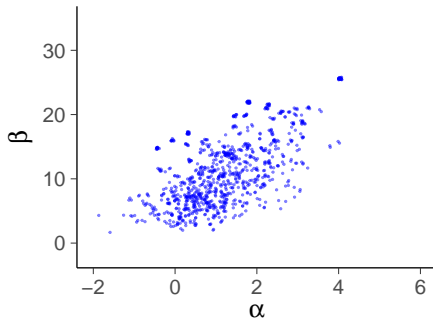


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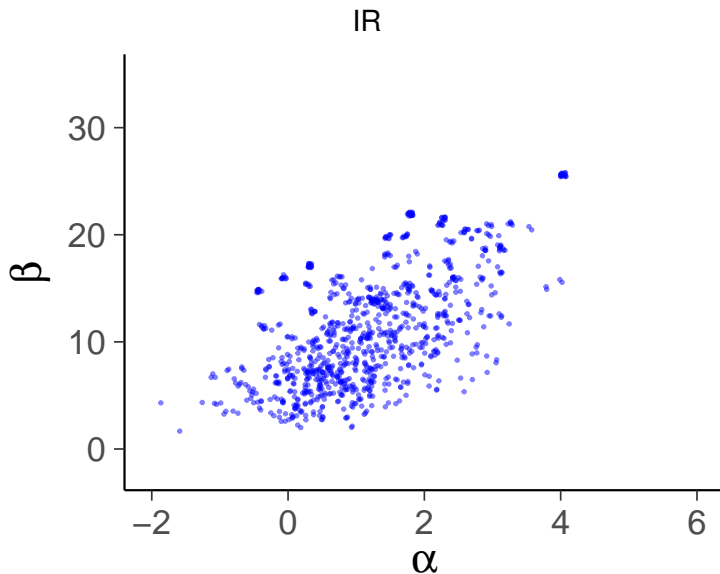
Grid



