

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo Methods

## Chapter 10. Markov Chain Monte Carlo Methods

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- 2  $\mathbf{X} \sim p(\mathbf{x}) = cg(\mathbf{x})$ , where  $c = (\int g(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x})^{-1}$  is **not** of closed form?

# Discrete Time Finite State Markov Chains

**Def:** Let  $S = \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$  be a finite state space and

$X_n$  = state at time  $n$ , so  $X_n \in S$ . We say  $\{X_1, X_2, \dots\}$  is a

**Markov chain** if

$$P(X_n = x_n | X_{n-1} = x_{n-1}, \dots, X_1 = x_1, X_0 = x_0)$$

$$= P(X_n = x_n | X_{n-1} = x_{n-1}),$$

$$\forall n = 1, 2, \dots$$

**Notation.** 1. Let  $p_{ij} = P(X_n = j | X_{n-1} = i), \forall n$ , such that

$$\sum_{j=1}^N p_{ij} = 1, \forall i = 1, \dots, N.$$

$p_{ij}$  = **transition probability** from state  $i$  to state  $j$   
in one step.

2.  $\mathbf{P} = [p_{ij}]$ , the **transition probability matrix**.

3.  $p_{ij}^{(k)} = P(X_{n+k} = j | X_n = i)$  = probability of  
visiting state  $j$  from state  $i$  **after  $k$  steps**.

- Def:** 1. A Markov chain is **irreducible**, if  $\forall i, j$ , there exist  $n > 0$  and  $m > 0$  such that  $p_{ij}^{(n)} > 0$  and  $p_{ji}^{(m)} > 0$ .
2. An irreducible M.C. is **aperiodic** if there exist  $n$  and some  $j$  such that  $P(X_n = j | X_0 = j) > 0$  and  $P(X_{n+1} = j | X_0 = j) > 0$ .

**Theorem:** *For an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain,*

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{ij}^{(n)} = \pi_j$  **exists**, for all  $j$  and satisfy

$$\sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_j = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i p_{ij}, \quad \text{uniquely.}$$

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**Note:** 1.  $\pi_j$  denotes the *long-run proportion* of time that the process is in state  $j$ .

2.  $\pi_i p_{ij}$  is the proportion of time that the chain has entered  $j$  from  $i$ .

3. If  $X_0$  follows  $\{\pi_j\}$ ,  $P(X_n = j) = \pi_j, \forall n$ .



- Def:** 1.  $\{\pi_j\}$  are called the **stationary probabilities** of the M.C..
2. When  $\pi_i p_{ij} = \pi_j p_{ji}$  for all  $i \neq j$ , the M.C. is **time reversible**.

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**Note:** If a Markov chain is time reversible and  $X_0 \sim \{\pi_j\}$ , then starting at *any* time, the sequence of states going **backwards** in time is also a Markov chain with the **same** transition probability matrix **P**.

**Fact 1**:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h(X_i) = \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j h(j)$  with probability 1  
for any  $h$  on  $S$ .

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**Fact 2:** If there exist  $x_1, \dots, x_N > 0$  such that  $\sum_{j=1}^N x_j = 1$  and  
 $x_i p_{ij} = x_j p_{ji}, \forall i \neq j$ , then  $\pi_j = x_j, \forall j$ .

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**Proof:** Since  $\sum_{i=1}^N x_i p_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i p_{ji} = x_j, \forall j$ , and  $\pi_j$  are the  
**unique** solution to  $\sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i p_{ij} = \pi_j, \forall j$  such that  $\sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j = 1$ ,

$$\therefore \pi_j = x_j, \forall j.$$



# The Hastings-Metropolis Algorithm

Metropolis, et al. (1953), *J .of Chem. Physics*;

Hastings (1970), *Biometrika*.

**Motivation**. Let  $b(j) > 0, j = 1, \dots, m$  (large) and

$$B = \sum_{j=1}^m b(j).$$

**Goal 1**: Construct a Markov chain with *stationary probabilities*

$$\pi_j = b(j)/B, j = 1, \dots, m.$$

**Goal 2**: Construct a *random sample* with **distribution** defined by

$\pi_j$ , *approximately*.



