

# Bayesian Statistics and Markov-Chain Monte Carlo

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Computational Methods in Statistics and Data Science (Stats 406)

# **Baysian Statistics**

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# Definitions of Probability

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Belief about parameters can be expressed by a random variable; the data we see are fixed.

## Bayes's Rule

Deriving Bayes rule (for events  $A$  and  $B$ ):

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Observe: Frequentist statistical approaches often use Bayes's rule when, e.g., predicting  $B$  after observing  $A$ .

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- $\int f(x | \theta) p(\theta) d\theta$ : A **normalizing constant** (also known as the marginal likelihood of  $X$ ,  $f(x)$ )

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With two priors, we can compare posterior distributions to get **Bayes Factors** (Bayesian hypothesis tests).

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We'll see an immediate example and then revisit for more complicated examples

## Inference for binomial $\theta$

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You administer a test of 30 true/false questions. The student scores

[1] 27

correctly.

## Assumptions and Likelihood

Let us assume that

- All questions are answered with probability  $\theta \in (0, 1)$ .
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By these assumptions, we get a **binomial likelihood** for the total  $X$ :

$$f(x | \theta) = \binom{30}{x} \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{30-x}$$

## Prior Distribution

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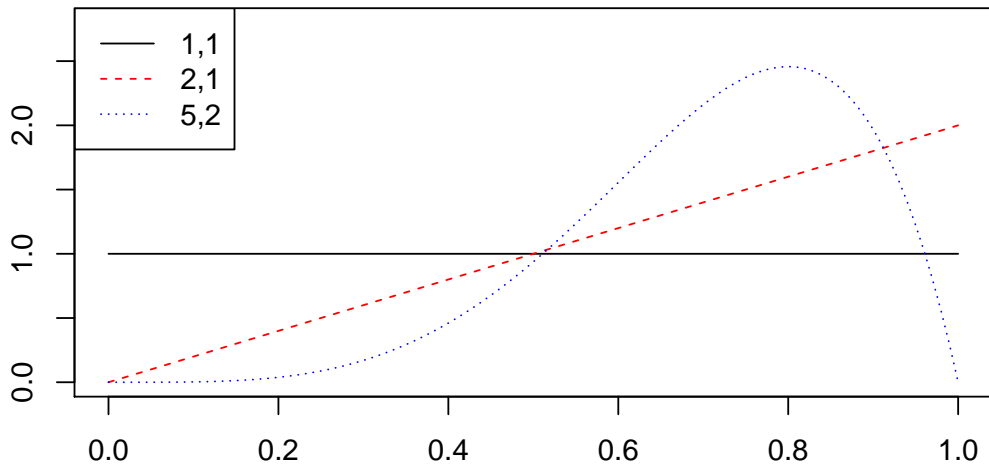
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We think that we did a decent job teaching ( $\theta$  probably close to 0.75), but we want to leave the possibility that we did not do a good job.





## Computing posteriors

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We would still like to know the full posterior  $\pi$ .

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Then  $g(x) = cf^*(x)$ .

## Posterior for beta prior and binomial likelihood

In our case, we have:

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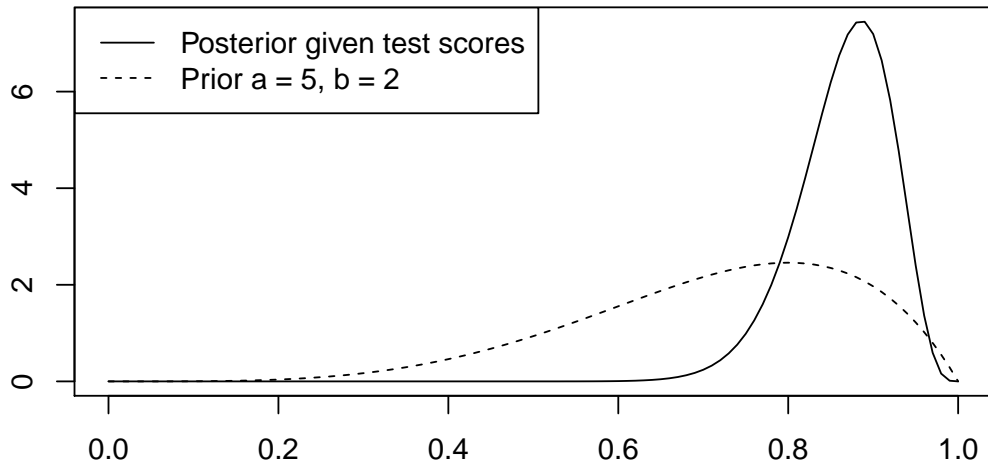
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Key insight: since  $\pi(\theta | x) \propto \text{Beta}(\alpha + x, \beta + 30 - x)$  it **must also be Beta distributed** (the beta distribution is **conjugate** for the binomial distribution).

