

Advanced Simulation - Lecture 5

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Irreducibility and aperiodicity

Definition

Given a distribution μ over \mathbb{X} , a Markov chain is μ -irreducible if

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{X} \quad \forall A : \mu(A) > 0 \quad \exists t \in \mathbb{N} \quad K^t(x, A) > 0.$$

A μ -irreducible Markov chain of transition kernel K is **periodic** if there exists some partition of the state space $\mathbb{X}_1, \dots, \mathbb{X}_d$ for $d \geq 2$, such that

$$\forall i, j, t, s : \mathbb{P}(X_{t+s} \in \mathbb{X}_j \mid X_t \in \mathbb{X}_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & j = i + s \bmod d \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} .$$

Otherwise the chain is **aperiodic**.

Recurrence and Harris Recurrence

For any measurable set A of \mathbb{X} , let

$$\eta_A = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{I}_A(X_k) = \# \text{ of visits to } A.$$

Definition

A μ -irreducible Markov chain is **recurrent** if for any measurable set $A \subset \mathbb{X} : \mu(A) > 0$, then

$$\forall x \in A \quad \mathbb{E}_x(\eta_A) = \infty.$$

A μ -irreducible Markov chain is **Harris recurrent** if for any measurable set $A \subset \mathbb{X} : \mu(A) > 0$, then

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{X} \quad \mathbb{P}_x(\eta_A = \infty) = 1.$$

Harris recurrence is stronger than recurrence.

Invariant Distribution and Reversibility

Definition

A distribution of density π is invariant or *stationary* for a Markov kernel K , if

$$\int_{\mathbf{X}} \pi(x) K(x, y) dx = \pi(y).$$

A Markov kernel K is π -reversible if

$$\begin{aligned} \forall f \quad \iint f(x, y) \pi(x) K(x, y) dx dy \\ = \iint f(y, x) \pi(x) K(x, y) dx dy \end{aligned}$$

where f is a bounded measurable function.

Detailed balance

In practice it is easier to check the detailed balance condition:

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{X} \quad \pi(x)K(x, y) = \pi(y)K(y, x)$$

Lemma

If detailed balance holds, then π is invariant for K and K is π -reversible.

Example: the Gaussian AR process is π -reversible, π -invariant for

$$\pi(x) = \mathcal{N}\left(x; 0, \frac{\tau^2}{1 - \rho^2}\right)$$

when $|\rho| < 1$.

It's often straightforward to check for irreducibility, or for an invariant measure but not so for recurrence.

Proposition

If the chain is μ -irreducible and admits an invariant measure then the chain is recurrent.

Remark: A chain that is μ -irreducible and admits an invariant measure is called a **positive**.

Law of Large Numbers

Theorem

If K is a π -irreducible, π -invariant Markov kernel, then for any integrable function $\varphi : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^t \varphi(X_i) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi(x) \pi(x) dx$$

almost surely, for π -almost all starting values x .

Theorem

If K is a π -irreducible, π -invariant, Harris recurrent Markov chain, then for any integrable function $\varphi : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^t \varphi(X_i) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi(x) \pi(x) dx$$

almost surely, for any starting value x .

Theorem

Suppose the kernel K is π -irreducible, π -invariant, aperiodic. Then, we have

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} |K^t(x, y) - \pi(y)| dy = 0$$

for π -almost all starting values x .

Under some additional conditions, one can prove that a chain is geometrically ergodic, i.e. there exists $\rho < 1$ and a function $M : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ such that for all measurable set A :

$$|K^n(x, A) - \pi(A)| \leq M(x)\rho^n,$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. In other words, we can obtain a rate of convergence.

Theorem

Under regularity conditions, for a Harris recurrent, π -invariant Markov chain, we can prove

$$\sqrt{t} \left[\frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^t \varphi(X_i) - \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi(x) \pi(x) dx \right] \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow \infty]{D} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2(\varphi)),$$

where the asymptotic variance can be written

$$\sigma^2(\varphi) = \mathbb{V}_{\pi}[\varphi(X_1)] + 2 \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \text{Cov}_{\pi}[\varphi(X_1), \varphi(X_k)].$$

This formula shows that (positive) correlations increase the asymptotic variance, compared to i.i.d. samples for which the variance would be $\mathbb{V}_{\pi}(\varphi(X))$.