Idea: Find a **time-reversible** M.C. with **limiting distribution probabilities**  $\pi_j$ . i.e.

$$\pi_j p_{ji} = \pi_i p_{ij}, \quad i \neq j.$$

Q:  $[p_{ij}] = ?$

**Definition.** If the detailed balance equation holds for all  $i$  and  $j$ , the Markov chain is said to be time-reversible, and the detailed balance condition is also called the reversibility condition.

**Fact.** The detailed balance condition implies that  $\pi P = \pi$ , because for the  $j$ -th element,

$$(\pi P)_j = \sum_i \pi_i p_{ij} = \sum_i \pi_i p_{ji} = \pi_j.$$

Because the above equation holds for all  $j$ , we have  $\pi P = \pi$ .

**Basic idea:** Find a time-reversible Markov chain with limiting distribution probabilities  $\pi_j$ . That is,

$$\pi_i p_{ij} = \pi_j p_{ji}, \quad i \neq j.$$

The question reduces to how to construct such a transition matrix  $P = [p_{ij}]$ ?

For any irreducible Markov chain with transition probability matrix  $Q = [q_{ij}]$ , construct a new Markov chain  $\{X_n\}$  based on  $Q$  and another transition matrix  $[\alpha_{ij}]$  such that as  $X_n = i$ ,  $X_{n+1}$  either moves to a new state  $j$  with probability  $p_{ij} = q_{ij}\alpha_{ij}$ ,  $j \neq i$ , or stays at  $i$  with probability

$$p_{ii} = q_{ii} + \sum_{k \neq i} q_{ik}(1 - \alpha_{ik}).$$

**Hastings-Metropolis** concludes: If

$$\alpha_{ij} = \min \left( \frac{\pi_j q_{ji}}{\pi_i q_{ij}}, 1 \right),$$

then  $\{X_n\}$  are time reversible with stationary probability  $\pi_j$  with respect to  $P$ .

**Proof.** It is easy to check that

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_i p_{ij} &= \pi_i q_{ij} \alpha_{ij} \\ &= \pi_i q_{ij} \min \left( \frac{\pi_j q_{ji}}{\pi_i q_{ij}}, 1 \right) \\ &= \min (\pi_j q_{ji}, \pi_i q_{ij}) \\ &= \pi_j q_{ij} \min \left( 1, \frac{\pi_i q_{ij}}{\pi_j q_{ji}} \right) \\ &= \pi_j q_{ji} \alpha_{ji} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, if we can simulate a Markov chain according to  $[p_{ij}]$ , then we meet Goal 1. But how? The algorithm goes as follows.

- ① Given  $X_n = i$ , generate a random variate  $X$  based on  $[q_{ij}]$ , i.e.,  

$$P(X = j | X_n = i) = q_{ij}, j = 1, \dots, m. \text{ Say } X = j.$$
- ② Let  $X_{n+1} = j$  with probability  $\alpha_{ij}$  and  $X_{n+1} = i$  with probability  $1 - \alpha_{ij}$ .
- ③ Return to step 1 with  $n = n + 1$ .

Thus, given  $b(j)$ , one can generate a Markov chain whose stationary distribution is  $\{\pi_j\}$  using the Hastings-Metropolis algorithm, then use the generated Markov chain to estimate  $Eh(X)$ ,  $X \sim \{\pi_j\}$ .

To satisfy Goal 2, we must have a *long* chain

$$X_0, X_1, X_2, \dots \xrightarrow{d} \{\pi_j\}; X_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d} \{\pi_j\}.$$

**Practical concerns.** But how to select the initial values  $X_0$ ? and it is known that  $X_n, X_{n+1}$  are dependent! In practice,

- To avoid the influence of the initial values, we usually generate a long Markov chain and discard samples in the burn-in period. (Typically the first 1000 elements.)