## Posterior



## Using the posterior

What is the probability that you were successful at teaching?

```
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How much did the scores reduce the variance in your uncertainty?

```
> 1 - var(rbeta(1000, 5 + test_score, 32 - test_score)) /  
+   var(rbeta(1000, 5, 2)) ## MC estimates of variance
```

```
[1] 0.8925
```



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- **Multiple parameters** make life even harder.

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Goal: Markov chains that lead to a law of large numbers:

$$\frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B g(\theta(b)) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} E(g(\theta) \mid x)$$

## Achieving a SLLN

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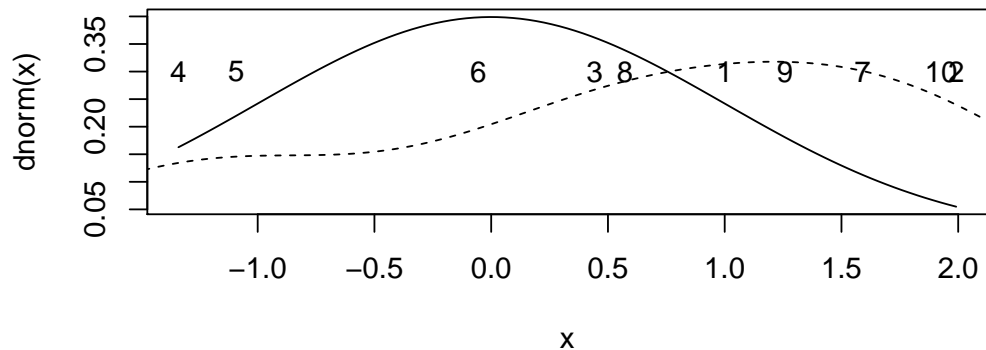
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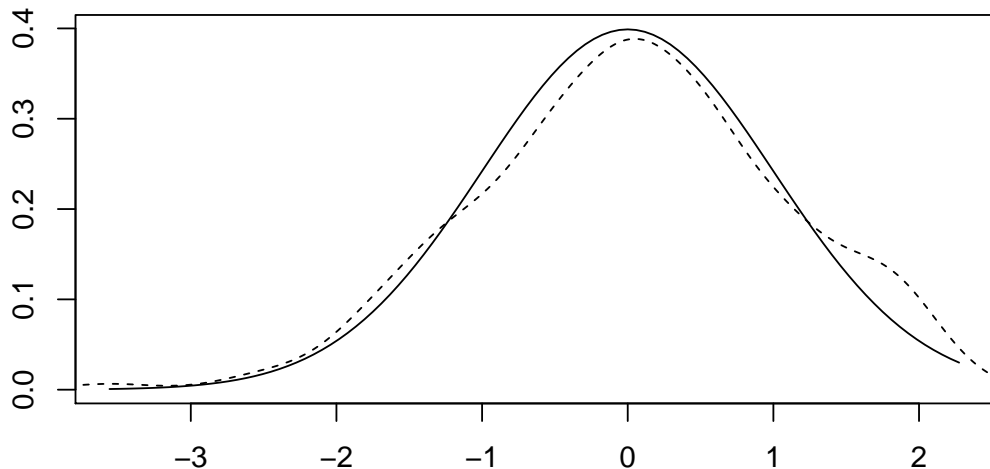
