

Lecture 8B

MTH6102: Bayesian Statistical Methods

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Today's agenda

Today's lecture

- Review
- Understand Markov Chain
- Understand Metropolis-Hastings
- Apply Metropolis-Hastings in Bayesian inference to generate samples from the posterior pdf.

Review: Monte Carlo integration

- The **Monte Carlo integration** refers to the theory and practice of approximating integrals using **random samples**.
- Monte Carlo integration methods are sometimes referred to as **stochastic integration** methods because they are based on **random sampling**.

Example

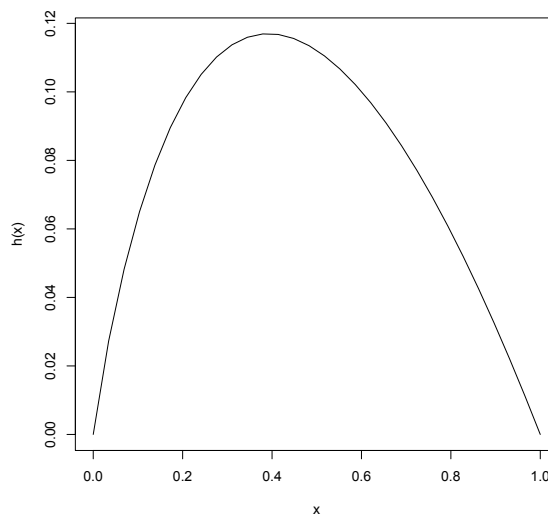
- Suppose that we wish to compute the following integral

$$I = \int_0^1 \frac{\sin(x(1-x))}{1+x+\sqrt{x}} dx.$$

- There does not appear to be any closed-form solution, so we can approximate the integral using Monte Carlo methods.

Example

- Plot of the function $h(x) = \frac{\sin(x(1-x))}{1+x+\sqrt{x}}$, $x \in [0, 1]$,



- Using a deterministic numerical integration method in R based on adaptive quadrature of functions, $I = 0.079$.

```
>h=function(x) sin(x*(1-x))/(1+x+sqrt(x))  
>integrate(h,lower=0,upper=1)  
>0.07852747 with absolute error < 9.2e-06
```

Example

- **Goal:** Compute the integral I using Monte Carlo integration
- The integral, I , can be written as the expectation of $h(X)$, where $X \sim U[0, 1]$ and

$$\underline{h(x)} = \frac{\sin(x(1-x))}{1+x+\sqrt{x}}, x \in [0, 1].$$

- Because,

$$I = \int_0^1 \frac{\sin(x(1-x))}{1+x+\sqrt{x}} \cdot 1 dx = \int_0^1 h(x) f(x) dx = E(h(X)),$$

where $f(x) = 1, x \in [0, 1]$ is the $U[0, 1]$ density.

$$I = E_f(h(X)) = \int h(x) \underbrace{f(x)} dx$$

f does not need to be uniform but a well-known density

In this case, you generate $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim f$
and the Monte Carlo estimator is

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N h(X_i)$$

Example

- Thus, we can generate IID observations X_1, \dots, X_N from $U[0, 1]$, and estimate I by

$$\hat{I} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N h(X_i) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\sin(X_i(1 - X_i))}{1 + X_i + \sqrt{X_i}}.$$

- \hat{I} is the Monte Carlo integration estimator of $I = E(h(X))$, $X \sim U[0, 1]$.