Central Limit Theorem

- Example: for the AR Gaussian model,
 $\pi(x) = \mathcal{N}(x; 0, \tau^2 / (1 - \rho^2))$ for $|\rho| < 1$ and

$$\text{Cov}(X_1, X_k) = \rho^{k-1} \mathbb{V}[X_1] = \rho^{k-1} \frac{\tau^2}{1 - \rho^2}.$$

- Therefore with $\varphi(x) = x$,

$$\sigma^2(\varphi) = \frac{\tau^2}{1 - \rho^2} \left(1 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \rho^k \right) = \frac{\tau^2}{1 - \rho^2} \frac{1 + \rho}{1 - \rho} = \frac{\tau^2}{(1 - \rho)^2},$$

which increases when $\rho \rightarrow 1$.

Markov chain Monte Carlo

- We are interested in sampling from a distribution π , for instance a posterior distribution in a Bayesian framework.
- Markov chains with π as invariant distribution can be constructed to approximate expectations with respect to π .
- For example, the Gibbs sampler generates a Markov chain targeting π defined on \mathbb{R}^d using the full conditionals

$$\pi(x_i \mid x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_d).$$

- Assume you are interested in sampling from

$$\pi(x) = \pi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

- Notation: $x_{-i} := (x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_d)$.

Systematic scan Gibbs sampler. Let $(X_1^{(1)}, \dots, X_d^{(1)})$ be the initial state then iterate for $t = 2, 3, \dots$

1. Sample $X_1^{(t)} \sim \pi_{X_1|X_{-1}}(\cdot | X_2^{(t-1)}, \dots, X_d^{(t-1)})$.
...
- j. Sample $X_j^{(t)} \sim \pi_{X_j|X_{-j}}(\cdot | X_1^{(t)}, \dots, X_{j-1}^{(t)}, X_{j+1}^{(t-1)}, \dots, X_d^{(t-1)})$.
...
- d. Sample $X_d^{(t)} \sim \pi_{X_d|X_{-d}}(\cdot | X_1^{(t)}, \dots, X_{d-1}^{(t)})$.

- Is the joint distribution π uniquely specified by the conditional distributions $\pi_{X_i|X_{-i}}$?
- Does the Gibbs sampler provide a Markov chain with the correct stationary distribution π ?
- If yes, does the Markov chain converge towards this invariant distribution?
- It will turn out to be the case under some mild conditions.

Hammersley-Clifford Theorem I

Theorem

Consider a distribution whose density $\pi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$ is such that $\text{supp}(\pi) = \otimes_{i=1}^d \text{supp}(\pi_{X_i})$. Then for any $(z_1, \dots, z_d) \in \text{supp}(\pi)$, we have

$$\pi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) \propto \prod_{j=1}^d \frac{\pi_{X_j|X_{-j}}(x_j | x_{1:j-1}, z_{j+1:d})}{\pi_{X_j|X_{-j}}(z_j | x_{1:j-1}, z_{j+1:d})}.$$

Remark: The condition above is the positivity condition. Equivalently, if $\pi_{X_i}(x_i) > 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, d$, then

$$\pi(x_1, \dots, x_d) > 0.$$

Proof of Hammersley-Clifford Theorem

Proof.

We have

$$\pi(x_{1:d-1}, x_d) = \pi_{X_d|X_{-d}}(x_d | x_{1:d-1})\pi(x_{1:d-1}),$$

$$\pi(x_{1:d-1}, z_d) = \pi_{X_d|X_{-d}}(z_d | x_{1:d-1})\pi(x_{1:d-1}).$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(x_{1:d}) &= \pi(x_{1:d-1}, z_d) \frac{\pi(x_{1:d-1}, x_d)}{\pi(x_{1:d-1}, z_d)} \\ &= \pi(x_{1:d-1}, z_d) \frac{\pi(x_{1:d-1}, x_d) / \pi(x_{1:d-1})}{\pi(x_{1:d-1}, z_d) / \pi(x_{1:d-1})} \\ &= \pi(x_{1:d-1}, z_d) \frac{\pi_{X_d|X_{1:d-1}}(x_d | x_{1:d-1})}{\pi_{X_d|X_{1:d-1}}(z_d | x_{1:d-1})}.\end{aligned}$$

Proof.

