# CPSC 535 Gibbs Sampling

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#### February 2007



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- Rejection Sampling and Importance Sampling are two general methods but limited to problems of moderate dimensions.
- **Problem**: We try to sample all the components of a potentially high-dimensional parameter simultaneously/sequentially and we can never correct for components already sampled.
- A powerful class of methods is available to deal with such methods: Markov chain Monte Carlo.

• Multiple failures in a nuclear plant

Pump i	1	2	3	4	5
# Failures $p_i$	5	1	5	14	3
Times <i>t<sub>i</sub></i>	94.32	15.72	62.88	125.7	6 5.24
Pump i	6	7	8	9	10
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• Model: Failures of the *i*-th pump follow a Poisson process with parameter  $\lambda_i$  ( $1 \le i \le 10$ ). For an observed time  $t_i$ , the number of failures  $p_i$  is thus a Poisson  $\mathcal{P}(\lambda_i t_i)$  random variable.

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- The unknown parameters consist of  $\theta = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{10}, \beta)$ .

#### • Hierarchical model

$$\lambda_i | (lpha, eta) \stackrel{\mathsf{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{G}_{\boldsymbol{a}}(lpha, eta) ext{ and } eta \sim \mathcal{G}_{\boldsymbol{a}}(\gamma, \delta)$$

with  $\alpha = 1.8$  and  $\gamma = 0.01$  and  $\delta = 1$ .

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with  $\alpha = 1.8$  and  $\gamma = 0.01$  and  $\delta = 1$ .

• The posterior distribution is proportional to

$$p(\lambda_{1:10},\beta|p_{1:10},t_{1:10})$$

$$\propto \prod_{i=1}^{10} \{(\lambda_i t_i)^{p_i} \exp(-\lambda_i t_i)\lambda_i^{\alpha-1} \exp(-\beta\lambda_i)\}\beta^{10\alpha}\beta^{\gamma-1} \exp(-\delta\beta)$$

$$\propto \prod_{i=1}^{10} \{\lambda_i^{p_i+\alpha-1} \exp(-(t_i+\beta)\lambda_i)\}\beta^{10\alpha+\gamma-1} \exp(-\delta\beta).$$

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$$\begin{aligned} & p\left(\lambda_{1:10},\beta \mid p_{1:10},t_{1:10}\right) \\ \propto & \prod_{i=1}^{10} \{\left(\lambda_{i}t_{i}\right)^{p_{i}}\exp(-\lambda_{i}t_{i})\lambda_{i}^{\alpha-1}\exp(-\beta\lambda_{i})\}\beta^{10\alpha}\beta^{\gamma-1}\exp(-\delta\beta) \\ \propto & \prod_{i=1}^{10} \{\lambda_{i}^{p_{i}+\alpha-1}\exp(-(t_{i}+\beta)\lambda_{i})\}\beta^{10\alpha+\gamma-1}\exp(-\delta\beta). \end{aligned}$$

• This multidimensional distribution is rather complex. It is not obvious how the rejection method or importance sampling could be used in this context.

• The conditionals have a familiar form

$$p(\lambda_{1:10}|p_{1:10},t_{1:10},\beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{10} p(\lambda_i|p_i,t_i,\beta)$$

where

$$\lambda_i | (eta, extsf{t}_i, extsf{p}_i) \sim \mathcal{G}$$
a $( extsf{p}_i + lpha, extsf{t}_i + eta)$  for  $1 \leq i \leq 10$ ,

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• Instead of directly sampling the vector  $\theta = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{10}, \beta)$  at once, one could suggest sampling it iteratively, starting for example with the  $\lambda_i$ 's for a given guess of  $\beta$ , followed by an update of  $\beta$  given the new samples  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{10}$ .