Example

- Then, the weak law of large numbers (WLLN) says

$$\hat{I} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N h(X_i) \xrightarrow{P} I, \quad N \rightarrow \infty,$$

- As we use more samples N , \hat{I} should get more and more accurate.

$$\hat{I} = \frac{1}{N} (h(X_1) + \dots + h(X_N))$$

Example

- In R

\hat{I}

\rightarrow `h=function(x) sin(x*(1-x))/(1+x+sqrt(x))` \rightarrow defines $h(x)$
 \rightarrow `x=runif(1000)`
 \rightarrow `mean(h(x))`

$$\frac{1}{N} (h(X_1) + \dots + h(X_N)) = \hat{I}$$

- $\hat{I} = 0.081$, and it is the Monte Carlo estimate of the integral $I = E(h(X))$

Bayesian inference

- Quite often a quantity of interest in statistics may be expressed as an integral that we wish to evaluate.
- For instance, in Bayesian analysis, one is often interested in the posterior mean of a particular continuous parameter θ

$$\hat{\theta}_B = \int \theta \underbrace{p(\theta | y)}_{\text{posterior}} d\theta,$$

$$P(X \in A) = E(I(X \in A))$$

- or in the posterior mean of transformed parameters $\psi = g(\theta)$

$$\hat{\psi}_B = \int g(\theta) p(\theta | y) d\theta, = E(g(\theta) | y)$$

- or in the posterior probability,

$$\underbrace{P(\theta \leq c)} = \int_{-\infty}^c p(\theta | y) d\theta = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{I(\theta \leq c)} \underbrace{p(\theta | y)} d\theta = E(I(\theta \leq c)).$$

Board example: Poisson data/Gamma prior

- Suppose we observe iid data y_1, \dots, y_n from Poisson(λ).
- Let λ have the gamma(α, β) prior distribution, the conjugate prior distribution for the Poisson likelihood.

- 1 What is the posterior density, $p(\lambda | y)$ of λ ?
- 2 How would you estimate the posterior probability $P(\lambda < c)$ by Monte Carlo integration, for some $c > 0$?

Solution

(1) From the ex-sheet 5 (Problem 3) and ex-sheet 6 (Problem 2), the posterior density, $p(\lambda|y)$, of λ is

$$p(\lambda|y) \sim \text{Gamma}\left(a + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i, \beta + n\right), \lambda > 0$$

(2) We want to compute $P(\lambda < c)$ using Monte Carlo Integration.

First, note that

$$P(\lambda < c) = \int_0^c \mathbb{I}(\lambda < c) p(\lambda|y) d\lambda \\ = \mathbb{E}(\underbrace{\mathbb{I}(\lambda < c)}_{h(\lambda)}) = \mathbb{I}$$

We generate an IID sample $\lambda^{(1)}, \dots, \lambda^{(N)}$ from Gamma $(a + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i, n + \beta)$

then

$$\mathbb{I} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{I}(\lambda^{(i)} < c) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N h(\lambda^{(i)})$$

Board question: Binomial data/flat prior

- Let $k \sim \text{binom}(n, q)$.
- Assume flat prior on q .
- Let $n = 860$ and $k = 441$
- R code below

$q \sim U[0,1]$

```
a=1
```

```
b=1
```

```
n=860
```

```
k=441
```

```
N=10000
```

```
beta.post.sample=rbeta(N, shape1=a+k, shape2=b+n-k)
```

```
gamma.sample=log(beta.post.sample/(1-beta.post.sample))
```

```
mean(gamma.sample)
```

```
c(quantile(gamma.sample,0.025), quantile(gamma.sample,0.975))
```

- The first command will contain a sample of 10^4 observations from the posterior density, $\text{beta}(1+x, 1+n-x)$, say $z^{(1)}, \dots, z^{(N)}$

The second will contain a sample from $h(z) = \log\left(\frac{z}{1-z}\right)$ (log of odds)

$\{h(z_1), \dots, h(z_N)\}$ = gamma. sample

- The estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is the sample mean of $h(z_1), \dots, h(z_N)$:

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N h(z_i) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log\left(\frac{z_i}{1-z_i}\right)$$

This is the Monte Carlo estimator of θ .