Luckily for us, we can use algorithms that already have these properties established!

## Visual Interpretation: Starting the chain at 1

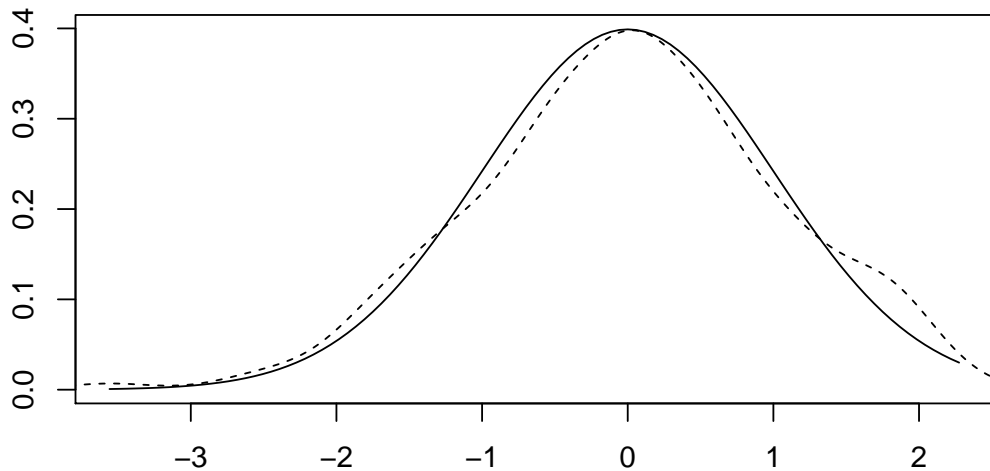




## Visual Interpretation: After many samples



## Drop Burn In



# Metropolis-Hastings

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- Accept  $X = Y$  if  $U < f(Y)/cg(Y)$ , reject and repeat otherwise.



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## Example: Rayleigh Density

We'll start with an example that is not specifically Bayesian: drawing from the Rayleigh density:

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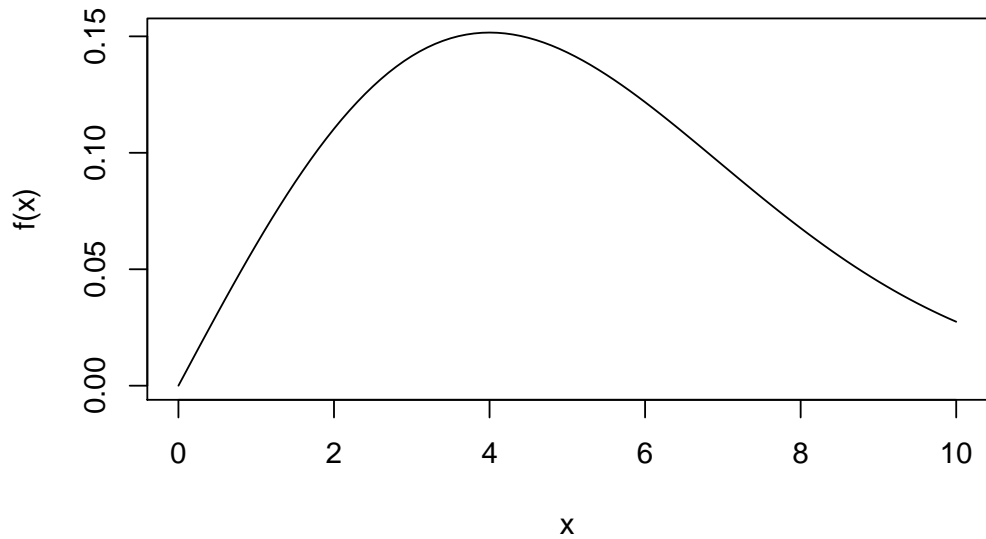
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It should also be **conditional on**  $X(t-1)$ .

We'll use a  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $X(t-1)$  degrees of freedom.



