BML lecture #2: MCMC

http://github.com/rbardenet/bml-course

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- 2 Monte Carlo methods
- 3 The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm
- 4 Gibbs sampling
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What comes to your mind when you hear "Monte Carlo"?

Expected utility requires computing integrals

Minimizing the posterior expected loss

If we partition $s = (s_{obs}, s_u)$, then, given s_{obs} , we choose

$$a^{\star} = \delta(s_{\text{obs}}) = \underset{a \in \mathcal{A}}{\arg\min} \mathbb{E}_{s_{\text{u}}|s_{\text{obs}}} L(a, s).$$

The bottleneck is computing integrals w.r.t. the posterior

► E.g. for binary prediction with 0-1 loss

$$y^{\star} \in \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{y \in \{0,1\}} \int p(y|x, heta) p(heta|x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}) \mathrm{d} heta$$

or for estimation with squared loss

$$\theta^* = \int \theta p(\theta|y_{1:n}) d\theta.$$

Numerical integration

Let π be a pdf w.r.t. $d\theta$.

The problem of numerical integration

Find T nodes (θ_t) and weights (w_t) so that

$$\int f(\theta)\pi(\theta)\mathrm{d}\theta \quad pprox \quad \sum_{t=1}^N w_t f(\theta_t), \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{C},$$

where C is a large class of functions.

A constraint for Bayesians: π is only known up to a constant

E.g. in estimation,

$$\pi(\theta) = p(\theta|y_{1:n}) \propto p(y_{1:n}|\theta)p(\theta) =: \pi_u(\theta).$$

Or in classification/regression,

$$\pi(\theta) = p(\theta|x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}) \propto p(y_{1:n}|x_{1:n}, \theta)p(\theta) =: \pi_u(\theta).$$

Riemann-like inte	gration is	impractical	when a	$d \gg$	1.
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► For modern developments, see quasi-Monte Carlo integration Dick and Pilichshammer, 2010.

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The Monte Carlo principle

Find a distribution on $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_T$ and weights w_t such that

$$\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{T}}(f) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} w_t f(\theta_t) - \int f(\theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta$$

is small (with large probability, in quadratic mean, converges in law at some rate, etc.)

If you knew how to sample from π , you could take $\theta_t \sim \pi$ i.i.d., $w_t = 1/T$, and prove e.g.

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{T}}(f) \geqslant \alpha \frac{\sigma(f)}{\sqrt{T}}\right) \leqslant \frac{1}{\alpha^2}, \quad \forall \alpha,$$

as soon as $\sigma(f)^2 := \mathbb{V}_{\pi}[f(\theta) - \int f(\theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta] < +\infty$.

Self-normalized importance sampling

- Let $\pi_u(\theta) = Z\pi(\theta)$ be the unnormalized target pdf.
- ▶ Sample $\theta_{1:T}$ i.i.d. from q, and take

$$w_t = \frac{\pi_u(\theta_t)}{q(\theta_t)} \times \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \frac{\pi_u(\theta_t)}{q(\theta_t)}\right)^{-1}$$

so that $\sum w_t = 1$.

► Then

- ▶ One can show that $\sqrt{T}\mathcal{E}_T(f) \to \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{NIS}^2(f))$.
- ▶ Problem is that for reasonable choices of $f, q, \pi, \log \sigma_{NIS}(f) \propto d$.

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(Mostly) friendly faces



Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC; (Robert and Casella, 2004))

► The idea is to take (θ_t) to be an ergodic Markov chain with limiting distribution π , so that for $f \in L^1(\pi)$,

In MCMC research, when a new Markov kernel comes out, we typically first prove a law of large numbers, and then a central limit theorem, i.e., that under weak conditions on π and f,

and that $\sigma^2(f)$ can be estimated; see (Douc, Moulines, and Stoffer, 2014).

A law of large numbers for Markov chains

Let $(\theta_t)_{t\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a Markov chain on Θ , with Markov kernel P. If

▶ There exists π s.t.

$$\int \mathrm{d}\pi(x)P(x,B)=\pi(B).$$

▶ For any A with $\pi(A) > 0$, for any $\theta \in \Theta$,

$$\mathbb{P}_{\theta}\left(\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} 1_{\theta_t \in A} = +\infty\right) = 1,$$

then for any f such that $\int |f| \mathrm{d}\pi < \infty$, for any initial distribution μ_0 of θ_0 , almost surely

$$\frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^T f(\theta_t) o \int f \mathrm{d}\pi.$$

See e.g. (Douc, Moulines, and Stoffer, 2014).