θ is the posterior mean of $h(z)$

$$\theta = \mathbb{E}(h(z)) = \mathbb{E}\left(\log \frac{z}{1-z}\right) = \int \log\left(\frac{z}{1-z}\right) \underline{p(z|x)} dz$$

$$p(z|x) \sim \text{beta}(1+x, 1+n-x).$$

Board question: Binomial data/flat prior

- When this code has run, what will `beta.post.sample` contain?
What will `gamma.sample` contain?
- Describe the estimator $\hat{\theta}$ for a quantity θ (which you should also determine) that would be obtained by the following R commands

```
gamma.sample=log((beta.post.sample/(1-beta.post.sample)))  
mean(gamma.sample)
```

- In statistical terms, what quantity will the last line of code output?
- See also, **Question 3, final exam Jan 2023**

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

- Monte Carlo integration estimates $E_f[h(X)]$ by directly sampling iid samples from the pdf f or from the posterior pdf in Bayesian inference

$$\rightarrow \hat{I} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N h(X_i), \quad X_1, \dots, X_r \text{ iid } \sim f.$$

- **Question:** But what if we cannot sample directly from f ?
 - f is not analytically tractable.
 - Then, simple Monte Carlo integration cannot be used.

MCMC can help when f is intractable

- Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) is a set of methods that can generate a sample with pdf f without having to sample from f directly.
- Thus, MCMC can be used to generate samples from complicated probability distributions.
- At the price, however, of yielding dependent observations that are approximately from f .

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

Goal: f is density very complicated
want to generate a sample from f .

- The general **idea** of Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods is to construct a sequence of RV X_1, X_2, \dots , called Markov chain, which (hopefully) converges to the distribution of interest f .
- However X_1, X_2, \dots is NOT independent any more.
- But it can still be used to estimate quantities (e.g, mean) because there is a WLLN for Markov chains.
- Under certain conditions,

$$\hat{I} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N h(X_i) \xrightarrow{P} \underline{E[h(X)] = I}, \quad \text{as } N \rightarrow \infty.$$

NOT
IID

X_1, \dots, X_N (Markov chains)

What is a Markov Chain?

- **Definition (Markov Chain).** A Markov chain is a sequence X_1, X_2, \dots of random variables such that the probability distribution of X_i (pmf or pdf) only depends on the previous value X_{i-1}

$$p(X_i | \underbrace{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{i-2}, X_{i-1}}_{\text{past}}) = p(X_i | \underbrace{X_{i-1}}_{\text{present}}).$$

- The process depends on the past only through the present.

Example: Random walk

- As an example of a Markov chain, suppose $X_1 = 1$, and for $i > 1$

$$P(X_i = X_{i-1} + 1) = 1/2,$$

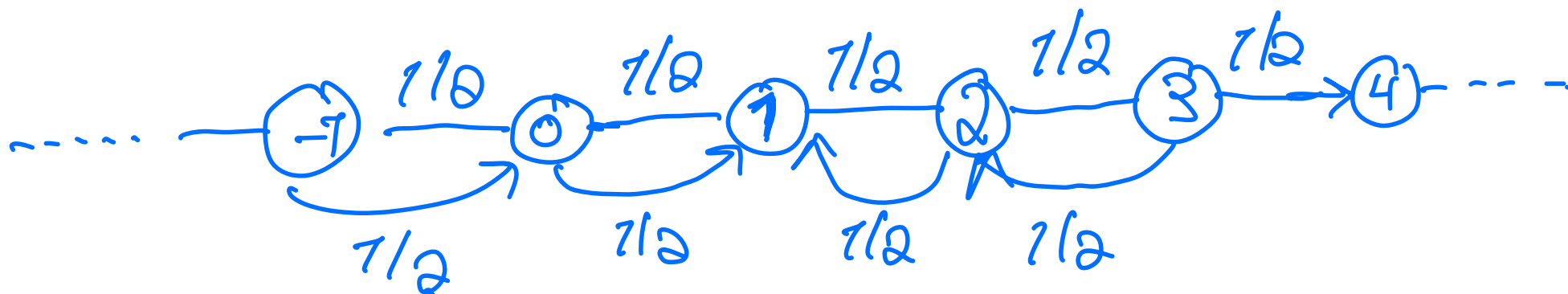
$$P(X_i = X_{i-1} - 1) = 1/2.$$

$$i=1.$$

- This is a random walk starting at $X_1 = 1$.
- It can go off towards $-\infty$ or ∞ without limit.