```
> # we'll fix sigma at 4
> f <- function(x) {
+   (x / 16) * exp(-x^2 / 32)
+ }
> B <- 10000
> xs <- numeric(B)
> xs[1] <- 2 # arbitrary starting point
> # we'll log rejects
> rejected <- logical(B)
> rejected[1] <- FALSE
```

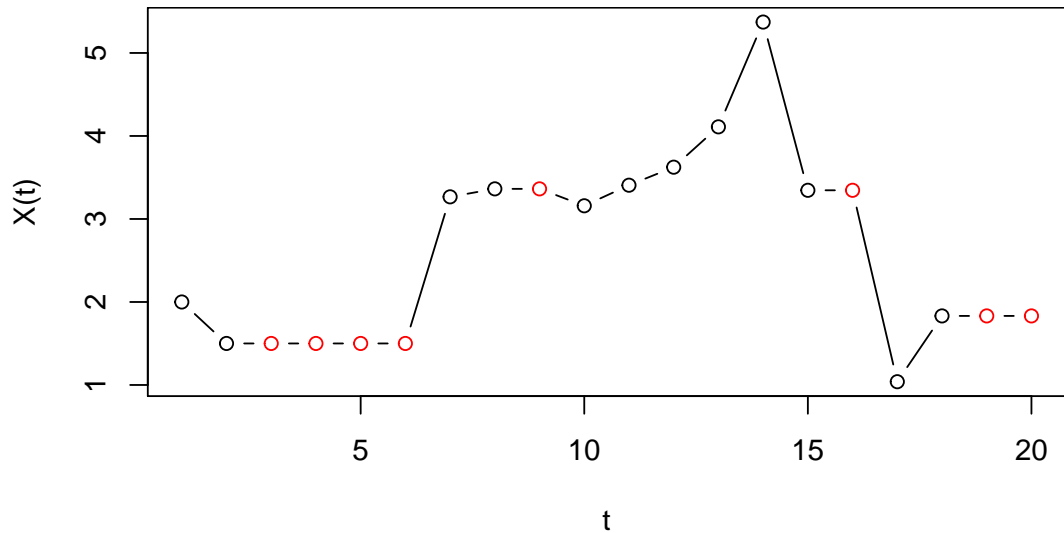