The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

```
\mathrm{MH}(\pi_u, q(\cdot|\cdot), \theta_0, T)
                      for t \leftarrow 1 to T
                                    \theta \leftarrow \theta_{t-1}
                                    \theta' \sim \mathbf{q}(.|\theta), \ u \sim \mathcal{U}_{(0,1)},
                                  \rho = \frac{\pi(\theta')}{\pi(\theta)} \frac{q(\theta|\theta')}{q(\theta'|\theta)}.
                              if u < \rho,
     5
                                                 \theta_t \leftarrow \theta' \qquad \triangleright Accept
     6
                                     else \theta_t \leftarrow \theta \triangleright Reject
                        return (\theta_t)_{t=1,...,N_{\text{iter}}}
```

The MH Markov kernel...

... is given by

$$P_{\mathsf{MH}}(\theta, \theta') = \alpha(\theta, \theta') q(\theta'|\theta) + \delta_{\theta}(\theta') \left[1 - \int \alpha(\theta, \vartheta) q(\vartheta|\theta) \right] d\vartheta,$$

where

$$\alpha(\theta, \theta') = 1 \wedge \frac{\pi(\theta')}{\pi(\theta)} \frac{q(\theta|\theta')}{q(\theta'|\theta)}.$$

MH leaves π invariant and satisfies the LLN

- ▶ We first show detailed balance, i.e., $\pi(\theta)P(\theta, \theta') = \pi(\theta')P(\theta', \theta)$.
- \blacktriangleright We deduce that P leaves π invariant.

Theorem (Robert and Casella, 2004)

If $\pi(A) > 0 \Rightarrow (\forall x) q(A|x) > 0$, then P_{MH} satisfies the LLN.

Some additional useful properties

▶ Note that if P_1 and P_2 leave π invariant, then so does

$$P_1P_2(\theta,\theta') = \int P_1(\theta,\vartheta)P_2(\vartheta,\theta')\mathrm{d}\vartheta.$$

► The MH error scales polynomially with the dimension; see blog post.

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The random scan Gibbs sampler

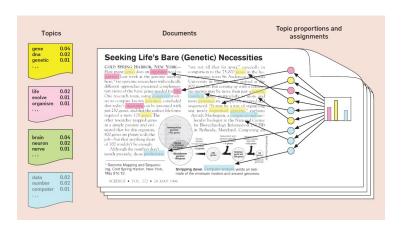
Consider MH with

$$q(\theta'|\theta) = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{k=1}^{d} \pi(\theta'_{k}|\theta_{\setminus k}) 1_{\theta'_{\setminus k} = \theta_{\setminus k}}, \quad \theta_{\setminus k} := (\theta_{1}, \dots, \theta_{k-1}, \theta_{k+1}, \dots, \theta_{d}).$$

▶ Then the probability of acceptance $\alpha(\theta, \theta')$ is always 1.

- In practice, the systematic scan Gibbs sampler is more common, which consists in repeatedly: drawing $\theta_1|\theta_{\backslash 1}$, then $\theta_2|\theta_{\backslash 2}$, etc. always conditioning on the newest values available of each θ_k .
- ▶ You can also partition θ in arbitrary blocks.

An example: Latent Dirichlet allocation



A Gibbs sampler for LDA

Collapsed Gibbs sampling for LDA

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An abstract variant of MH

Let S be a linear involution of $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2d}$, such that $\eta \circ S = \eta$ for some (possibly unnormalized) PDF η .

- Let further $\Phi: \mathbb{R}^{2d} \to \mathbb{R}^{2d}$ be a C^1 -diffeomorphism such that $S \circ \Phi = \Phi^{-1} \circ S$.
- ► Now let

$$\alpha(x) \triangleq 1 \wedge \frac{\eta(\Phi(x))}{\eta(x)} |\Phi'(x)|, \tag{1}$$

and consider the Markov kernel

$$P_{\mathsf{aHMC}}(x,A) = \alpha(x) 1_{\Phi(x) \in A} + (1 - \alpha(x)) 1_{S(x) \in A}.$$

Proposition

 P_{aHMC} leaves η invariant.

Hamiltonian dynamics is the source of inspiration

Hamilton's equations of motion

Consider a physical system described by Hamiltonian $H(x,\xi)$ in phase space $(x,\xi) \in \mathbb{R}^{2d}$. Then the trajectories are prescribed by

$$\dot{x}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \xi_i} \qquad \dot{\xi}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x_i}.$$
 (2)

- ▶ Given an initial point (x, ξ) , solve (2) and denote the corresponding position in \mathbb{R}^{2d} at time t > 0 by $\Phi_t(x, \xi)$.
- ▶ (2) implies that $t \mapsto H(\Phi_t(x,\xi))$ is constant.
- As an example, consider $H(x,\xi) = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{2}\xi^2$.

