Reversible Jump MCMC

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Abstract

Reversible jump MCMC is a mechanism designed to solve trans-dimensional problems, where the number of parameters one wishes to estimate, in addition to the parameter values themselves, is also unknown. RJMCMC has applications in variable selection, Bayesian model selection, multiple change-point problems, and many more. In this paper, we provide an introduction to RJMCMC, demonstrate its functionality in an example (or two?), discuss the problems that arise most frequently in RJMCMC, and present some extensions of the theory and application of RJMCMC.

1 Introduction

Reversible jump Markov Chain Monte Carlo sampling was developed to solve trans-dimensional problems. Trans-dimensional problems are those in which "the number of things you don't know is one of the things you don't know" (Green and Hastie 2009). These problems present great challenges to the usual statistical methods. With RJMCMC, however, you can jump from one parameter space to another without too much difficulty. Because it is also reversible, the probability of moving from state A to state B is the same as the probability of moving from state B to state A. This is important for jumping between parameter spaces because this reversibility is what gives the sampler its ability to explore the model space in its entirety.

2 Problem Structure

There are many different scenarios where using RJMCMC can be useful. In our example modeling soccer goals, we look at a choice between a Poisson model with one mean parameter and a Negative Binomial model with one mean parameter and one overdispersion parameter. The problem of choosing between two models with one and two parameters each is rather simplistic, and using RJMCMC is not necessary. The usefulness of RJMCMC sampling is emphasized in problems like the multiple change point problem given in Green (1995). In that scenario, the number of change points and the change point locations, as well as the parameters of the various possible change point models are all unknown.

2.1 Problem Set Up

detailed balance condition

2.2 A General Algorithm

The following is a general algorithm for implementation of an RJMCMC sampler. If the current state of the chain is $(k, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)$, then:

1. Propose a new model $\mathcal{M}_{k^*}$ with probability $j(k^*|k)$.
2. Generate $\boldsymbol{u}$ from a specified proposal density $g(\boldsymbol{u})$
3. Set $(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k^*}^*, \boldsymbol{u}^*) = h'(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k, \boldsymbol{u})$ where h' is a bijection between $(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k, \boldsymbol{u})$ and $(\boldsymbol{\theta}_*^*, \boldsymbol{u}^*)$ where the following must hold: $dim(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k) + dim(\boldsymbol{u}) = dim(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k^*}^*) + dim(\boldsymbol{u}^*)$.
4. Accept the proposed move to $(k^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{k^*}^*)$ with probability

$$\alpha = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(\theta_{k^*}^*)j(k^*|k)g'(\boldsymbol{u}^*)}{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)j(k|k^*)g(\boldsymbol{u})} \left| \frac{\partial h'(\theta_{k^*}^*, \boldsymbol{u}^*)}{\partial(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k, \boldsymbol{u})} \right| \right\}$$

Where $u^* \sim g'$ (Chen, Ibrahim, and Shao 2000, 303)

3 Example: Soccer Data

A simple application of reversible jump MCMC methodologies can be used to determine whether count data is better modeled by a Poisson or negative binomial distribution. The latter distribution is a better choice when data are overdispersed relative to the Poisson distribution. We present a detailed explanation and implementation of the problem outlined in Green and Hastie Green and Hastie (2009).

The Poisson distribution is often used to model count data, and assumes the mean and variance of the distribution of the same. It is then often the case that data exhibit overdispersion relative to the Poisson distribution (i.e. the variability in the data is higher than what is expected under the Poisson distribution). In the case of overdispersion, the data may be better modeled by the negative binomial distribution.

Consider a single random variable Y taking values in $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. Under a Poisson model with $\lambda > 0$,

$$p(Y|\lambda) = \frac{\lambda^Y e^{-\lambda}}{Y!}$$

Under a negative binomial model with parameters $r > 0$ and $p \in (0,1)$,

$$p(Y|r,p) = \frac{\Gamma(r+Y)}{y!\Gamma(r)} p^Y (1-p)^r$$

The negative binomial can also be parameterized in terms of its mean $\lambda = r\frac{p}{(1-p)}$ and a parameter $\kappa = 1/r$. The variance under this parameterization is $\lambda(1 + \kappa\lambda)$, which gives κ the interpretation of representing overdispersion relative to a Poisson distribution with mean and variance λ.

3.1 The Data

We consider total goals from 1,140 English Premier soccer league games from the 2005/2006, 2006/2007, and 2007/2008 seasons, as used in Green and Hastie's Green and Hastie (2009) example.