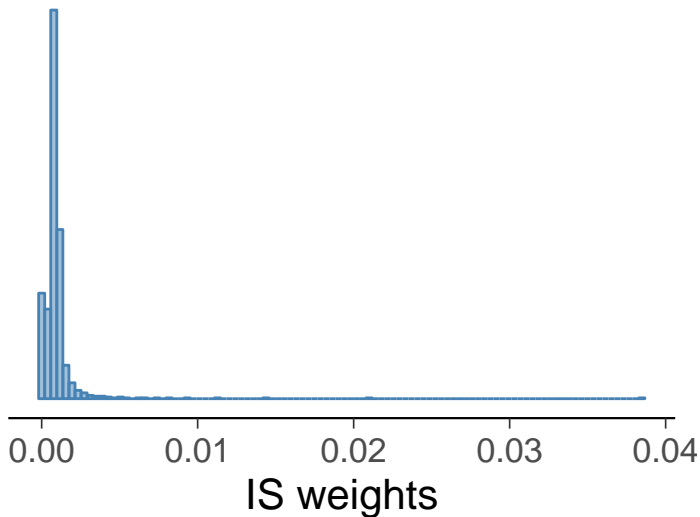
IR



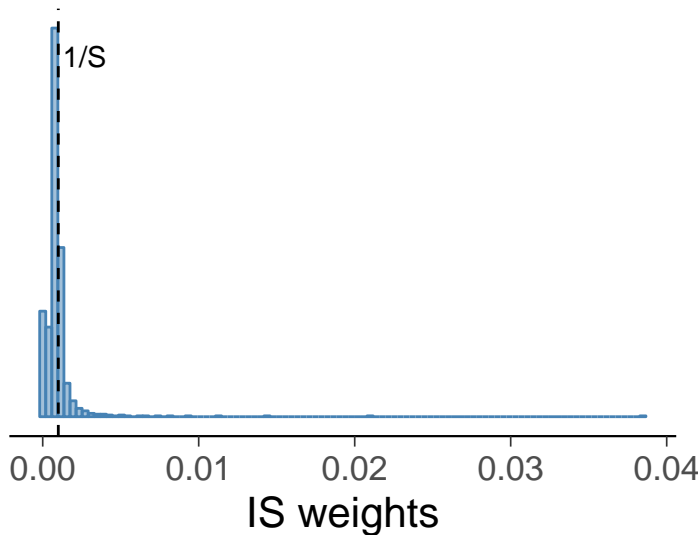
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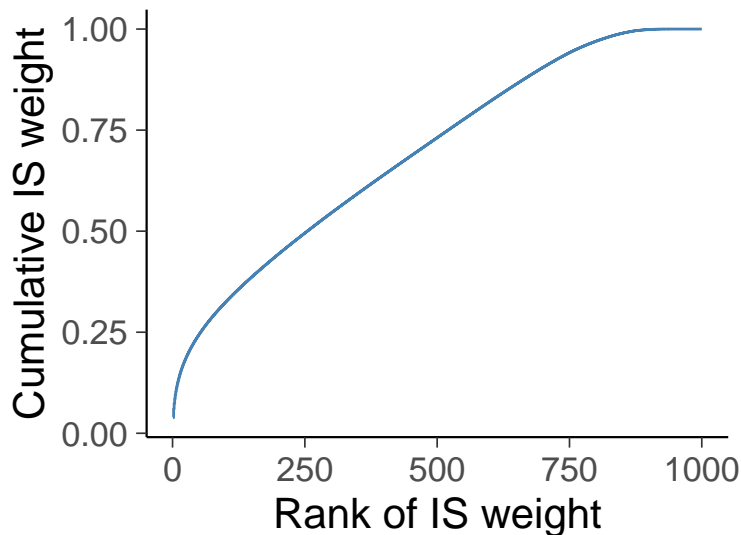
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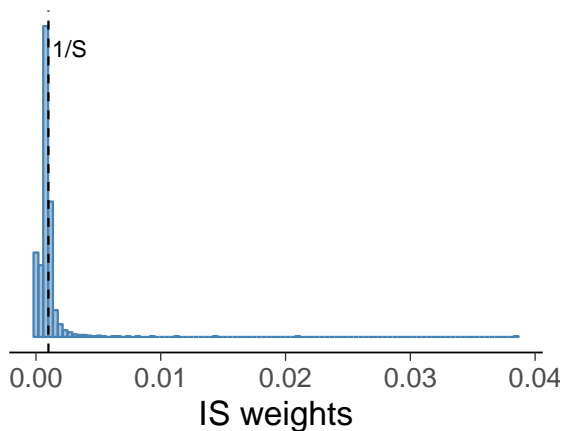
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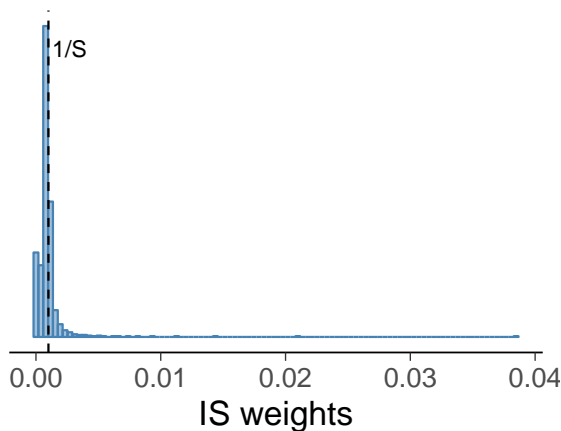


## Example: Importance sampling in Bioassay



$$S_{\text{eff}} = \frac{1}{\sum_{s=1}^S (\tilde{w}(\theta^s))^2}, \quad \text{where } \tilde{w}(\theta^s) = w(\theta^s) / \sum_{s'=1}^S w(\theta^{s'})$$

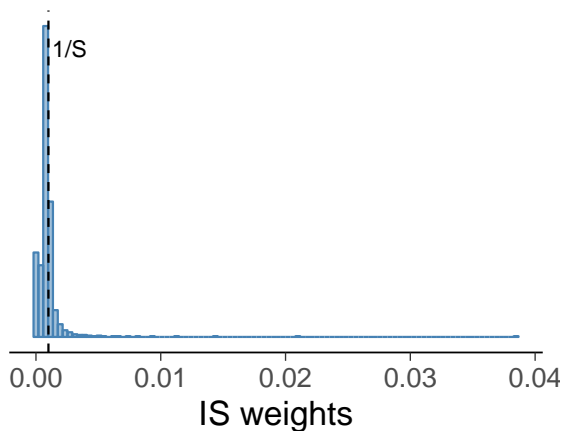
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BDA3 1st (2013) and 2nd (2014) printing have an error for  $\tilde{w}(\theta^s)$ . The equation should not have the multiplier  $S$  (the normalized weights should sum to one). Online version is correct. Errata for the book [http://www.stat.columbia.edu/~gelman/book/errata\\_bda3.txt](http://www.stat.columbia.edu/~gelman/book/errata_bda3.txt)