Example: Random walk

- So you flip a coin move +1 steps if heads, move -1 steps if tails.
- At step i of this Markov chain, X_{i-1} is either increased or decreased by 1.
- Each possibility happens with probability $\frac{1}{2}$.



Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- The **Metropolis-Hastings algorithm** is a type of Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) that works as follows.
- Let $q(y|x)$ be a conditional density that we know how to sample from.
- $q(y|x)$ is called the **proposal distribution**.
- The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm creates a Markov Chain (dependent observations) X_1, X_2, \dots as follows.

Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

Choose X_1 arbitrarily. Suppose we have generated X_1, \dots, X_i . To generate X_{i+1} do the following:

- 1 Generate a proposal or candidate random value $Y \sim q(y|X_i)$.
- 2 Evaluate $r \equiv r(X_i, Y)$ where

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

- 3 Generate $U \sim U(0, 1)$. If $U \leq r$, set $X_{i+1} = Y$, otherwise set $X_{i+1} = X_i$.

Metropolis algorithm terminology

- q is the **proposal distribution**: we propose new rv Y using the conditional distribution $q(\cdot | X_i)$ that depends on X_i (not on the past).
- MH accepts Y with probability $r \equiv r(X_i, Y) = \min \left\{ \frac{f(Y)}{f(X_i)} \frac{q(X_i|Y)}{q(Y|X_i)}, 1 \right\}$, called the **acceptance probability**.

Metropolis algorithm terminology

- f is sometimes called the **target distribution**: this is what we are aiming for, i.e. we want to generate a sample with pdf f .
- In Bayesian inference, f would be the posterior distribution $p(\theta | y)$, and we want a sample of θ values from this posterior distribution.

Choosing events in computer code

Remarks:

- In general, to implement a random event that happens with probability r :
- Generate $u \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$;
- Event happens if $u \leq r$.
- If U is a random variable, with $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$, then U has cdf $F(r) = r$, so $P(U \leq r) = r$.

Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

Remarks:

- A common choice for $q(y|x)$ is $N(x, b^2)$ for some $b > 0$.
- This means that the proposal Y is drawn from normal centered at the current value.
- By symmetry, $q(y|x) = q(x|y)$

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

Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

Remarks:

- In the algorithm, f only appears in acceptance probability

$$r(X_i, Y) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{f(Y)}{f(X_i)} \right\}.$$

- The acceptance probability **does not depend on the normalisation constant**, i.e. if $f(x) = cg(x)$, where $c > 0$ doesn't depend on x , then

$$r(X_i, Y) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{g(Y)}{g(X_i)} \right\}.$$

- So we only need to know f up to a normalisation constant. Useful for Bayesian inference!

Output of the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- 1 The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm generates a dependent sequence of observations X_1, X_2, \dots .
- 2 Since our procedure for generating X_{i+1} depends only on X_i , the conditional distribution of X_{i+1} given X_1, \dots, X_i depends only on X_i .
- 3 Hence, the sequence X_1, X_2, \dots is a Markov chain.

Output of the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- The chain X_1, X_2, \dots has the property that:
if $X_{i-1} \sim f$, then $X_i \sim f$.
- f is the **equilibrium distribution** or **stationary** of the chain.
- However, we don't start with $X_1 \sim f$ (because if we could, we wouldn't need this algorithm).
- But for large enough i , if some technical conditions are met, then each $X_i \sim f$ approximately.

Output of the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- 1 In practice, we only generate X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N for some large N .
- 2 Under some conditions, the empirical distribution of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N approximates f well if N is large.
- 3 Hence, we can approximate the integral $I = \int h(x)f(x) dx$ using the approximated X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N , that is

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N h(X_i), \quad X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N \sim f \text{ (approximately),}$$

and X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N generated by MH.

