## Stochastic Simulation Markov Chain Monte Carlo

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# Explanation: What is the problem with the

## DTU

- Pareto distribution
- Moment distributions
- For nonnegative valued random variables

$$G_j(x) = \frac{\int_0^x t^j f(t)dt}{\int_0^\infty t^j f(t)dt} = \frac{\int_0^x t^j f(t)dt}{\mathbb{E}(X^j)}$$

The contribution to the j'th moment from values  $\leq x$ .

$$\int_0^x t^1 f(t) dt = \int_\beta^x t \frac{k}{\beta} \left(\frac{t}{\beta}\right)^{-k-1} dt = \int_\beta^x k \left(\frac{t}{\beta}\right)^{-k} dt$$

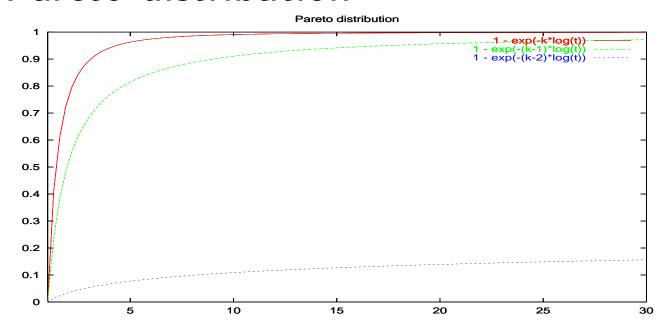
$$= \beta \frac{k}{k-1} \int_{\beta}^{x} \frac{k-1}{\beta} \left(\frac{t}{\beta}\right)^{-k} dt = \frac{\beta k}{k-1} \left[1 - \left(\frac{x}{\beta}\right)^{-k+1}\right]$$

DTU —

## Explanation: What is the problem with the



#### Pareto distribution



- The first moment distribution for the Pareto distribution (green)
- The second moment distribution for the Pareto distribution (blue)

DTU —

## Some numbers $\beta = 1$

$$F(t) = 1 - t^{-k} \qquad f(t) = kt^{-k-1}$$

$$G_1(t) = 1 - t^{-k+1} \qquad G_2(t) = 1 - t^{-k+2}$$

For k = 2.05

t	F(t)	$G_1(t)$	$G_2(t)$
2	0.7585	0.5170	0.0341
10	0.9911	0.9109	0.1190
100	0.9999	0.9921	0.2057
844.5	$1 - 10^{-6}$	0.9992	0.2860

• Even when if we simulate  $10^6$  values we can not expect to get a decent estimate of the variance!

#### What to learn:



- Care is needed when using simulation
- Especially if one wants to study strange or rare phenomena.
- Always use your practical, theoretical and intuitive understanding of the system to support the analysis by simulation.

#### The queueing example



We simulated the system until "stochastic steady state".

We were then able to describe this steady state:

- What is the distribution of occupied servers
- What is the rejection probability

The model was a "state machine", i.e. a Markov Chain.

To obtain steady-state statistics, we used stochastic simulation, i.e. Monte Carlo.

DTU —

#### Discrete time Markov chains



- We observe a sequence of  $X_n$ s taking values in some sample space
- The Next value in the sequence  $X_{n+1}$  is determined from some decision rule depending on the value of  $X_n$  only.
- For discrete sample space we can express the decision rule as a matrix of transition probabilities  $P = \{p_{ij}\}$ ,  $p_{ij} = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i)$
- Under some technical assumptions we can find a stationary and limiting distribution  $\pi.\pi_j = \mathbb{P}(X_\infty = j)$ .
- This distribution can be analytically found by solving

$$\pi = \pi P$$
 (equilibrium distribution)

#### Markov chains continued



- The theory can be extended to:
  - Continuous sample space or
  - Continuous time: exercise 4 is an example of a Continuous time Markov chain

DTU —

## The probability of $X_n$



- The behaviour of the process itself  $X_n$
- The behaviour conditional on  $X_0 = i$  is  $(p_{ij}(n))$
- Define  $\mathbb{P}(X_n=j)=\mu_j^{(n)}$  with  $\mathbb{P}(X_0=j)=\mu_j^{(0)}$
- with  $\vec{\mu}^{(n)}=\{\mu_j^{(n)}\}$  we find

$$\vec{\mu}^{(n)} = \vec{\mu}^{(n-1)}P = \vec{\mu}^{(0)}P_n = \vec{\mu}^{(0)}P^n$$