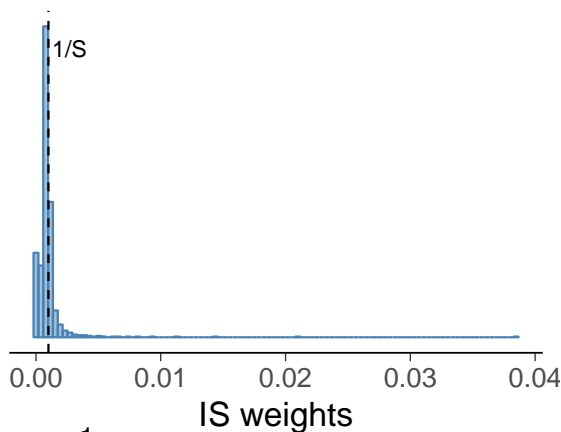
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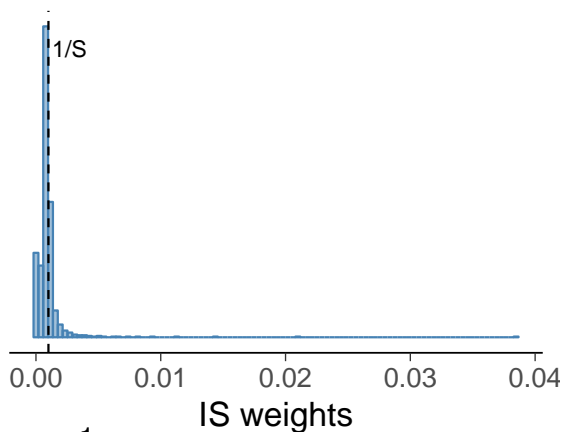
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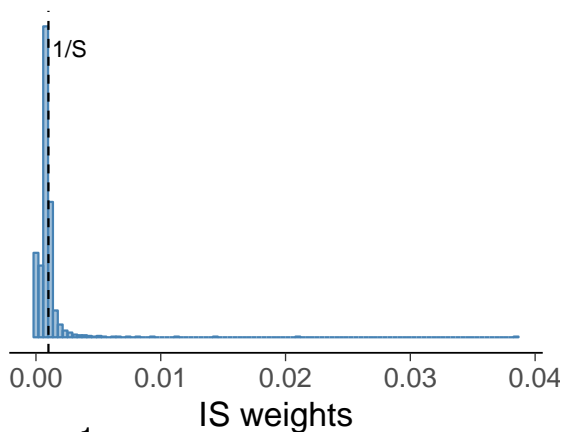


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## Example: Importance sampling in Bioassay



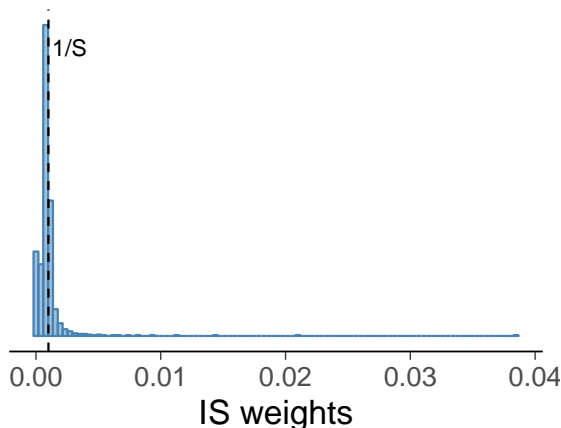
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If one  $\tilde{w}(\theta^s) = 1$ , and others 0, then  $S_{\text{eff}} = 1/1 = 1$

## Example: Importance sampling in Bioassay

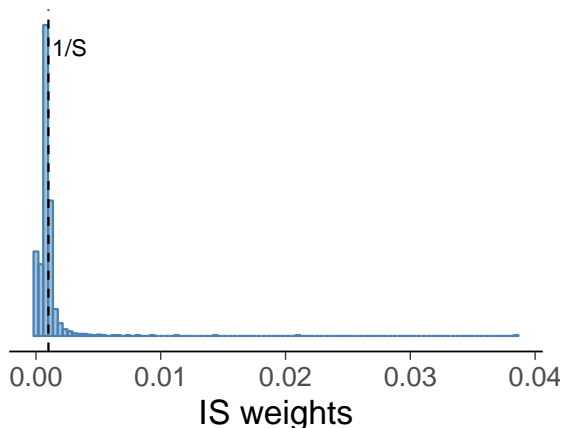


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# Pareto- $\hat{k}$ diagnostic

- Based on extreme value analysis and generalized central limit theorem

See more in Vehtari, Simpson, Gelman, Yao, and Gabry (2022). Pareto smoothed importance sampling. [arXiv:1507.02646](https://arxiv.org/abs/1507.02646).