Similarly, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(x_{1:d-1}, z_d) &= \pi(x_{1:d-2}, z_{d-1}, z_d) \frac{\pi(x_{1:d-1}, z_d)}{\pi(x_{1:d-2}, z_{d-1}, z_d)} \\ &= \pi(x_{1:d-2}, z_{d-1}, z_d) \frac{\pi(x_{1:d-1}, z_d) / \pi(x_{1:d-2}, z_d)}{\pi(x_{1:d-2}, z_{d-1}, z_d) / \pi(x_{1:d-2}, z_d)} \\ &= \pi(x_{1:d-2}, z_{d-1}, z_d) \frac{\pi_{X_{d-1}|X^{-(d-1)}}(x_{d-1} | x_{1:d-2}, z_d)}{\pi_{X_{d-1}|X^{-(d-1)}}(z_{d-1} | x_{1:d-2}, z_d)}\end{aligned}$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(x_{1:d}) &= \pi(x_{1:d-2}, z_{d-1}, z_d) \frac{\pi_{X_{d-1}|X^{-(d-1)}}(x_{d-1} | x_{1:d-2}, z_d)}{\pi_{X_{d-1}|X^{-(d-1)}}(z_{d-1} | x_{1:d-2}, z_d)} \\ &\quad \times \frac{\pi_{X_d|X_{-d}}(x_d | x_{1:d-1})}{\pi_{X_d|X_{-d}}(z_d | x_{1:d-1})}\end{aligned}$$

Proof.

By $z \in \text{supp}(\pi)$ we have that $\pi_{X_i}(z_i) > 0$ for all i . Also, we are allowed to suppose that $\pi_{X_i}(x_i) > 0$ for all i . Thus all the conditional probabilities we introduce are positive since

$$\begin{aligned} & \pi_{X_j|X^{-j}}(x_j \mid x_1, \dots, x_{j-1}, z_{j+1}, \dots, z_d) \\ &= \frac{\pi(x_1, \dots, x_{j-1}, x_j, z_{j+1}, \dots, z_d)}{\pi(x_1, \dots, x_{j-1}, z_j, z_{j+1}, \dots, z_d)} > 0. \end{aligned}$$

By iterating we have the theorem. □

Example: Non-Integrable Target

- Consider the following conditionals on \mathbb{R}^+

$$\pi_{X_1|X_2}(x_1|x_2) = x_2 \exp(-x_2 x_1)$$

$$\pi_{X_2|X_1}(x_2|x_1) = x_1 \exp(-x_1 x_2).$$

We might expect that these full conditionals define a joint probability density $\pi(x_1, x_2)$.

- Hammersley-Clifford would give

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) &\propto \frac{\pi_{X_1|X_2}(x_1|z_2)}{\pi_{X_1|X_2}(z_1|z_2)} \frac{\pi_{X_2|X_1}(x_2|x_1)}{\pi_{X_2|X_1}(z_2|x_1)} \\ &= \frac{z_2 \exp(-z_2 x_1) x_1 \exp(-x_1 x_2)}{z_2 \exp(-z_2 z_1) x_1 \exp(-x_1 z_2)} \propto \exp(-x_1 x_2).\end{aligned}$$

However $\int \int \exp(-x_1 x_2) dx_1 dx_2 = \infty$ so

$\pi_{X_1|X_2}(x_1|x_2) = x_2 \exp(-x_2 x_1)$ and

$\pi_{X_2|X_1}(x_1|x_2) = x_1 \exp(-x_1 x_2)$ are not compatible.

Example: Positivity condition violated

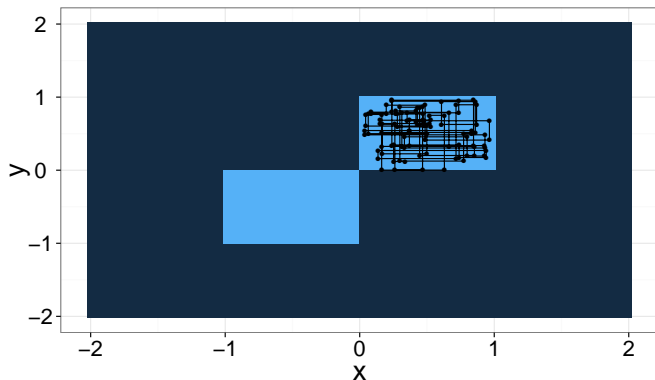


Figure: Gibbs sampling targeting

$$\pi(x, y) \propto \mathbf{1}_{[-1,0] \times [-1,0] \cup [0,1] \times [0,1]}(x, y).$$