Example: Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- The Cauchy distribution has density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}$$

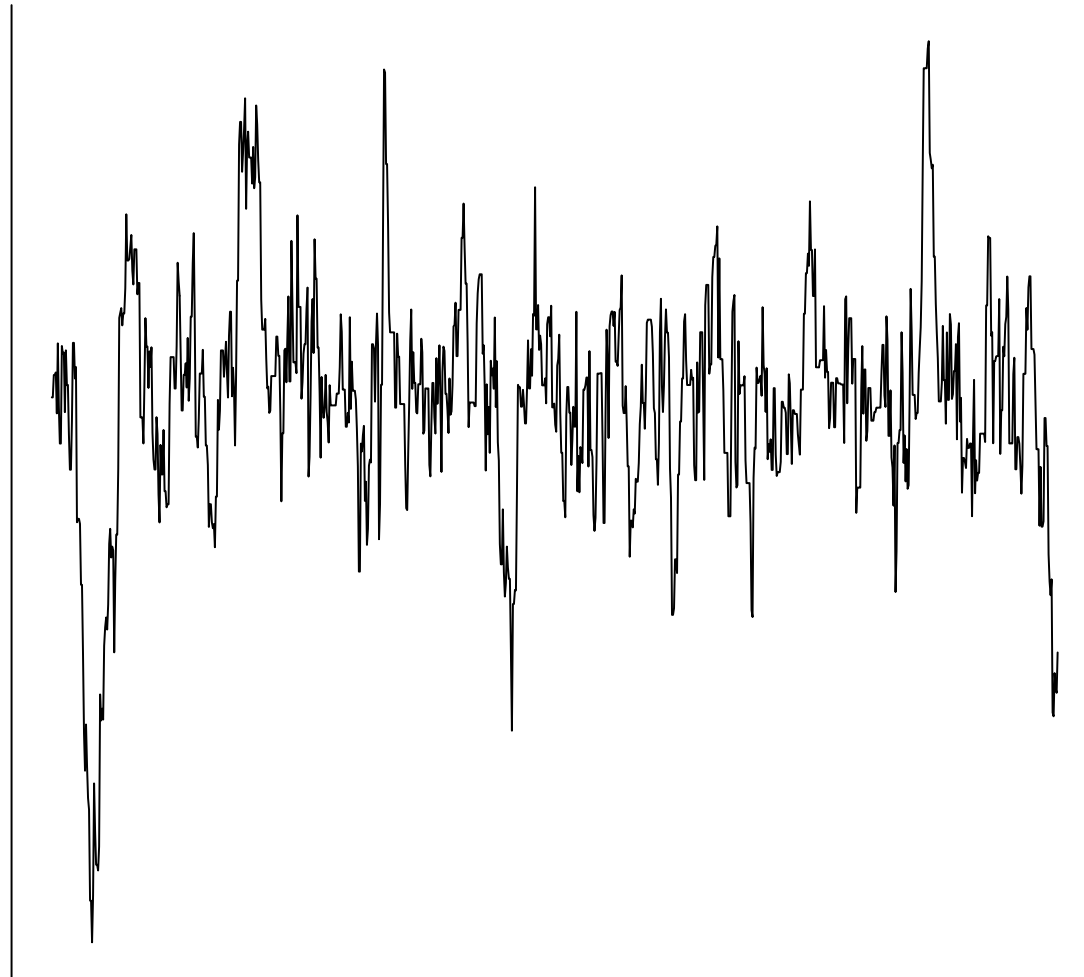
- Our goal is to simulate a Markov chain whose stationary distribution is f .
- Take $q(y|x)$ to be $N(x, b^2)$ for some $b > 0$.
- Then,

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

- Let $r = r(X_i, Y)$. Generate $U \sim U(0, 1)$. If $U \leq r$, set $X_{i+1} = Y$, otherwise set $X_{i+1} = X_i$.