3.2 The Model

Let $Y_i, i = 1, \ldots, N$ represent total goals from $N = 1,140$ soccer games, and $k = 1, 2$ represent choice of data distribution. Under $k = 1$, let $Y_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ and under $k = 2$, let $Y_i \sim \text{NegBin}(\lambda, \kappa)$ such that λ is interpretable as the mean across both models. Consider a $\text{Gamma}(\alpha_\lambda, \beta_\lambda)$ prior on λ under both models, and an independent $\text{Gamma}(\alpha_\kappa, \beta_\kappa)$ prior on κ under $k = 2$. For ease of notation, let θ_k be the parameter vector under model k. Then the posterior distribution can be determined up to a multiplicative constant

$$\pi(k, \theta_k | Y) \propto \begin{cases} p(k=1)p(\lambda)\mathcal{L}(Y|\lambda) & \text{for } k = 1 \\ p(k=2)p(\lambda)p(\kappa)\mathcal{L}(Y|\lambda,\kappa) & \text{for } k = 2 \end{cases}$$

3.3   The reversible jump step

Within each model ($k = 1, 2$), the posterior distribution of θ_k can be simulated using fixed-dimensional MCMC techniques. In fact, under $k = 1$ the model is conjugate, and the posterior distribution of λ can be easily derived as $\text{Gamma}(\alpha_\lambda + \sum_i y_i, \beta_\lambda + N)$. Under $k = 2$ the posterior cannot be derived in closed form, but can be estimated using straighforward Metropolis-Hastings steps, see Appendix (something).

The difficulty in constructing an appropriate MCMC sampler is due to the fact that we need our sampler to be able to jump between models. A jump between models requires the dimension of the state of the chain to change from 1 to 2 parameters, or vice versa. Reversible jump methodology allows us to deal with this transdimensional problem.

To construct the reversible jump sampler, we need to determine the possible moves, or transitions, the sampler can take. A single move of a reversible jump sampler consists of two parts:

4   Challenges of Implementation

Implementing reversible algorithms may seem difficult for several reasons. First, much of the work being done on the topic is from the perspective of MCMC "experts," and so their writings can be incredibly dense and make for very time-consuming reads. Additionally, the language required to present these samplers is necessarily complex, which also adds to the difficulty of interpretation. These issues, however, are not the true cause of difficulty. In the practical sense, implementation is *actually* fairly easy. Only a very few steps require a detailed understanding of the underlying theoretical framework: the rest is fairly straightforward computation. Furthermore, there is little justification needed to guarantee a sampler is able to simulate from a target. So, what are the true challenges of implementing an RJMCMC sampler?

4.1   Efficiency

The main issue is usually not whether a proposal mechanism will work, but whether it will work *effeciently*. Ineffecient chains are very slow to explore the support of the target distribution. This also means that they will take more time to converge to the target distribution. The tuning for a specific problem can be arduous, which has lead to work on finding useful general techniques for selecting parts of the mechanism.

Improving efficiency requires the proposed state $(k', \theta'_{k'})$ and the exisitng state (k, θ_k) have similar state spaces. There are two main classes of methods for ensuring this:

1. *Order methods*: parameterizing proposals (our $g(u)$) for a given $h(\theta, u) = (\theta', u')$.
2. *Saturated state*: augment the state space $\mathcal{X}$ with auxiliary variables

4.1.1   Order Methods

For a given initial state θ_k in model k we can find an equivalent state $c_{k,k'}(\theta_k)$ in model k'. We call these equivalent states our "centering points." If we constrain $A((k, \theta_k), (k', c_{k,k'}(\theta_k))$ to be, say, 1, then moving from one model (k) to another (k') will be encouraged and the state space will be more thoroughly explored.

The *order* of the method determines the type of constraint imposed. For the 0th-order, $A((k, \theta_k), (k', c_{k,k'}(\theta_k)) = 1$, while for the kth-order, $\nabla A((k, \theta_k), (k', c_{k,k'}(\theta_k)) = \mathbf{0}$.

4.1.2 Saturated State Space

For a given state space $\mathcal{X}$, we can add additional "auxiliary" variables so that each model has the same number of parameters as the largest model. This means that changing between models with different numbers of parameters is equivalent to changing the values of the auxiliary variables. Using this method, between state changes become more likely, and so the sampler covers the set of possible proposals more quickly.

4.1.3 Other Ways to Improve Proposals

Another way to improve the proposal is through adaptive sampling: using past observations, even rejected ones, to make mid-run adjustments to the proposal. There are two types of adaptive sampling. The first is *diminishing* adaptive sampling. In diminishing adaptive sampling, there is continuous adaptation, but at a decreasing rate. The second type is adaptive sampling *through regeneration*. In this method of adaptive sampling, if regions of the state space exist where incoming chains are likely to be independent of outgoing chains, adapt as chains enter and leave them. Finally, there is delayed rejection: if proposal x' is rejected, try a backup proposal x'' instead.

4.2 Finding Appropriate Diagnostics

The main issue in improving efficiency is in promoting transitions between models, namely transitions between state space dimensions. However, when the dimension of the state space is large, it is difficult to imagine any single scalar-valued statistic that could work as a gatekeeper in a general sense. *Transitioning* between models is not always the favored choice. Chains may "stabilize" quickly inside a model, so that chain will provide good diagnostics *until* the chain moves to sample from a different model. At that point, the diagnostics become much trickier.

Recent work has been focused on accounting for the differences in "within" run and "between" run variability: finding ways account for how much disruption in chain behavior is natural when switching dimensions. This idea is similar to "within" model and "between" model variability to account for expected departure from modeled behavior.

5 Extensions & Alternatives

6 Conclusion

7 Code Appendix

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