Invariance of the Gibbs sampler I

- The kernel of the Gibbs sampler (case $d = 2$) is

$$K(x^{(t-1)}, x^{(t)}) = \pi_{X_1|X_2}(x_1^{(t)} | x_2^{(t-1)})\pi_{X_2|X_1}(x_2^{(t)} | x_1^{(t)})$$

- Case $d > 2$:

$$K(x^{(t-1)}, x^{(t)}) = \prod_{j=1}^d \pi_{X_j|X_{-j}}(x_j^{(t)} | x_{1:j-1}^{(t)}, x_{j+1:d}^{(t-1)})$$

Proposition

The systematic scan Gibbs sampler kernel admits π as invariant distribution.

Invariance of the Gibbs sampler II

Proof for $d = 2$.

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\int K(x, y) \pi(x) dx &= \int \pi(y_2 | y_1) \pi(y_1 | x_2) \pi(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 \\ &= \pi(y_2 | y_1) \int \pi(y_1 | x_2) \pi(x_2) dx_2 \\ &= \pi(y_2 | y_1) \pi(y_1) = \pi(y_1, y_2) = \pi(y).\end{aligned}$$



Irreducibility and Recurrence

Proposition

Assume π satisfies the positivity condition, then the Gibbs sampler yields a π -irreducible and recurrent Markov chain.

Proof.

Irreducibility. Let $\mathbb{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, such that $\pi(\mathbb{X}) = 1$. Write K for the kernel and let $A \subset \mathbb{X}$ such that $\pi(A) > 0$. Then for any $x \in \mathbb{X}$

$$\begin{aligned} K(x, A) &= \int_A K(x, y) dy \\ &= \int_A \pi_{X_1|X^{-1}}(y_1 \mid x_2, \dots, x_d) \times \dots \\ &\quad \times \pi_{X_d|X^{-d}}(y_d \mid y_1, \dots, y_{d-1}) dy. \end{aligned}$$

Proof.

Thus if for some $x \in \mathbb{X}$ and A with $\pi(A) > 0$ we have $K(x, A) = 0$, we must have that

$$\pi_{X_1|X^{-1}}(y_1 \mid x_2, \dots, x_d) \times \cdots \times \pi_{X_d|X^{-d}}(y_d \mid x_1^{(t)}, \dots, x_d^{(t)}) = 0,$$

for π -almost all $y = (y_1, \dots, y_d) \in A$.

Therefore we must also have that

$$\pi(y_1, x_2, \dots, y_d) \propto \prod_{j=1}^d \frac{\pi_{X_j|X_{-j}}(y_j \mid y_{1:j-1}, x_{j+1:d})}{\pi_{X_j|X_{-j}}(x_j \mid y_{1:j-1}, x_{j+1:d})} = 0,$$

for almost all $y = (y_1, \dots, y_d) \in A$ and thus $\pi(A) = 0$ obtaining a contradiction.

Proof.

Recurrence. Recurrence follows from irreducibility and the fact that π is invariant. \square

Theorem

Assume the positivity condition is satisfied then we have for any integrable function $\varphi : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$:

$$\lim \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^t \varphi \left(X^{(i)} \right) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi (x) \pi (x) dx$$

for π -almost all starting value $X^{(1)}$.

Example: Bivariate Normal Distribution

- Let $X := (X_1, X_2) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ where $\mu = (\mu_1, \mu_2)$ and

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho \\ \rho & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- The Gibbs sampler proceeds as follows in this case

1 Sample $X_1^{(t)} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu_1 + \rho/\sigma_2^2 \left(X_2^{(t-1)} - \mu_2\right), \sigma_1^2 - \rho^2/\sigma_2^2\right)$

2 Sample $X_2^{(t)} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu_2 + \rho/\sigma_1^2 \left(X_1^{(t)} - \mu_1\right), \sigma_2^2 - \rho^2/\sigma_1^2\right)$.