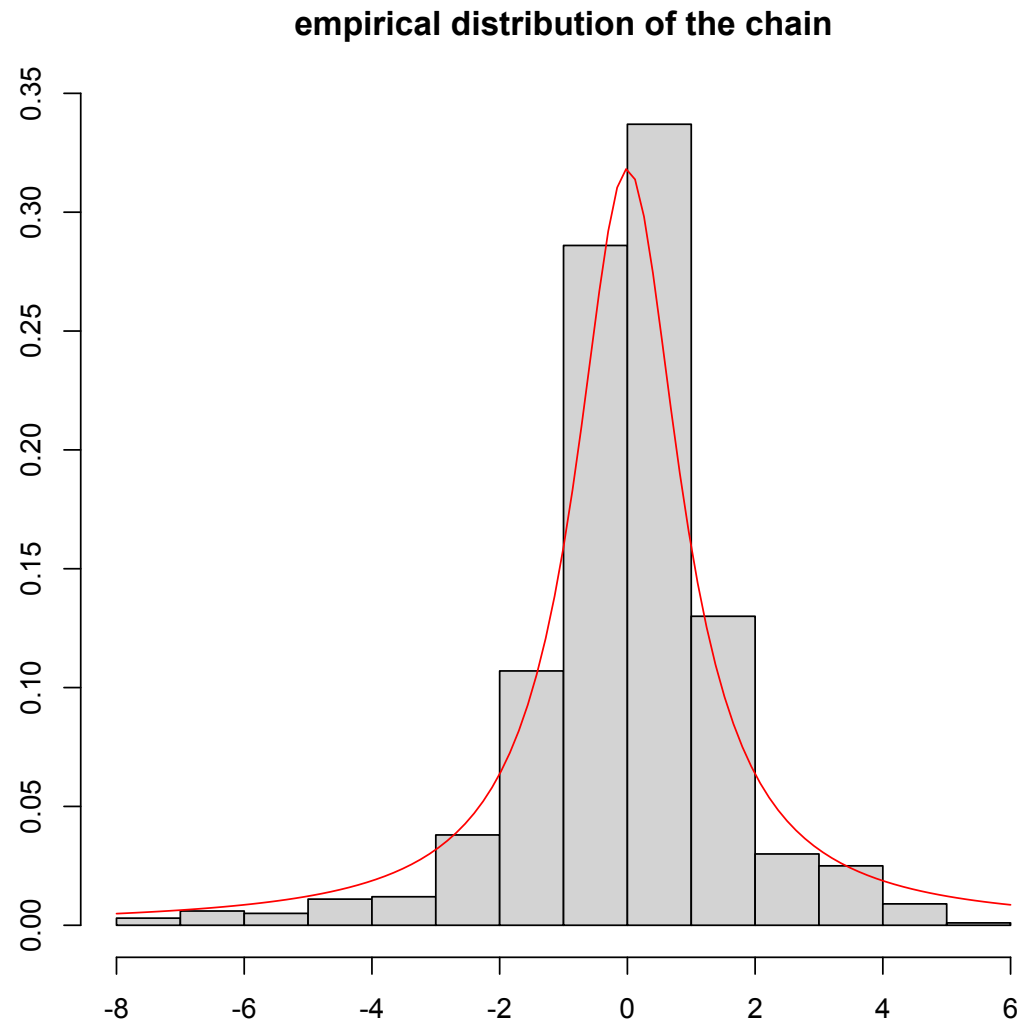
Example: Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- Figure below shows the chains of length $N = 1000$ using $b = 1$



Example: Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- Figure: Histogram of chains and the plot of the Cauchy density (red)
- The distribution of chain converges to the desired Cauchy distribution.



Relevance to Bayesian inference

- Let f be the posterior pdf, $p(\theta | y)$: this is the distribution we want to sample from.
- Let $q(\psi | \theta_i)$ be a pdf for the proposal ψ which is symmetric in ψ and θ , e.g., normal $N(\theta_i, b^2)$.
- The algorithm constructs a Markov chain $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots$, where the θ_i are continuous rvs (in our applications).