- Given a sample, at iteration t,  $\theta^t := (\lambda_1^t, \dots, \lambda_{10}^t, \beta^t)$  one could proceed as follows at iteration t + 1,
- $\lambda_i^{t+1} | (\beta^t, t_i, p_i) \sim \mathcal{G}a(p_i + \alpha, t_i + \beta^t) \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq 10,$  $\beta^{t+1} | (\lambda_1^{t+1}, \dots, \lambda_{10}^{t+1}) \sim \mathcal{G}a(\gamma + 10\alpha, \delta + \sum_{i=1}^{10} \lambda_i^{t+1}).$

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- Instead of directly sampling in a space with 11 dimensions, one samples in spaces of dimension 1.
- Note that the deterministic version of such an algorithm where sampling is replaced by maximization would not generally converge towards the global maximum of the joint distribution.

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  - If yes, how many times should the iteration above be repeated?
- The validity of the approach described here stems from the fact that the sequence {θ<sup>t</sup>} defined above is a Markov chain and some Markov chains have very nice properties.

## Elements of Markov chains

Markov chain: A sequence of random variables {X<sub>n</sub>; n ∈ ℕ} defined on (𝔅, 𝔅(𝔅)) which satisfies the property, for any A ∈ 𝔅(𝔅)

$$\mathbb{P}\left(X_{n}\in A|X_{0},...,X_{n-1}\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(X_{n}\in A|X_{n-1}\right).$$

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 Markov chain Monte Carlo: Given a target π, design a transition kernel P such that asymptotically as n → ∞

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\varphi\left(X_{n}\right)\rightarrow\int_{\mathbb{X}}\varphi\left(x\right)\pi\left(x\right)dx\text{ and/or }X_{n}\sim\pi.$$

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• It should be easy to simulate the Markov chain even if  $\pi$  is complex.

 $\bullet$  Consider the autoregression for  $|\alpha|<1$ 

$$X_n = lpha X_{n-1} + V_n$$
, where  $V_n \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \sigma^2
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then

$$P(x, dy) = P(x, y) dy = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y-\alpha x)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dx.$$

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 To sample from π, we could just sample the Markov chain and asymptotically we would have X<sub>n</sub> ~ π. [Obviously, in this case this is useless because we can sample from π directly.] • Graphically, consider 1000 independent Markov chains run in parallel.

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- We assume that the initial distribution of these Markov chains is  $\mathcal{U}_{[0,20]}.$  So initially, the Markov chains samples are not distributed according to  $\pi$

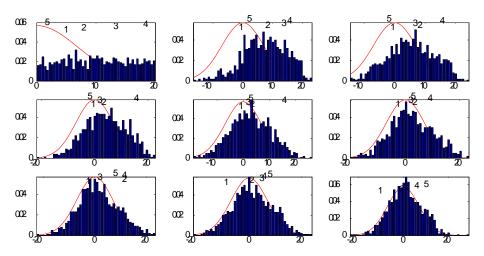


Figure: From top left to bottom right: histograms of 1000 independent Markov chains with a normal distribution as target distribution as n increases.

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- This is what we wanted to achieve, *i.e.* it seems that we have produced 1000 independent samples from the normal distribution.
- In fact one can show that in many (all?) situations of interest it is not necessary to run N Markov chains in parallel in order to obtain 1000 samples, but that one can consider a unique Markov chain, and build the histogram from this single Markov chain by forming histograms from one trajectory.



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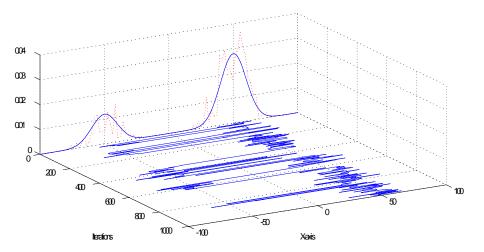


Figure: Bimodal target distributions and simulated Markov chain

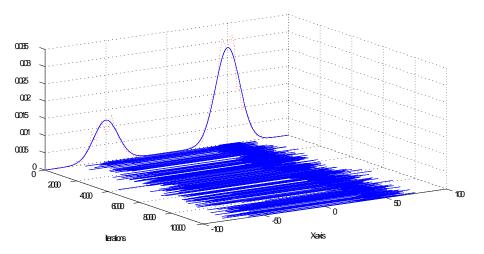


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- Assume that we have stored  $\{X_n, 1 \le n \le N\}$  for N large and wish to estimate  $\int_X \varphi(x) \pi(x) dx$ .
- In the light of the numerical experiments, one can suggest the estimator

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• In fact, it can be proved, under relatively mild conditions, that such an estimator is consistent *despite the fact that the samples are NOT independent!* Under additional conditions, a CLT also holds with a rate of CV in  $1/\sqrt{N}$ .