#### Small example

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-p & p & 0 & 0 \\ q & 0 & p & 0 \\ 0 & q & 0 & p \\ 0 & 0 & q & 1-q \end{bmatrix}$$

with  $\vec{\mu}^{(0)} = (\frac{1}{3}, 0, 0, \frac{2}{3})$  we get

$$\vec{\mu}^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3}, 0, 0, \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1-p & p & 0 & 0 \\ q & 0 & p & 0 \\ 0 & q & 0 & p \\ 0 & 0 & q & 1-q \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1-p}{3}, \frac{p}{3}, \frac{2q}{3}, \frac{2(1-q)}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

#### and



$$\vec{\mu}^{(0)} = \left(\frac{1}{3}, 0, 0, \frac{2}{3}\right),$$

$$P^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} (1-p)^{2} + pq & (1-p)p & p^{2} & 0 \\ q(1-p) & 2qp & 0 & p^{2} \\ q^{2} & 0 & 2qp & p(1-q) \\ 0 & q^{2} & (1-q)q & (1-q)^{2} + qp \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{\mu}^{(2)} = \left(\frac{1}{3}, 0, 0, \frac{2}{3}\right).$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} (1-p)^2 + pq & (1-p)p & p^2 & 0 \\ q(1-p) & 2qp & 0 & p^2 \\ q^2 & 0 & 2qp & p(1-q) \\ 0 & q^2 & (1-q)q & (1-q)^2 + qp \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \left(\frac{(1-p)^2 + pq}{3}, \frac{(1-p)p}{3}, \frac{4qp}{3}, \frac{2p(1-q)}{3}\right)$$

#### MCMC: What we aim to achieve



We have a variable X with a "complicated" distribution.

We cannot sample X directly.

We aim to generate a sequence of  $X_i$ 's

- which each has the same distribution as X
- but we allow them to be interdependent.

This is an **inverse problem** relative to the queueing exercise: We start with the distribution of X, and aim to design a state machine which has this steady-state distribution.

## MCMC example from Bayesian statistics



Prior distribution of parameter

$$P \sim U(0,1)$$
 :  $f_P(p) = \mathbf{1}(0 \le p \le 1)$ 

Distribution of data, conditional on parameter

$$X for given P = p \text{ is } Binomial(n, P)$$

i.e. the data has the conditional probabilities

$$\mathbb{P}(X=i|P) = \binom{n}{i} P^{i} (1-P)^{n-i}$$

### The posterior distribution of P



Conditional density of parameter, given observed data X = i:

$$f_{P|X=i}(p) = f_P(p) \frac{\mathbf{P}(X=i|P=p)}{\mathbf{P}(X=i)}$$

We need the unconditional probability of the observation:

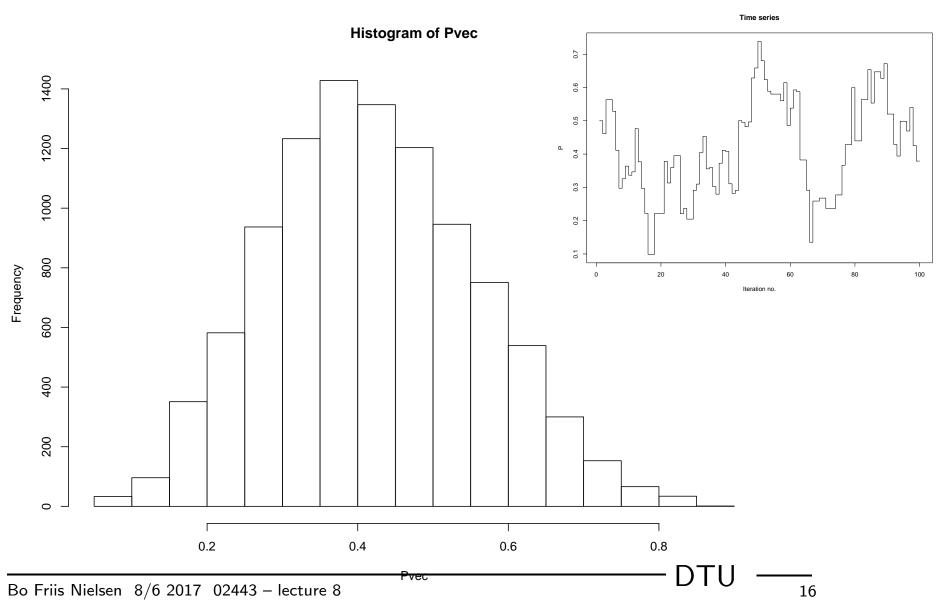
$$\mathbf{P}(X=i) = \int_0^1 f_P(p) \begin{pmatrix} n \\ i \end{pmatrix} p^i (1-p)^{n-i} dp$$

We can evaluate this; in more complex models we could not.

AIM: To sample from  $f_{P|X=i}$ , without evaluating  $\mathbf{P}(X=i)$ .

