## Module 6

## 1 The Overall Goal of the Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

Remember that the goal is to generate random numbers from an arbitrary density,  $f_X(x)$ . These numbers will be denoted as  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$ , and we hope that they are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.). The inverse-transform method and the accept-reject method generate each  $X_i$  independently from one another, and these methods can only be used if

- 1. For the inverse-transform method,  $F_X^{-1}(x)$  is analytically tractable (easy to calculate).
- 2. For the accept-reject method, a density g(x) must exist such that for some constant  $C, Cg(x) \ge f_X(x)$  for all x. This density g(x) is not always easy to find.

If (a) or (b) can't be satisfied, one might want to be the Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm. It's important to understand, though, that the Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm is a Markov Chain, meaning that the value of  $X_{t+1}$  depends on the value of  $X_t$ . This is a not the case with the inverse-transform method or the accept-reject method.

So how is the value of  $X_{t+1}$  generated? The value of  $X_{t+1}$  is proposed by what is (not surprisingly) called the proposal distribution. This proposal distribution typically depends to some way) on  $X_t$  and I will denote it as  $g(x_{t+1}|x_t)$ . A ter  $X_{t+1}$  is enerated from  $g(x_{t+1}|x_t)$  it will be accepted as the  $(t+1)^{st}$  value in the sequence  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_t$  with probability

$$\rho = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{f_X(x_{t+1})g(x_t|x_{t+1})}{f_X(x_{t})g(x_t)} \right\}$$

If it is not accepted, the  $(t+1)^{st}$  value in the sequence is  $X_t$ .

Be careful how you pick the candidate density. If the variability in  $X_{t+1}$  is too wide, your moves will be too drastic and you won't accept new values of X very often. If the variability of  $g(x_{t+1}|x_t)$  is too small, you don't move around enough.

Read, study, and code up Examples 6.1 and Examples 6.2 in the book. In Example 6.1, f(x) is the Beta distribution, and  $g(x_{t+1}|x_t)$  is the Uniform. In Example 6.2,  $f_X(x)$  is the Cauchy distribution, and  $g(x_{t+1}|x_t)$  is the normal distribution with mean 0 and variance 1. For Example 6.2, see what happens when  $g(x_{t+1}|x_t)$  is  $N(x_t, 1)$ . What about when it is  $N(x_t, 2)$ .

Also take a look at the example I've worked out and posted the code to. The code is entitled 'MyMetropolisExample.R'. In that example, I am sampling from the density

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{(p-2)/4} \cdot I_{(p-2)/2)} \left(\sqrt{\lambda x}\right) \exp\left\{-\left(\lambda + x\right)/2\right\},$$

where I() is the Bessel function.

# 2 The Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm and Continuous Markov Chains

#### 2.1 Continuous Markov Chains

For the moment, I would like you to recall the material that we covered in Module 4 of the course, Markov Chains. Recall that a Markov chain is a stochastic process where

$$P(X_{t+1} = x_{t+1} | X_t = x_t, X_{t-1} = x_{t-1}, \dots, X_0 = x_0) = P(X_{t+1} = x_{t+1} | X_t = x_t, X_{t-1} = x_{t-1}).$$

In other words, the entire histoy of the chain is irrelevant when calculating  $P(X_{t+1} = x_{t+1} | X_t = x_t)$ . Yet another way to say it is that the conditional distribution of  $X_{t+1}$  given  $X_t, X_{t-1}, X_{t-2}, \dots, X_0$  is equal to the conditional probability of  $X_{t+1}$  given  $X_t$ .

The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm produces a Markov chain because the value of X at time t only depends on the value of X at time t-1. The Markov chain produced by the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm is a little different than those studied in Module 4. The Markov chains studied in Module 4 were discrete, and the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm produces a Markov chain over, possibly, a continuous space. In other words, the values of X proposed and accepted can be any number in a particular interval, whereas for the chains studied in Module 4, the states were discrete (or countable) values.