- To avoid the dependence:

- 1 Multiple chains: Generate parallel chains, e.g.

$$X_0^1, X_1^1, \dots, X_n^1 \rightarrow \{\pi_j\}$$

$$X_0^2, X_1^2, \dots, X_n^2 \rightarrow \{\pi_j\}$$

$$\vdots \quad \quad \quad \vdots$$

$$X_0^N, X_1^N, \dots, X_n^N \rightarrow \{\pi_j\}$$

Then  $X_n^1, X_n^2, \dots, X_n^N$  are 'nearly' i.i.d. with pmf  $\{\pi_j\}$ , as  $n$  large enough.

- 2 Thinning: Generate a long long chain

$$X_0, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots, X_{2n}, X_{2n+1}, \dots, X_{3n}, \dots, X_{Nn}.$$

Then again  $X_n, X_{2n}, \dots, X_{Nn}$  are nearly i.i.d. with pmf  $\{\pi_j\}$ .

The algorithm is also valid for multivariate cases. We summarize a general formation: Want

$$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_p) \sim g(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{\int f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}} \propto f(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{x}) > 0.$$

Select a density (transition probability function),  $q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = q(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$  such that given  $\mathbf{x}$ , one can generate  $\mathbf{Y} \sim q(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ .

- 1 Choose an initial value  $\mathbf{X}_0$ . Set  $n = 0$ .
- 2 Generate  $\mathbf{y} \sim q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  with  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{X}_n$ .
- 3 Let  $\alpha(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \min \left( \frac{f(\mathbf{y})}{f(\mathbf{x})} \frac{q(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}, 1 \right)$ .
- 4 Generate  $U \sim U(0, 1)$ .
- 5 If  $U \leq \alpha(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ , set  $\mathbf{X}_{n+1} = \mathbf{y}$ ; otherwise,  $\mathbf{X}_{n+1} = \mathbf{x}$ .
- 6 Set  $n = n + 1$ , go to 2.
- 7 Repeat  $N$  times to get **one** sample point  $\mathbf{X}_N$  **approximately**.

Note:

- ① This algorithm only needs to know  $b(j) \propto \pi_j$ , or  $b(\mathbf{x}) \propto f(\mathbf{x})$ .
- ②  $q$  is called the *candidate* or *proposal* density.
- ③ Selecting the proposal density does matter:

① we take  $q$  to be independent of  $\mathbf{x}$ , i.e.,  $q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = q(\mathbf{y})$ , this is called an independence Metropolis-Hastings algorithm.

② If we take  $q$  to be symmetric, i.e.,  $q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = q(|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|)$ ,

$$\alpha(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \min\left(\frac{f(\mathbf{y})}{f(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{g(\mathbf{y})}{g(\mathbf{x})}, 1\right), \text{ the likelihood ratio,}$$

this is called a random-walk Matropolis-Hastings algorithm.

- ④ If  $\mathbf{X} \sim g(\mathbf{x}) \propto b(\mathbf{x})$ ,  $E X_i = ?$   $Var X_i = ?$

$$EX_i \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N X_{ijn}, \text{ where}$$

$X_{1:n}, X_{2:n}, X_{3:n}, \dots, X_{N:n} \sim \mathbf{X}$ ; approximately

**Example.** Sample  $x$  following the scaled inverse- $\chi^2$  distribution, with pdf

$$f(x) \propto x^{-n/2} \exp(-a/2x)$$

with  $n = 5$  and  $a = 4$  using the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm.

Let us consider different proposal densities.

(1) Independence Metropolis-Hastings. Choose

$q(x, y) \sim U(0, 100)$ . Then  $q(x, y) \propto \mathbf{1}_{0 < x < 100}$ . Then

$$\alpha(x, y) = \min \left( \frac{f(y)q(y, x)}{f(x)q(x, y)}, 1 \right) = \min \left( \frac{f(y)}{f(x)}, 1 \right).$$

(2) Independence Metropolis-Hastings. Choose  $q(x, y) \sim \chi_1^2$ .