- By proceeding this way, we generate a Markov chain $X^{(t)}$ whose successive samples are correlated. If successive values of $X^{(t)}$ are strongly correlated, then we say that the Markov chain mixes slowly.

Bivariate Normal Distribution

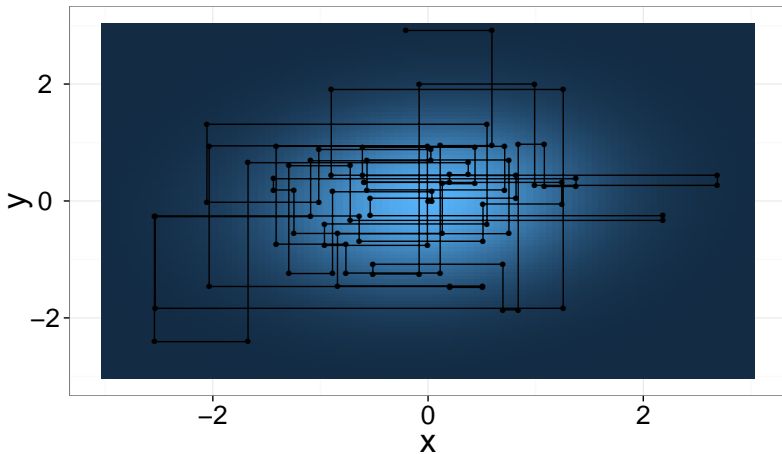


Figure: Case where $\rho = 0.1$, first 100 steps.

Bivariate Normal Distribution

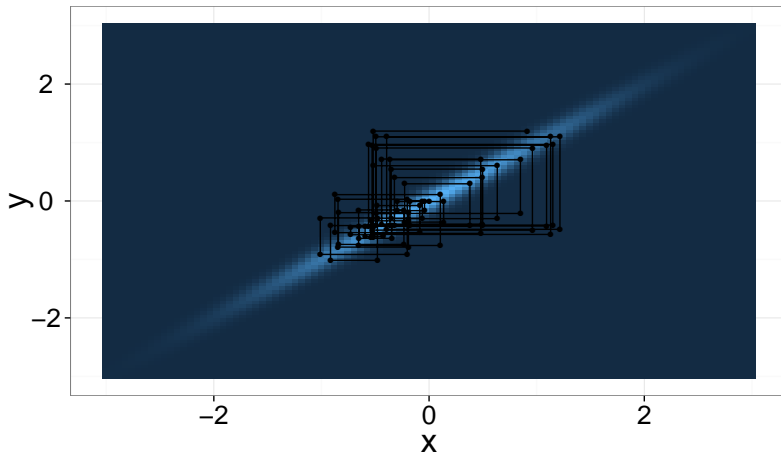
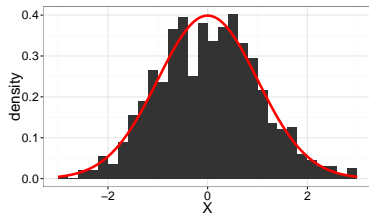
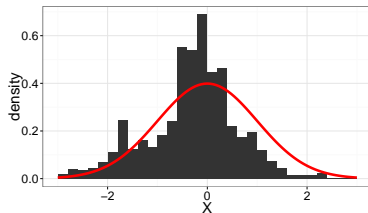


Figure: Case where $\rho = 0.99$, first 100 steps.

Bivariate Normal Distribution



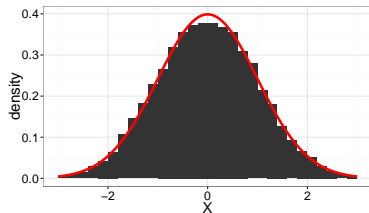
(a) Figure A



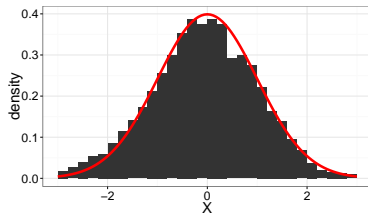
(b) Figure B

Figure: Histogram of the first component of the chain after 1000 iterations. Small ρ on the left, large ρ on the right.