Recall that for discrete Markov chains, there was a transition probability matrix, P, where  $p_{i,j}$  = the  $(i,j)^{\text{th}}$  element of P was the probability of going to state j "given" the chain was at state i. For continuous chains, there is no transition probability matrix, but there is a transition kernel. The textbook we are using denotes this transition kernel as  $K(X_t, X_{t+1})$ , yet others denote it as  $K(X_{t+1}|X_t)$ . Either way, it is interpreted as the conditional probability density of  $X_{t+1}$  given the chain is currently at  $X_t$ . The next subsection gives the details of how the transition kernel for the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm is calculated

## 2.2 Calculating the Kernel

Recall that

$$X_{t+1} = \begin{cases} X_{\text{cand}} & \text{with proability } \rho(X_t, X_{\text{cand}}) \\ X_t & \text{with probability } 1 - \rho(X_t, X_{\text{cand}}) \end{cases}$$

The conditional probability density of  $X_{t+1}$  given  $X_{cand}$  and  $X_t$  is thus

$$f(X_{t+1}|X_{\mathrm{cand}}, X_t) = \delta(X_{\mathrm{cand}} - X_{t+1}) \cdot \rho(X_t, X_{\mathrm{cand}}) + \delta(X_t - X_{t+1}) \cdot (1 - \rho(X_t, X_{\mathrm{cand}})),$$

where

$$\delta(z) = \begin{cases} 1 & z = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

The transition kernel just wants the conditional probability of  $X_{t+1}$  given  $X_t$ , and to obtain this, the distribution of the candidate value has to be integrated out. It is thus the case that

$$K(X_t, X_{t+1}) = K(X_{t+1}|X_t) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f(X_{t+1}|X_{\text{cand}} = x_{\text{cand}}, X_t) f(X_{\text{cand}} = x_{\text{cand}}|X_t) dx_{\text{cand}}.$$

It can be shown that this is equal to

$$\rho(X_t, X_{t+1})q(X_{t+1}|X_t) + \delta(X_{t+1} - X_t)(1 - r(X_t)),$$

where 
$$r(X_t) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} \rho(X_t, X_{\text{cand}} = x_{\text{cand}}) g(X_{\text{cand}} = x_{\text{cand}} | X_t) dx_{\text{cand}}.$$

## 2.3 The stationary distribution

Also recall what a stationary distribution is in the discrete sense. The stationary distribution, intuitively, is the long-run probability that a chain will arrive or visit a certain state. If there are k possible states in a discrete chain, then the stationary distribution is the k-vector  $\pi$ , and it satisfies

$$\pi^T = \pi^T \mathbf{P}.\tag{1}$$

Writing out the first element of the Equation (1), we get

$$\pi(1) = p_{1,1}\pi(1) + p_{2,1}\pi(2) + \dots + p_{k,1}\pi(k) = \sum_{j} p_{j,1}\pi(j).$$

For continuous Markov chains, the ideas are similar. The sum is just replaced by an integral. The stationary distribution of a continuous Markov chain is that density f such that

$$f(X_{t+1}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} K(X_t = x_t, X_{t+1}) f(X_t = x_t) dx_t.$$

### 2.4 Detailed Balance

A neat thing to note about the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm is that it satisfies detailed balance. Recall that detailed balance is

$$P(X = x_i)P(X_i \to X_{i+1}) = P(X = x_{i+1})P(X_{i+1} \to X_i).$$

Let's prove this:

$$P(X = X_i)P(X_i \to X_{i+1}) = P(X = X_i)P(\text{Moving to } X_{i+1} \text{ given at } X_i)$$

$$= f(x_i) \underbrace{g(x_{i+1}|x_i)}_{\text{Prob. of proposing } x_{i+1}} \cdot \underbrace{\left\{\min\left(1, \frac{f(x_{i+1})g(x_{i+1}|x_i)}{f(x_i)g(x_i|x_{i+1})}\right)\right\}}_{\text{Prob. of accepting proposal}}.$$

If we assume that the ratio in the above expression is less than 1, this becomes

$$= f(x_i)g(x_{i+1}|x_i) \left\{ \frac{f(x_{i+1})g(x_{i+1}|x_i)}{f(x_i)g(x_i|x_{i+1})} \right\}$$

$$= f(x_{i+1})g(x_{i+1}|x_i)$$

$$= f(x_{i+1})g(x_{i+1}|x_i) \left\{ \min\left(1, \frac{f(x_i)g(x_i|x_{i+1})}{f(x_{i+1})g(x_{i+1}|x_i)} \right) \right\}$$

$$= P(X = X_{i+1})P(X_{i+1} \to X_i)$$