```

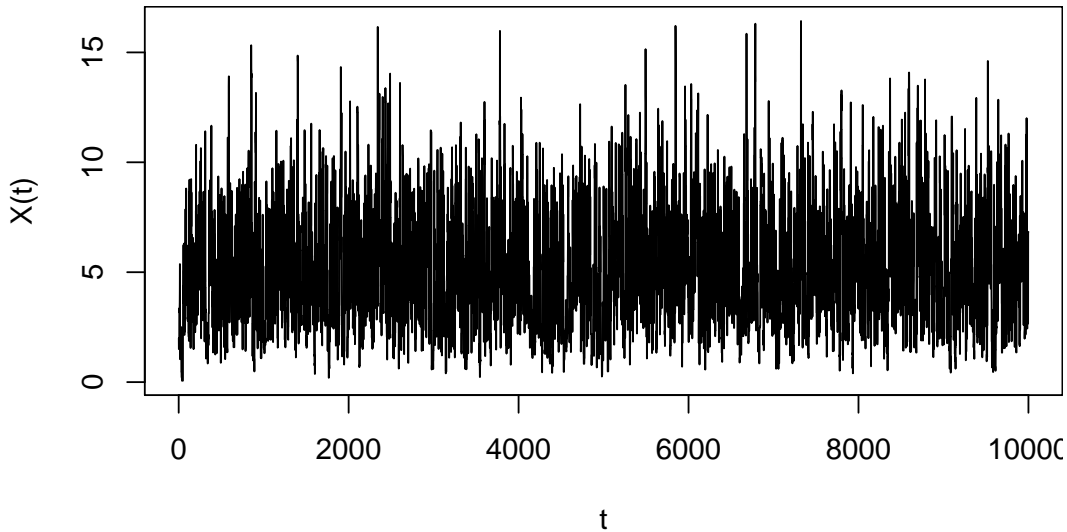
> # starting i = 2, apply MH
> for (i in 2:B) {
+   x <- xs[i - 1]
+   xstar <- rchisq(1, df = x)
+   ratio <- f(xstar) * dchisq(x, df = xstar) /
+           (f(x) * dchisq(xstar, df = x))
+   u <- runif(1)
+   if (u <= ratio) {
+     xs[i] <- xstar
+     rejected[i] <- FALSE
+   } else {
+     xs[i] <- x
+     rejected[i] <- TRUE
+   }
+ }

```

## Start of Chain



## Full Chain

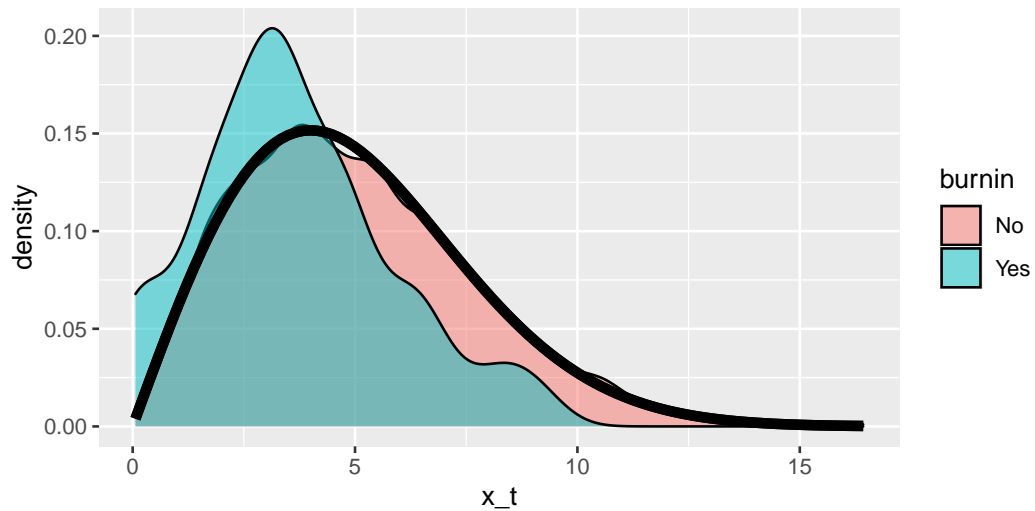


Recall, guarantees for MCMC only state that **the chain converges to  $\pi$**  (or  $f$ ).

## Burn In

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We often ignore the early portion of the chain (**burn in**).





## Normalizing constants

We saw with **accept-reject** and **importance sampling** we could often ignore **normalizing constants**.

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As we saw, this is useful because it is often much easier to calculate:

$$\pi^*(\theta | x) = f(x | \theta) p(\theta)$$

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We only need **terms that contain  $\theta$** . What are they?

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As we saw,  $\pi$  is **Beta** with  $\alpha + x$  and  $\beta + n - x$ .

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The candidate should be based on  $\theta(t - 1)$  in some way. We'll do something simple:

- If  $\theta(t - 1) < 0.5$ , we'll draw from  $U(0, 0.6)$
- If  $\theta(t - 1) \geq 0.5$ , we'll draw from  $U(0.4, 1)$

Note: the candidate always has density  $5/3$ .

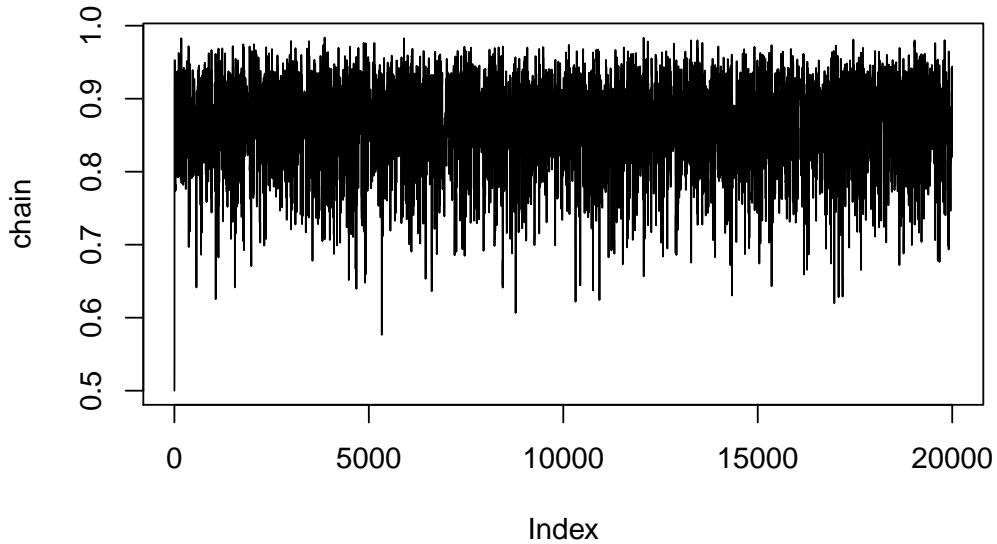