Bivariate Normal Distribution



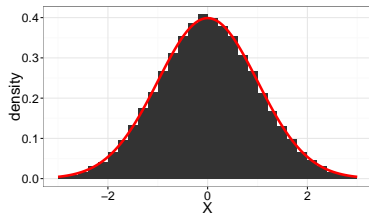
(a) b



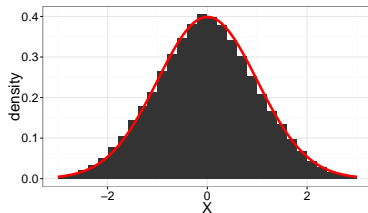
(b) b

Figure: Histogram of the first component of the chain after 10000 iterations. Small ρ on the left, large ρ on the right.

Bivariate Normal Distribution



(a) Figure A



(b) Figure B

Figure: Histogram of the first component of the chain after 100000 iterations. Small ρ on the left, large ρ on the right.

Gibbs Sampling and Auxiliary Variables

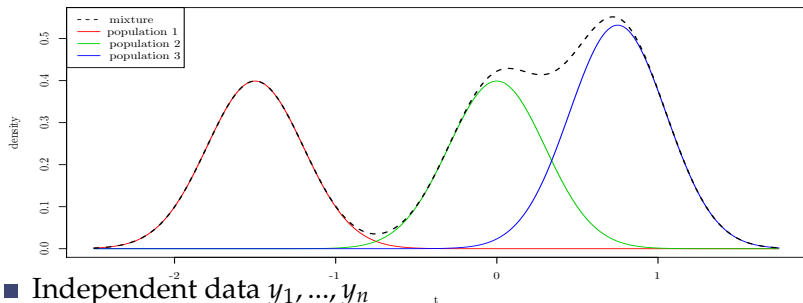
- Gibbs sampling requires sampling from $\pi_{X_j|X_{-j}}$.
- In many scenarios, we can include a set of auxiliary variables Z_1, \dots, Z_p and have an “extended” distribution of joint density $\bar{\pi}(x_1, \dots, x_d, z_1, \dots, z_p)$ such that

$$\int \bar{\pi}(x_1, \dots, x_d, z_1, \dots, z_p) dz_1 \dots dz_p = \pi(x_1, \dots, x_d).$$

which is such that its full conditionals are easy to sample.

- Mixture models, Capture-recapture models, Tobit models, Probit models etc.

Mixtures of Normals



$$Y_i | \theta \sim \sum_{k=1}^K p_k \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2)$$

where $\theta = (p_1, \dots, p_K, \mu_1, \dots, \mu_K, \sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_K^2)$.

- Likelihood function

$$p(y_1, \dots, y_n | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{k=1}^K \frac{p_k}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_k^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \mu_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2}\right) \right)$$

Let's fix $K = 2$, $\sigma_k^2 = 1$ and $p_k = 1/K$ for all k .

- Prior model

$$p(\theta) = \prod_{k=1}^K p(\mu_k)$$

where

$$\mu_k \sim \mathcal{N}(\alpha_k, \beta_k).$$

Let us fix $\alpha_k = 0$, $\beta_k = 1$ for all k .

- Not obvious how to sample $p(\mu_1 | \mu_2, y_1, \dots, y_n)$.

Auxiliary Variables for Mixture Models

- Associate to each Y_i an auxiliary variable $Z_i \in \{1, \dots, K\}$ such that

$$\mathbb{P}(Z_i = k | \theta) = p_k \text{ and } Y_i | Z_i = k, \theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2)$$

so that

$$p(y_i | \theta) = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathbb{P}(Z_i = k) \mathcal{N}(y_i; \mu_k, \sigma_k^2)$$

- The extended posterior is given by

$$p(\theta, z_1, \dots, z_n | y_1, \dots, y_n) \propto p(\theta) \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(z_i | \theta) p(y_i | z_i, \theta).$$

- Gibbs samples alternately

$$\mathbb{P}(z_{1:n} | y_{1:n}, \mu_{1:K})$$
$$p(\mu_{1:K} | y_{1:n}, z_{1:n}).$$

Gibbs Sampling for Mixture Model

- We have

$$\mathbb{P}(z_{1:n} | y_{1:n}, \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(z_i | y_i, \theta)$$

where

$$\mathbb{P}(z_i | y_i, \theta) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(z_i | \theta) p(y_i | z_i, \theta)}{\sum_{k=1}^K \mathbb{P}(z_i = k | \theta) p(y_i | z_i = k, \theta)}$$