Relevance to Bayesian inference

- q is called the proposal distribution: it is used to generate the next possible point in the Markov chain.
- q is often taken as a normal distribution centred on the current point

$$\psi_i \sim N(\theta_i, b^2), \text{ for some } b > 0.$$

- The normal pdf is symmetric in θ and ψ , as required by the algorithm

$$q(\psi | \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}b} e^{-\frac{(\psi - \theta)^2}{2b^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}b} e^{-\frac{(\theta - \psi)^2}{2b^2}} = q(\theta | \psi).$$

Relevance to Bayesian inference

The algorithm constructs a Markov chain $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots$ as follows:

- Start with arbitrary θ_1 .
- For each $i > 1$, generate ψ_i from distribution $q(\psi | \theta_i)$.

• Let

$$r = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{p(\psi | y)}{p(\theta_i | y)} \right\}$$

• Set

$$\theta_{i+1} = \begin{cases} \psi & \text{with probability } r \\ \theta_i & \text{with probability } 1 - r \end{cases}$$

Relevance to Bayesian inference

- In Bayesian inference, the posterior density is

$$p(\theta | y) \propto p(\theta) p(y | \theta)$$

- It's difficult to find the normalizing constant

$$\int p(\theta) p(y | \theta) d\theta$$

- We don't need to find this, we just put $g(\theta) = p(\theta) p(y | \theta)$, use g in the algorithm (where we have f), and we will get an approximate sample from $p(\theta | y)$.
- The Markov chain $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots$ is this sample.

Metropolis algorithm for Bayesian inference

Define $g(\theta) = p(\theta) p(y | \theta)$, the non-normalized posterior density.

Generate a Markov chain $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots$ as follows:

- Choose some $b > 0$.
- Start with θ_1 , where $g(\theta_1) > 0$.
- For each $i > 1$:

- Generate $\psi \sim N(\theta_i, b^2)$.

- Let

$$r = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{g(\psi)}{g(\theta_i)} \right\}.$$

- Set

$$\theta_{i+1} = \begin{cases} \psi & \text{with probability } r \\ \theta_i & \text{with probability } 1 - r \end{cases}$$

Working on the log scale

- We usually do the computations using the log of the posterior density.
- The likelihood is typically a product of many terms.

$$p(y | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | \theta)$$

- Due to finite accuracy of computers, if we multiply these together for a large dataset, the result is inaccurate.
- So calculate

$$\log(p(y | \theta)) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(p(y_i | \theta))$$

Using the log scale

- Define $\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \log(p(\theta) p(y | \theta)) = \log(p(\theta)) + \log(p(y | \theta))$, the log of the posterior density (up to a constant).
- To work on the log scale, the part of the algorithm with the acceptance probability changes.

- Define

$$\delta = \min(0, \mathcal{L}(\psi) - \mathcal{L}(\theta_{i-1}))$$

- Generate $u \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$

- Set

$$\theta_i = \begin{cases} \psi & \text{if } \log(u) \leq \delta \\ \theta_{i-1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Normal example with known variance

- Y_1, \dots, Y_n iid from $N(\theta, \sigma^2)$ where σ^2 is known.
- $\theta \sim N(\mu, \tau^2)$ with τ^2 known,
- Apply the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm to simulate from the posterior $p(\theta|y_1, \dots, y_n)$ after observing $Y = y$

Metropolis-Hastings algorithm for Bayesian inference

- Metropolis-Hastings algorithm generates a dependent sequence $\theta^{(1)}, \dots$, of θ values.
- Under mild conditions, the empirical distribution of $\theta^{(i)}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots$ will approximate well the posterior.
- We can view $\theta^{(i)}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots$ as a sample from the posterior $p(\theta|y)$.
- Hence, we can approximate posterior means, quantiles and other posterior quantities of interest using $\{\theta^{(1)}, \dots, \theta^{(N)}\}$ for large N .
- However, our approximation to these quantities will depend on how well our simulated sequence actually approximates $p(\theta | y)$.