### The posterior distribution





#### When to apply MCMC?

The distribution is given by



$$f(x) = c \cdot g(x)$$

where the unnormalized density g can be evaluated, but the normalising constant c cannot be evaluated (easily).

$$c = \frac{1}{\int_{\mathbf{X}} g(x) \ dx}$$

This is frequently the case in Bayesian statistics - the posterior density is proportional to the likelihood function

Note (again) the similarity between simulation and evaluation of integrals

#### Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- Proposal distribution  $h(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$
- Acceptance of solution? The solution will be accepted with probability

$$\min\left(1, \frac{f(\boldsymbol{y})h(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x})}{f(\boldsymbol{x})h(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})}\right) = \min\left(1, \frac{g(\boldsymbol{y})h(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x})}{g(\boldsymbol{x})h(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})}\right)$$
$$\left(=\min\left(1, \frac{g(\boldsymbol{y})}{g(\boldsymbol{x})}\right) \text{ for } h(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) = h(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})\right)$$

- Avoiding the troublesome constant K!
- Frequently we apply a symmetric proposal distribution  $h(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) = h(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x})$  Metropolis algorithm
- It can be shown that this Markov chain will have f(x) as stationary distribution.

### Random Walk Metropolis-Hastings

Sampling from p.d.f.  $c \cdot g(x)$  where c is unknown.



- 1. At iteration i, the state is  $X_i$
- 2. Propose to jump from  $X_i$  to  $Y_i = X_i + \Delta X_i$  where  $\Delta X_i$  is sampled independently from a symmetric distribution
  - If  $g(Y) \geq g(X_i)$ , accept
  - If  $g(Y) \leq g(X_i)$ , accept w.p.  $g(Y)/g(X_i)$
- 3. On accept: Set  $X_{i+1} = Y_i$  and goto 1.
- 4. On reject: Set  $X_{i+1} = X_i$  and goto 1.

Note that knowing c is not necessary!

## Proposal distribution (Gelman 1998)



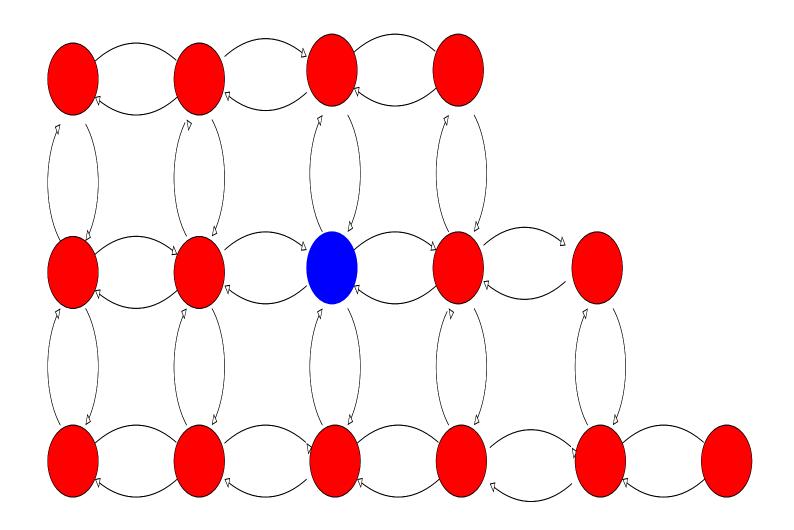
- A good proposal distribution has the following properties
  - $\diamond$  For any  $\boldsymbol{x}$ , it is easy to sample from  $h(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$
  - It is easy to compute the acceptance probability
  - Each jump goes a reasonable distance in the parameter space
  - The proposals are not rejected too frequently

#### Gibss sampling



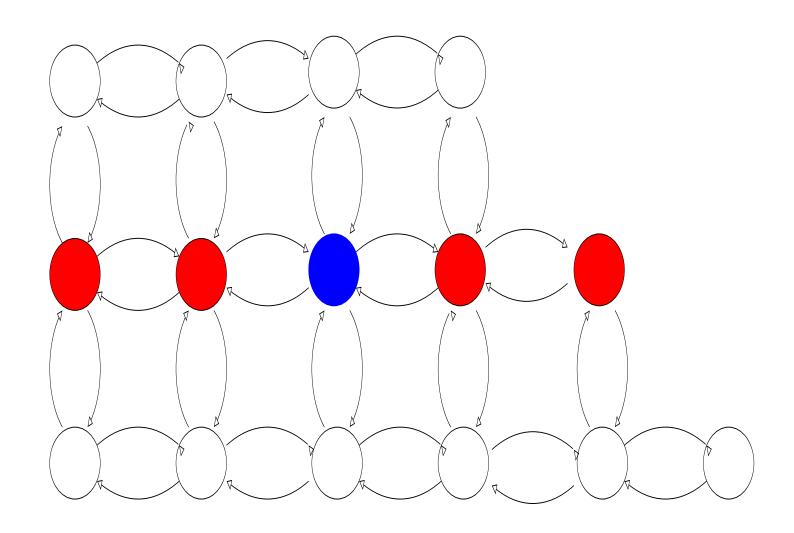
- Applies in multivariate cases where the conditional distribution among the coordinates are known.
- For a multidimensional distribution  $m{x}$  the Gibss sampler will modify only one coordinate at a time.
- Typically d-steps in each iteration, where d is the dimension of the parameter space , that is of  ${m x}$