Then

$$q(x, y) = q(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} y^{-1/2} e^{-y/2},$$

and

$$\alpha(x, y) = \min \left( \frac{f(y)q(x)}{f(x)q(y)}, 1 \right).$$

(3) Random Walk Metropolis-Hastings. Choose

$q(x, y) \sim N(x, \tau) \mathbf{1}_{\{y > 0\}}$ , where  $\tau$  is called the tuning parameter and is decided by the researcher.

$$q(x, y) = \frac{1}{\Phi(x/\sqrt{\tau})} \sqrt{2\tau} e^{-(y-x)^2/2\tau}, \quad y > 0.$$

$$\alpha(x, y) = \min \left( \frac{f(y)\Phi(x/\sqrt{\tau})}{f(x)\Phi(y/\sqrt{\tau})}, 1 \right).$$

In addition, it is useful to consider some simple convergence diagnostics:

- 1 Time series trace plots of the Markov chain Monte Carlo samples.
- 2 Autocorrelation plot.

# The Gibbs Sampler

Again, we would like to draw a sample with density  $p(x) = cq(x)$  up to unknown normalizing constant, i.e.,  $g(x)$  is known, but  $c$  is not. Assume for any  $i$  and values  $x_j, j \neq i$ , we can generate a random variable  $x$  having the density

$$P(X_i = x | X_j = x_j, j \neq i), \quad (1)$$

as the proposal density. The density in Eq. (1) is called a full conditional density of  $X_i$  or full conditional density of  $X_i$ .



It is easy to show that the acceptance rate is always one. Let  $\tilde{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$  be the initial state. The Gibbs sampler considers

- 1 Select a coordinate randomly, say, coordinate  $i$  is chosen.
- 2  $X$  is chosen by Eq. (1), Say  $X_i = x$ . Then  $\tilde{y} = (x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_d)$  is the next state.

Summarizing the above two steps, the Gibbs sampler considers

$$q(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) = \frac{1}{n} P(X_i = x | X_j = x_j, j \neq i) = \frac{p(\tilde{y})}{n P(X_j = x_j, j \neq i)}.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) &= \min \left( \frac{p(\tilde{y}) q(\tilde{y}, \tilde{x})}{p(\tilde{x}) q(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})}, 1 \right) \\ &= \min \left( \frac{p(\tilde{y}) \frac{p(\tilde{x})}{n P(X_j = x_j, j \neq i)}}{p(\tilde{x}) \frac{p(\tilde{y})}{n P(X_j = x_j, j \neq i)}}, 1 \right) \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

When utilizing the Gibbs sampler, the candidate state is always accepted.

**Bivariate case:**  $(X, Y) \sim f(x, y) \propto p(x, y)$ . Assume  $f(x|y)$  and  $f(y|x)$  are known. The simulation algorithm goes as follows.

- 1 Specify  $Y_0$ . Let  $n = 1$ .
- 2 Generate  $X_n \sim f_{X|Y}(x|Y_{n-1})$ .
- 3 Generate  $Y_n \sim f_{Y|X}(y|X_n)$ .
- 4  $n = n + 1$ , go to step 2 for  $K$  iterations.

**Result:**  $\mathbf{X}_0 = (x_0, y_0) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_1 = (x_1, y_0) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_2 = (x_1, y_1) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_3 = (x_2, y_1) \rightarrow \dots$  is a special case of the Hastings-Metropolis procedure. Thus, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\mathbf{X}_n = (x_{n'}, y_{n'}) \stackrel{D}{\sim} f_{X,Y}$  and  $x_{n'} \stackrel{D}{\sim} f_X$ ,  $y_{n'} \stackrel{D}{\sim} f_Y$ .

**Note:** 1. The data will *always* be updated based on the conditional distribution.

2. It gives *one* sample point after  $K$  iterations.

To get an approximate random sample from  $f_X$  of size  $m$ , one can repeat the procedure  $m$  trials and take the last value  $X_K$  on each trial.