```
> pi_star <- function(theta) {  
+   theta^(5 + test_score - 1) *  
+   (1 - theta)^(32 - test_score - 1)  
+ }
```

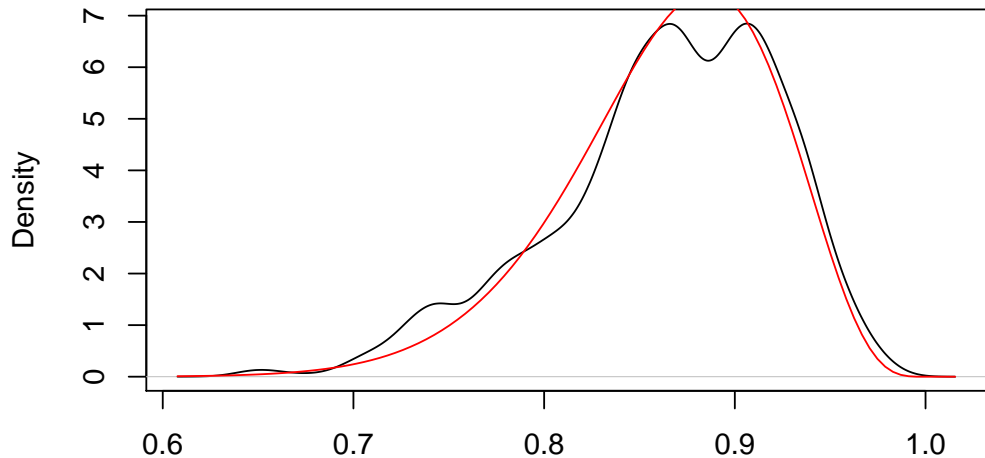
```