## Illustration of ordinary and MCMC sampling



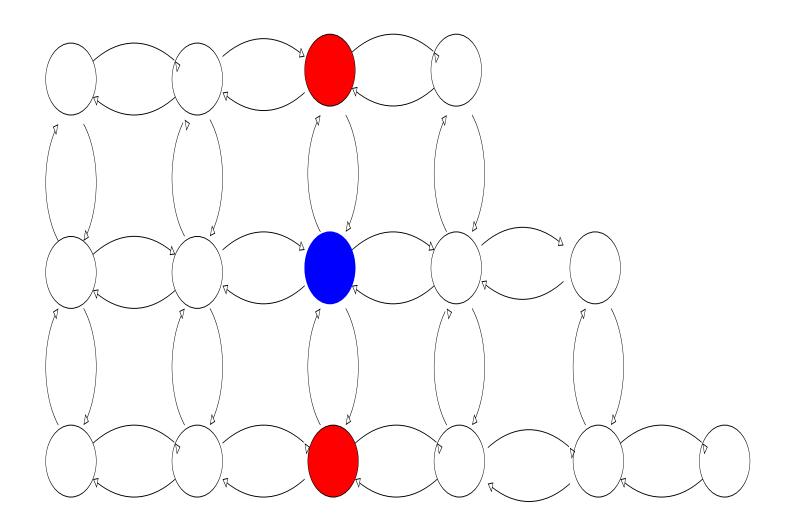
## Gibbs sampling - first dimension





## Gibbs sampling - second dimension





## Direct Markov chain as oppposed to MCMC

- For an ordinary Markov chain we know P and find  $\pi$  analytically or by simulation
- When we apply MCMC
  - $\diamond$  For a discrete distribution we know  $K\pi$  construct P which has no physical interpretation in general and obtain  $\pi$  by simulation
  - For a continuous distribution we know g(x) construct a transition kernel P(x, y) and get f(x) by simulation.

#### Remarks

The method is computer intensitive



- It is hard to verify the assumptions (Read: impossible)
- Warmup period strongly recommended (necessary indeed!)
- The samples are correlated
- Should be run several times with different starting conditions
  - Comparing within run variance with between run variance
- Check the BUGS site:

http://www.mrc-bsu.cam.ac.uk/bugs/and/or links given at the BUGS site

#### Further reading



- A. Gelman, J.B. Carlin, H.S. Stern, D.B. Rubin: Bayesian Data Analysis, Chapmann & Hall 1998, ISBN 0 412 03991 5
- W.R. Gilks, S. Richarson, D.J. Spiegelhalter: Markov chain Mone Carlo in practice, Chapmann & Hall 1996, ISBN 0 412 05551 1

## Beyond Random Walk Metropolis-Hastings



- ullet Proposed points  $Y_i$  can be generated with other schemes this would change the acceptance probabilities.
- In mulitvariate situations, we can process one co-ordinate at a time (Gibbs sampling)
- This is well suited for graphical models with many variables, which each interact only with a few others
- (Decision support systems is a big area of application)
- Many hybrids and specialized versions exist
- Very active research area, both theory and applications

# Exercise 6: Markov Chain Monte Carlo



#### simulation

 The number of busy lines in a trunk group (Erlang system) is given by a truncated Poisson distribution

$$P(i) = \frac{\frac{A^i}{i!}}{\sum_{j=0}^n \frac{A^j}{j!}}$$

• Generate values from this distribution by applying the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm, verify with a  $\chi^2$ -test. You can use the parameter values from exercise 4.

#### Exercise 6 continued



• For two different call types the joint number of occupied lines is given by  $\frac{1}{1} \frac{Ai}{A} \frac{Ai}{I}$ 

$$P(i,j) = \frac{1}{K} \frac{A_1^i}{i!} \frac{A_2^j}{j!}$$

- Use Metropolis-Hastings, directly and coordinate wise to generate variates from this distribution. You can use  $A_1, A_2 = 4$  og n=10.
- Test the distribution with a  $\chi^2$  test
- Optional: Redo the coordinate wise solution using Gibbs sampling. You will need to find the conditional distributions analytically.
- Optional: Redo the exercise with BUGS or other available software

can add restrictions on the different call types.