Numerical approximations of the Hamiltonian flow

- ▶ One idea would be to put some monotone function of the target in the Hamiltonian, such as $H(q, p) = -\log \pi(q) + \frac{1}{2}\xi^T M\xi$.
- We know approximations of the Hamiltonian flow, such as the leapfrog (aka velocity Verlet) integrator. It is defined as $\psi_h^n = \psi_h \circ \dots \psi_h$, where $(p', q') = \psi_h(p, q)$ is

$$p_{1/2} = p + \frac{h}{2} \nabla \log \pi(q)$$

 $q' = a + hM^{-1}p_{1/2}$
 $p' = p_{1/2} + \frac{h}{2} \nabla \log \pi(q');$

Proposition

The leapfrog integrator satisfies $S \circ \psi_h^n = (\psi_h^n)^{-1} \circ S$ for S(q,p) = (q,-p), and $|\det(\psi_h^n)'(q,p)| = 1$.

Hamiltonian Monte Carlo mimics a physical system

- Let $\log \widetilde{\pi}(x,\xi) = \log \pi(x) + \frac{1}{2}\xi^T M(x)\xi$.
- ► Consider the Markov kernel $\bar{P}((x,\xi),(x,\xi'))$ given by the product of

$$\xi \sim \mathcal{N}(0, M(x)^{-1})$$

and

$$P_{\mathsf{aHMC}}(x,A) = \alpha(x) \mathbb{1}_{\Phi(x) \in A} + (1 - \alpha(x)) \mathbb{1}_{S(x) \in A}.$$

where

$$\alpha(x) \triangleq 1 \wedge \frac{\widetilde{\pi}(\psi_h^n(x))}{\widetilde{\pi}(x)} | (\psi_h^n)'(x)) |, \tag{3}$$

Then P leaves π invariant.

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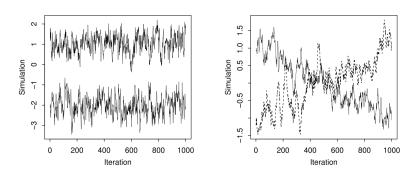


Figure: Taken from (Gelman et al., 2013)

We need to monitor both cross-chain and within-chain behavior.

Comparing *P* **chains with overdispersed starting points**

- ▶ The behaviour of the *P* traces should become similar.
- ► Always make visual sanity checks!
- Scalar estimates should converge to the same value.
- We can also compare the variance of a scalar estimate within- and across chains

The Gelman-Rubin diagnostic

- ▶ Choose an f of interest, e.g. $f(\theta) = \theta_1$.
- ► Compute $B := \frac{T}{P-1} \sum_{p=1}^{P} (\bar{f}_{p} \bar{f}_{p})^{2}$.
- ► Compute $W := \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=1}^{P} \left[\frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\bar{f}_{tp} \bar{f}_{\cdot p})^2 \right]$.
- ► Then check whether

$$\hat{R} = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{T-1}{T}W + \frac{1}{T}B}{W}} \in [1, 1.1].$$

► See (Vats and Knudson, 2021) for an insightful discussion.

More convergence diagnostics

Single-chain diagnostics

- ▶ The idea is to compare different chunks of a single chain.
- At stationarity, large chunks should be statistically hard to distinguish.
- ► The Geweke diagnostic tests this similarity (Geweke, 1992)

Effective sample size

- Autocorrelation in each chain is what increases the variance of scalar estimands, compared to i.i.d. draws from π .
- ▶ We can estimate this autocorrelation, and build an estimator for the ratio of the two variances $\widehat{ESS} \in [1, PT]$, called the *effective sample size*; see Section 11.5 of (Gelman et al., 2013).
- Note that

$$\hat{R} \approx \sqrt{1 + P/\widehat{ESS}},$$

so $\hat{R} = 1.1$ only corresponds to $\widehat{ESS} = 5P$ (Vats and Knudson, 2021).

Take-home message

- MCMC approximates the integrals in the expected utility framework.
- Try to leverage the problem's structure to design your kernels.
- Otherwise, try standard kernels like HMC.
- Always monitor convergence.
- HMC with NUTS is the default choice in most probabilistic programming frameworks.
- ► MCMC is a rich research topic. Some keywords: Wang-Landau Langevin, equi-energy, hit-and-run, bouncy particle sampler.
- Besides Markov chains, checkout sequential Monte Carlo samplers (Del Moral, Doucet, and Jasra, 2006).
- Deterministic methods are also investigated: quasi-Monte Carlo methods (Dick and Pilichshammer, 2010) have the best convergence rates as soon as the integrand is smooth.

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