> B <- 20000; chain <- numeric(B) ; chain[1] <- 0.5; rejects <- 0
> for (i in 2:B) {
+   candidate <- ifelse(chain[i - 1] < 0.5,
+                       runif(1, 0, 0.6),
+                       runif(1, 0.4, 1))
+   ratio <- pi_star(candidate) * (5/3) /
+           (pi_star(chain[i - 1]) * (5/3))
+   if (runif(1) <= ratio) {
+     chain[i] <- candidate
+   } else {
+     chain[i] <- chain[i - 1]
+     rejects <- rejects + 1
+   }
+ }
> reject_rate <- rejects / B

```



**density.default(x = chain[2000:5000])**



N = 3001 Bandwidth = 0.0106

## Independent MH

A special case of the proposal density is to **pick candidate values independently** of the previous value in the chain.

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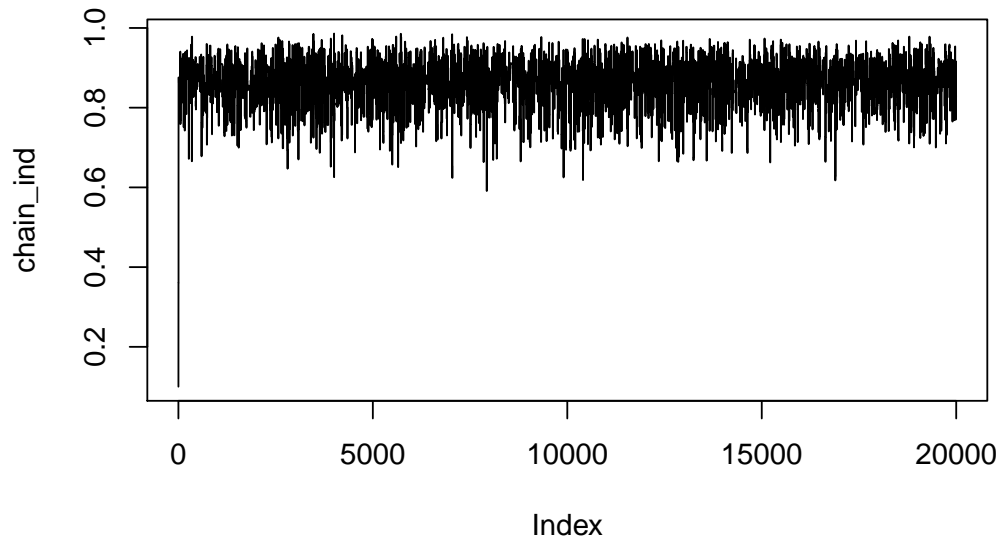
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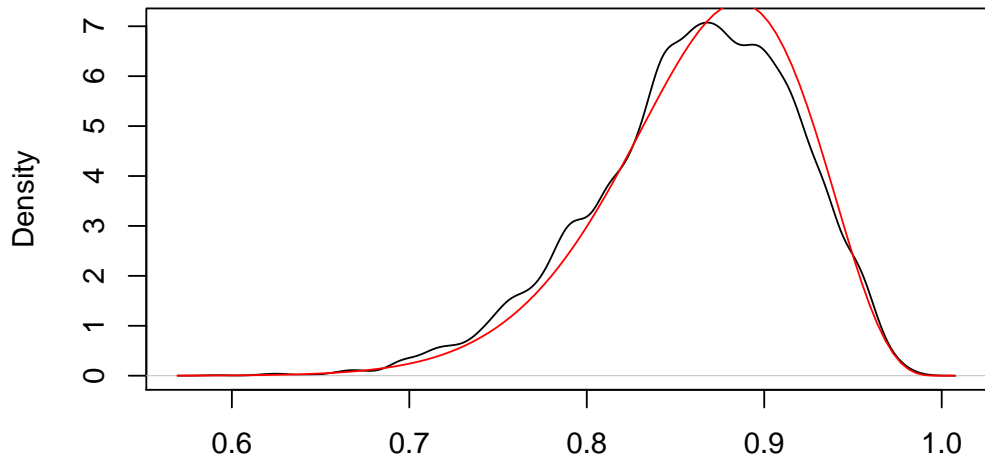
An advantage of MH is we don't need to find a  $c$ .



```
> chain_ind <- numeric(B) ; chain_ind[1] <- 0.1 ; rejects_ind <- 0
> for (i in 2:B) {
+   candidate <- runif(1)
+   ratio <- pi_star(candidate) / pi_star(chain_ind[i - 1])
+   if (runif(1) <= ratio) {
+     chain_ind[i] <- candidate
+   } else {
+     chain_ind[i] <- chain_ind[i - 1]
+     rejects_ind <- rejects_ind + 1
+   }
+ }
> reject_rate_ind <- rejects_ind / B
```



**density.default(x = chain\_ind[2000:B])**



N = 18001 Bandwidth = 0.00722

## Comparing Methods

The independent sampler was easier to implement, does it perform as well?

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Fewer rejects means that we have more **unique samples** in the chain (closer to independent).