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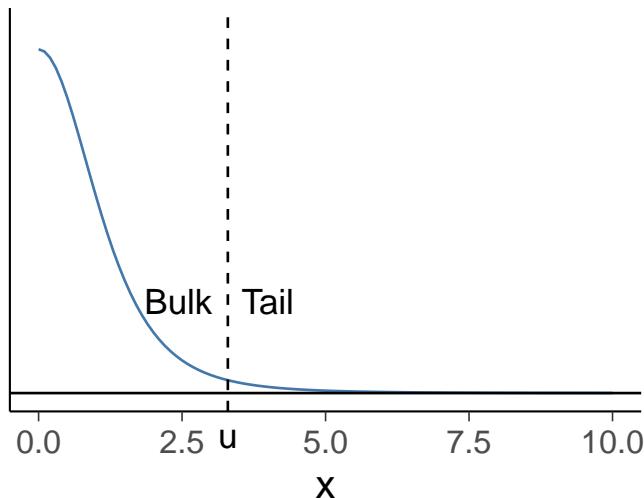
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  - shape parameter  $k$  tells the number of *fractional moments* as  $1/k$
  - estimate  $\hat{k}$  from finite data
  - the statistical behavior of distribution of mean can be predicted by generalized CLT
    - minimum sample size and convergence rate given  $\hat{k}$

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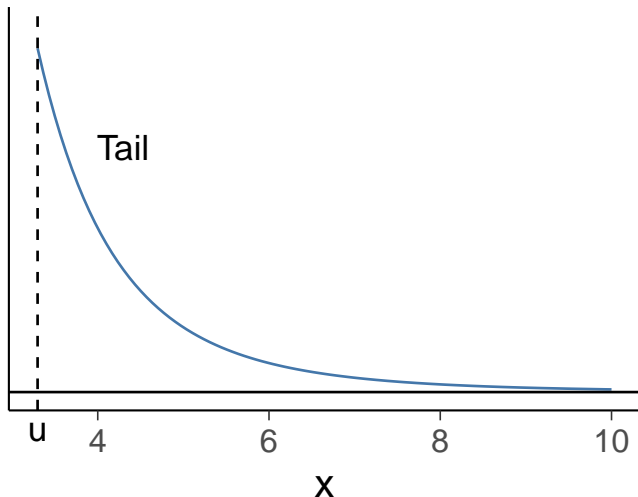
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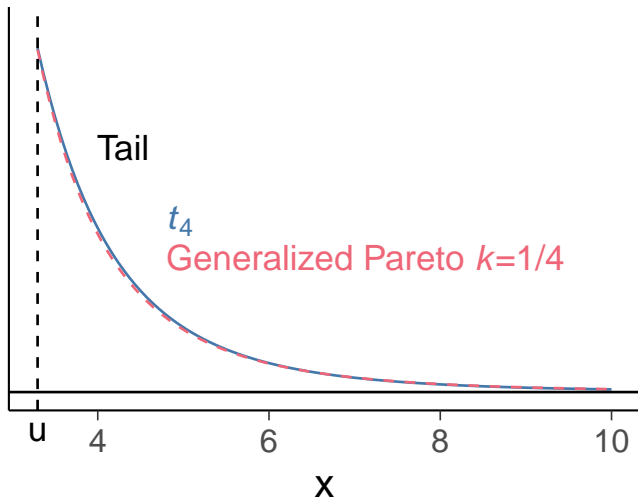
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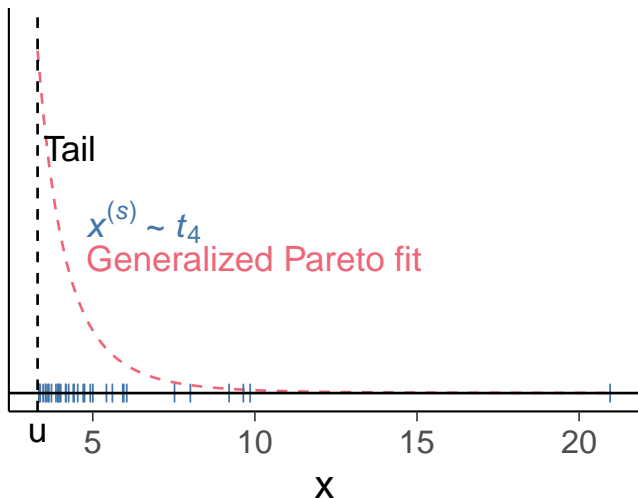
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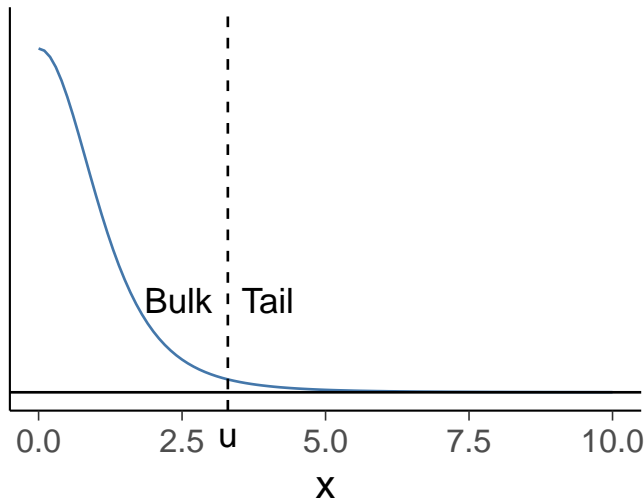
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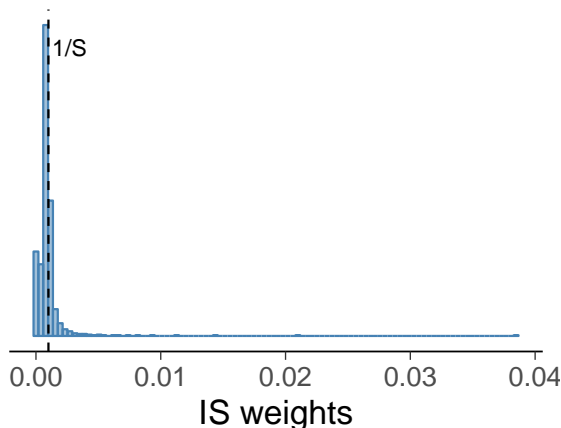


