# Markov Chain Monte Carlo methods

**Stat 580** 

### General information

- A series of random variables  $\{Y_i, i = 1, ..., n\}$  has the Markov property if the conditional distribution of  $Y_i$ , given all the previous observations  $Y_1, ..., Y_{i-1}$  depends only on  $Y_{i-1}$ .
- In these two slides, we assume that the state space is countable for ease of exposition.
- If  $Y_i$  has a discrete sample space (state space), this is the same as

$$P(Y_i = k | Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_{i-1}) = P(Y_i = k | Y_{i-1} = j) = P_{jk},$$

where  $P_{jk}$  is the probability that the variable "jumps" from state j to state k, known as transition probability.

- Transition matrix  $P = \{P_{jk}\}$
- $\{Y_1, ...\}$  is called a Markov chain, characterized by P.

### General information

- If *P* possesses the following properties:
  - 1. Irreducibility: the Markov chain is not made up of smaller cycles
  - 2. Aperiodicity:  $P(X_j = k | X_0 = k) > 0$  and  $P(X_{j+1} = k | X_0 = k) > 0$
  - 3. Recurrence: the Markov chain returns to its original state with probability 1.
- Then a stationary distribution (limiting equilibrium distribution) exists, denoted as  $\pi$  or f.

# Weather example

In the summer, each day in Ames is either sunny or rainy. A sunny day is followed by another sunny day with probability 0.7, whereas a rainy day is followed by a sunny day with probability 0.4. It rains on Monday (M). Make weather forecasts for Tuesday (T), Wednesday (W), and Thursday (H), using a homogeneous Markov chain model.

Forecast for Tuesday (one-step transition)

$$P(T \text{ sunny} \mid M \text{ rainy}) = 0.4$$
  
 $P(T \text{ rainy} \mid M \text{ rainy}) = 0.6$ 

• Forecast for Wednesday (two-step transition): e.g.,

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P(W \text{ sunny} \mid M \text{ rainy}) = P(W \text{ sunny} \mid T \text{ rainy}, M \text{ rainy})P(T \text{ rainy} \mid M \text{ rainy})
+ P(W \text{ sunny} \mid T \text{ sunny}, M \text{ rainy})P(T \text{ sunny} \mid M \text{ rainy})
= (0.4)(0.6) + (0.7)(0.4) = 0.52
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# Weather example

- let "sunny" and "rainy" be state 1 and 2 respectively.
- Using matrix notation,
  - the transition matrix

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 \\ 0.4 & 0.6 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $\circ$  Forecast for Tuesday (one-step transition): second row of P
  - can be regarded as (0, 1)**P**
- Forecast for Wednesday (two-step transition): second row of  $P^2$ 
  - can be regarded as  $(0,1)P^2$

# Weather example

• Forecast for 14 days later:

$$\mathbf{P}^{14} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5714286 & 0.4285714 \\ 0.5714285 & 0.4285715 \end{pmatrix}$$

• Forecast for 30 days later:

$$\mathbf{P}^{30} \simeq \begin{pmatrix} 0.5714286 & 0.4285714 \\ 0.5714286 & 0.4285714 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4/7 & 3/7 \\ 4/7 & 3/7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that

$$(p, 1-p)$$
  $\begin{pmatrix} 4/7 & 3/7 \\ 4/7 & 3/7 \end{pmatrix} = (4/7, 3/7)$ 

• no matter what the starting distribution (p, 1-p) is, the distribution after long time converge to  $\pi = (4/7, 3/7)$  (stationary distribution)

#### Markov Chain Monte Carlo

- often, the goal is to generate a series of observations whose stationary distribution  $\pi$  (or f) is proportional to the unnormalized posterior distribution (mainly for Bayesian methods)
- these observations are correlated, so need to "skip every *m* observations" to get an (approximate) *iid* sample
- also, it will take some time for the chain to reach its equilibrium state, so throw away the first say 10000 observations (known as burn-in).

# Gibbs sampling

- goal: sample from joint distribution
- applicable when the conditional distributions of variables (given others) can be easily constructed (and sampled) from
- basic form for three components: for i = 1, ..., n, do
  - Generate  $X_i$  from  $f(x|y = Y_{i-1}, z = Z_{i-1})$ .
  - Generate  $Y_i$  from  $f(y|x = X_i, z = Z_{i-1})$ .
  - Generate  $Z_i$  from  $f(z|x = X_i, y = Y_i)$ .
- then the triple  $(X_i, Y_i, Z_i)$  forms a Markov chain whose stationary distribution is the joint distribution of X, Y, Z
- note that any or all of the three components (X, Y, Z) may be multivariate

### Example

Suppose we are trying to simulate from  $f(x, y) = \binom{n}{x} y^{x+n-1} (1-y)^{n-x+\beta-1}$ , where x is an integer from 0 to n, and  $y \in [0, 1]$ .

• Treating y as fixed in f(x, y), we find out that

$$f(x|y) \propto \binom{n}{x} y^x (1-y)^{n-x},$$

which is Binomial(n, y).

• Treating *x* as fixed,

$$f(y|x) \propto y^{x+\alpha-1} (1-y)^{n-x+\beta-1}$$

which is Beta $(x + \alpha, n + \beta)$ .

- To use Gibbs sampling, for i = 1, ..., n, do
  - 1. generate  $Y_i$  from  $f(y|x = X_{i-1})$
  - 2. generate  $X_i$  from  $f(x|y = Y_i)$

# Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- a dependent version of the rejection algorithm (depend on previous draw)
- target stationary distribution f(x)
- need a proposal distribution with density q(y|x)
- The algorithm: Choose  $X_0$ . The algorithm generates  $X_i$ , for  $i=1,\ldots,$ , as follows.
  - 1. Generate  $Y_i$  from  $q(y|X = x_{i-1})$  and  $U_i$  from Unif(0, 1).
  - 2. Evaluate  $r(X_{i-1}, Y_i)$  where

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

3. If  $U_i \leq r(X_{i-1}, Y_i)$ , then set  $X_i = Y_i$ . If not, then set  $X_i = X_{i-1}$ .

# Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- If we only know the density f(x) up to a constant c (i.e., f(x) = cp(x)), we can still use Metropolis-Hastings.
- Common choices for q(y|x) is  $\mathcal{N}(x,b^2)$  for some b>0. In this case, q is symmetric, i.e., q(y|x)=q(x|y), and r simplifies to

$$r(x,y) = \min\left\{\frac{f(y_i)}{f(x_{i-1})}, 1\right\}.$$

•  $X_i$  can be a vector of random variables, or other object like a tree structured "data point".

### Example

Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}$  be the distribution we are trying to generate from (Cauchy distribution).

• Take q(y|x) as  $\mathcal{N}(x, b^2)$ . So

$$r(x, y) = \min\left\{\frac{f(y)}{f(x)}, 1\right\} = \min\left\{\frac{1 + x^2}{1 + y^2}, 1\right\}$$

- The algorithm is:
  - 1. Draw  $Y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(X_{i-1}, b^2)$ .
  - 2. Set

$$X_i = \begin{cases} Y_i & \text{with probability } r(X_{i-1}, Y_i), \\ X_{i-1} & \text{with probability } 1 - r(X_{i-1}, Y_i). \end{cases}$$

# Example

- If b is small (e.g., b=0.1), the chain takes small steps and does not "explore" much of the sample space.
- If *b* is too small, the chain will be highly correlated.
- If b is large (e.g., b = 10), the proposals  $(Y_i)$  are often far in the tails, making r small and hence we often reject the proposal.
- For this example b = 1 is about the right choice.