```
> reject_rate
```

```
[1] 0.7178
```

```
> reject_rate_ind
```

```
[1] 0.8288
```

One nice feature of independent MH is that

$$g(\theta^* \mid \theta(t-1)) = g(\theta(t-1) \mid \theta^*)$$

so that the ratio reduced to:

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There are many cases when  $g$  is not uniform, but this property (**symmetry**) holds.

An example of symmetry,

$$\theta^* = \theta(t-1) + \epsilon$$

where  $\epsilon$  is symmetric about 0.



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Here the **proposals are a random walk**, though the chain itself is not (why?).

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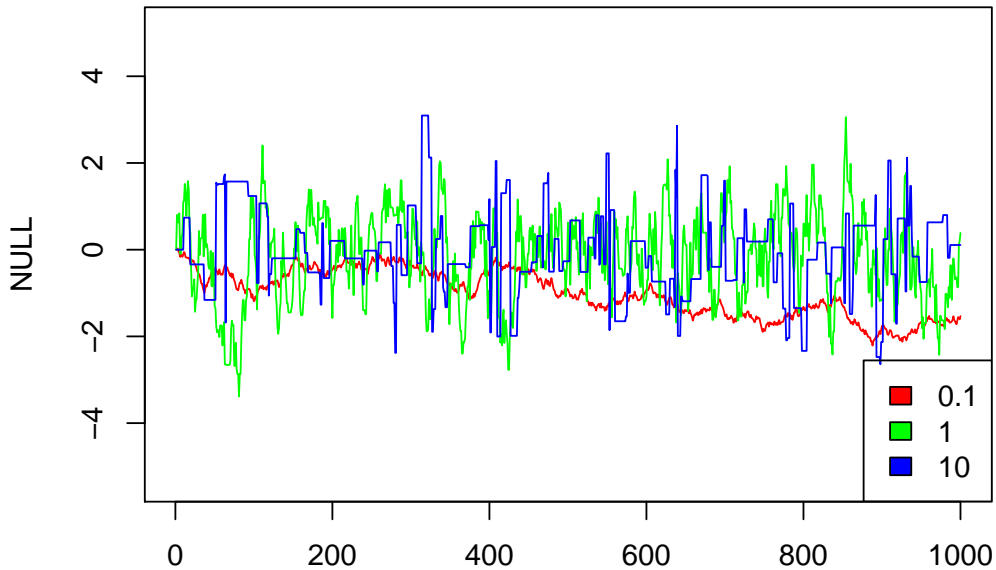
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$$\theta^* = \theta(t - 1) + U(-\delta, \delta)$$

We will try a few different versions of  $\delta$  to see how it changes the chain behavior.

```
> unif_chain <- function(delta, B = 5000) {  
+   chain <- numeric(B); chain[1] <- 0 ; rejects <- 0  
+   for (i in 2:B) {  
+     candidate <- chain[i - 1] + runif(1, -delta, delta)  
+     ratio <- dnorm(candidate) / dnorm(chain[i - 1])  
+     if (runif(1) <= ratio) {  
+       chain[i] <- candidate  
+     } else {  
+       chain[i] <- chain[i - 1]  
+       rejects <- rejects + 1  
+     }  
+   }  
+   list(reject_rate = rejects / B, chain = chain)  
+ }
```

```
> n01_chain_0.1 <- unif_chain(0.1)
> n01_chain_1 <- unif_chain(1)
> n01_chain_10 <- unif_chain(10)
```



```
> n01_chain_0.1$reject_rate
```

```
[1] 0.0254
```

```
> n01_chain_1$reject_rate
```

```
[1] 0.193
```

```
> n01_chain_10$reject_rate
```

```
[1] 0.843
```



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- Algorithms guarantee (asymptotic) convergence: Metropolis-Hastings (regular, independent, random walk), more next time.
- Often a tradeoff between **amount of rejection** and **exploring the posterior**