# Pareto- $\hat{k}$ diagnostic

GPD has a shape parameter  $k$ ,  
and  $1/k$  finite fractional moments



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- If Pareto- $\hat{k} \approx 0.7$ , to half the MCSE, need 10 times bigger  $S$
- If Pareto- $\hat{k} > 1$ , to half the MCSE, nothing helps

# Pareto smoothed importance sampling (PSIS)

- Replace the largest observed ratios with expected ordered statistics of the fitted Pareto distribution
  - corresponds to modeling of the tail, and as usual, modeling reduces the noise

# Estimating Pareto- $\hat{k}$

- Fast empirical profile Bayes quadrature estimate by Zhang and Stephens (2009)
  - excellent accuracy compared to exact Bayesian inference
  - see more in Vehtari, Simpson, Gelman, Yao & Gabry (2022)

# Pareto- $\hat{k}$ diagnostic use cases

- Importance sampling
  - leave-one-out cross-validation (Vehtari et al., 2016, 2017; Bürkner et al., 2020)
  - Bayesian stacking (Yao et al., 2018, 2021, 2022)
  - leave-future-out cross-validation (Bürkner et al., 2020)
  - Bayesian bootstrap (Paananen et al., 2021, online appendix)
  - prior and likelihood sensitivity analysis (Kallioinen et al., 2021)
  - improving distributional approximations (Yao et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2021; Dhaka et al., 2021)
  - implicitly adaptive importance sampling (Paananen et al., 2021)
- Stochastic optimization (Dhaka et al., 2020)
- Divergences and gradients in VI (Dhaka et al., 2021)
- MCMC (Paananen et al., 2021)

# Importance sampling leave-one-out cross-validation

- Later in the course you will learn how  $p(\theta|y)$  can be used as a proposal distribution for  $p(\theta|y_{-i})$ 
  - which allows fast computation of leave-one-out cross-validation

$$p(y_i|y_{-i}) = \int p(y_i|\theta)p(\theta|y_{-i})d\theta$$

# Curse of dimensionality

- Number of grid points increases exponentially
- Concentration of the measure, i.e., where is the most of the mass?

# Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

- Pros
  - Markov chain goes where most of the posterior mass is
  - Certain MCMC methods scale well to high dimensions
- Cons
  - Draws are dependent (affects how many draws are needed)
  - Convergence in practical time is not guaranteed
- MCMC methods in this course
  - Gibbs: “iterative conditional sampling”
  - Metropolis: “random walk in joint distribution”
  - Dynamic Hamiltonian Monte Carlo: “state-of-the-art” used in Stan