- Let $n_k = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}_{\{k\}}(z_i)$, $n_k \bar{y}_k = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \mathbf{1}_{\{k\}}(z_i)$ then

$$\mu_k | z_{1:n}, y_{1:n} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{n_k \bar{y}_k}{1 + n_k}, \frac{1}{1 + n_k}\right).$$

Mixtures of Normals

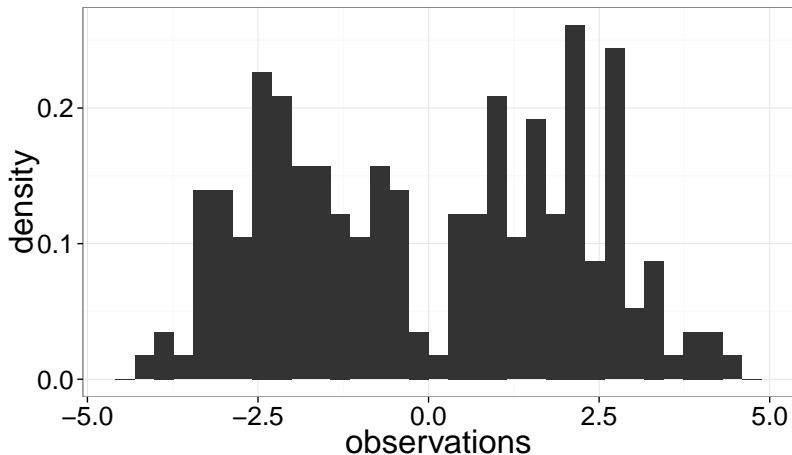


Figure: 200 points sampled from $\frac{1}{2}\mathcal{N}(-2, 1) + \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{N}(2, 1)$.

Mixtures of Normals

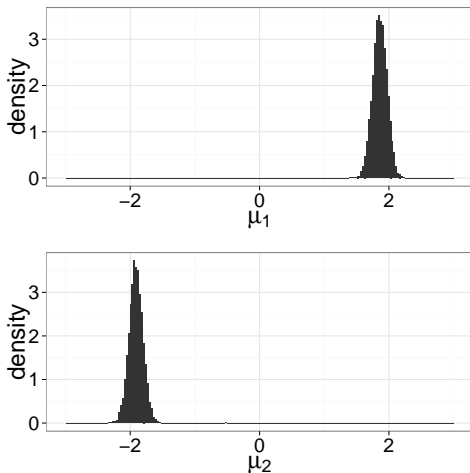


Figure: Histogram of the parameters obtained by 10,000 iterations of Gibbs sampling.

Mixtures of Normals

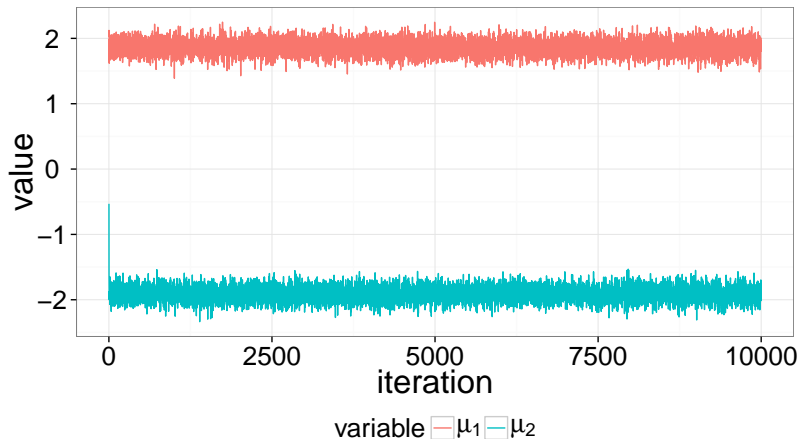


Figure: Traceplot of the parameters obtained by 10,000 iterations of Gibbs sampling.

- Many posterior distributions can be automatically decomposed into conditional distributions by computer programs.

- This is the idea behind BUGS (Bayesian inference Using Gibbs Sampling), JAGS (Just another Gibbs Sampler).