Trial 1:  $Y_0, X_1, Y_1, X_2, Y_2, \dots, X_K = X_1^*, Y_K = Y_1^* \stackrel{d}{\sim} (X, Y)$ .

Trial 2:  $Y_0, X_1, Y_1, X_2, Y_2, \dots, X_K = X_2^*, Y_K = Y_2^* \stackrel{d}{\sim} (X, Y)$ .

$\vdots$

Trial m:  $Y_0, X_1, Y_1, X_2, Y_2, \dots, X_K = X_m^*, Y_K = Y_m^* \stackrel{d}{\sim} (X, Y)$ .

**Example.**  $f(x, y) \propto \binom{n}{x} y^{x+\alpha-1} (1-y)^{n-x+\beta-1}$ ,  $x = 0, 1, \dots, n, 0 \leq y \leq 1$ .

It is noted that  $f(x|y) \propto \binom{n}{x} y^x (1-y)^{n-x} \sim \text{Bin}(n, y)$ , and  $f(y|x) \propto y^{x+\alpha-1} (1-y)^{n-x+\beta-1} \sim \text{Beta}(x + \alpha, n - x + \beta)$ .

The algorithm is

- ① Set  $m = 1$ .
- ② Choose an initial value, say  $Y_0 = 1/2$ . Set  $i = 1$ .
  - ① Generate  $X_i \sim \text{Bin}(n, Y_{i-1})$ .
  - ② Generate  $Y_i \sim \text{Beta}(X_i + \alpha, n - X_i + \beta)$ .
- ③ Set  $i = i + 1$  and return to Step 2 till  $i = K$  for some large  $K$ .
- ④ Set  $X_m^* = (X_K, Y_K)$ , set  $m = m + 1$  until  $m = M$ . Return to Steps 2 to 4 for  $M$  times.

We have  $X_1^*, X_2^*, \dots, X_M^*$  as the desired samples.

**Example.**  $X_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda_i), i = 1, \dots, n$  independently. Let  $S = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . We want to generate the random vector  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  conditional on the event  $S > c$  for large  $c > 0$ . That is

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{P(S > c)} \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e^{-\lambda_i x_i}, \text{ if } \sum_{i=1}^n x_i > c.$$



We would like to generate a Markov chain such that each outcome is in the conditional event, hence the chain will have the corresponding stationary distribution over the event.

Recall that the conditional distribution of  $X_i | X_i > a$  is same as the distribution of  $X_i + a$ . Hence, given  $S > c$  and all the other  $x_j, j \neq i$ , it is the same as  $X_i + \sum_{j \neq i} x_j > c$ , or equivalently,  $X_i > a$ , where  $a = (c - \sum_{j \neq i} x_j)^+ = \max(0, c - \sum_{j \neq i} x_j)$ . Thus, the conditional distribution of  $X_i | S > c$  is indeed  $\text{Exp}(\lambda_i) + a$ , given all the other  $x_j, j \neq i$ .

Formally speaking,

$$\begin{aligned}X_i | S > c &= X_i | x_1 + \cdots + x_{i-1} + X_i + x_{i+1} + \cdots + x_n > c \\&= X_i | X_i > (c - \sum_{j \neq i} x_j) \\&= X_i | X_i > (c - \sum_{j \neq i} x_j)^+ \\&\sim \text{Exp}(\lambda_i) + (c - \sum_{j \neq i} x_j)^+.\end{aligned}$$

The algorithm is implemented as follows.

- 1 Choose  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  such that  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i > c$ .  $K = 1$ .
- 2  $l = 0$ .
- 3  $l = l + 1$  and compute  $a = (c - \sum_{j \neq l} x_j)^+$ .
- 4 Generate  $U \sim U(0, 1)$ , and let  $x_l = -\frac{1}{\lambda_l} \log U + a$ . Return to 3 until  $l = n$ .
- 5  $\mathbf{X}_K = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ ,  $K = K + 1$  goto 2.
- 6 Set  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}_K$  for  $K$  large enough.