To summarize, we are interested in Markov chains with transition kernel P which have the following three important properties observed above:

• The desired distribution  $\pi$  is a "fixed point" of the algorithm or, in more appropriate terms, an *invariant distribution* of the Markov chain, *i.e.*  $\int_{\mathbb{X}} \pi(x) P(x, y) dx = \pi(y)$ .

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- The successive distributions of the Markov chains converge towards  $\pi$ .
- The estimator  $\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\varphi(X_n)$  converges towards  $\mathbb{E}_{\pi}(\varphi(X))$  and asymptotically  $X_n \sim \pi$

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- The "art" of MCMC consists of coming up with good ones.
- Convergence is ensured under very weak assumptions; namely irreducibility and aperiodicity.
- It is usually very easy to establish that an MCMC sampler converges towards  $\pi$  but very difficult to obtain rates of convergence.

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• Sampling from these conditional is often feasible even when sampling from the joint is impossible (e.g. nuclear pump data).

• Clearly  $\{(\theta_i^1, \theta_i^2)\}$  is a Markov chain and its transition kernel is

$$P\left(\left(\theta^{1},\theta^{2}\right),\left(\widetilde{\theta}^{1},\widetilde{\theta}^{2}\right)
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ight).$ • Then  $\int \int \pi (\theta^1, \theta^2) P((\theta^1, \theta^2), (\tilde{\theta}^1, \tilde{\theta}^2)) d\theta^1 d\theta^2$  satisfies  $\int \int \pi \left(\theta^{1}, \theta^{2}\right) \pi \left(\left.\widetilde{\theta}^{1}\right| \theta^{2}\right) \pi \left(\left.\widetilde{\theta}^{2}\right| \widetilde{\theta}^{1}\right) d\theta^{1} d\theta^{2}$  $=\int \pi\left( heta^2
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ight)d heta^2$  $= \int \pi \left( \widetilde{\theta}^{1}, \theta^{2} \right) \pi \left( \widetilde{\theta}^{2} \middle| \widetilde{\theta}^{1} \right) d\theta^{2}$  $= \pi \left( \widetilde{\theta}^{1} \right) \pi \left( \left. \widetilde{\theta}^{2} \right| \widetilde{\theta}^{1} \right) = \pi \left( \widetilde{\theta}^{1}, \widetilde{\theta}^{2} \right)$ 

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- Additionally it is required to ensure *irreducibility*: loosely speaking the Markov chain can move to any set A such that π(A) > 0 for (almost) any starting point.

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- Additionally it is required to ensure *irreducibility*: loosely speaking the Markov chain can move to any set A such that π (A) > 0 for (almost) any starting point.
- This ensures that

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\varphi\left(\theta_{n}^{1},\theta_{n}^{2}\right)\rightarrow\int\varphi\left(\theta^{1},\theta^{2}\right)\pi\left(\theta^{1},\theta^{2}\right)d\theta^{1}d\theta^{2}$$

but NOT that asymptotically  $(\theta_n^1, \theta_n^2) \sim \pi$ .

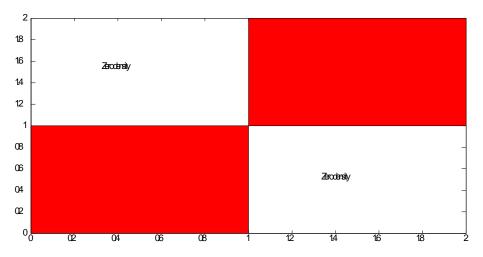


Figure: A distribution that can lead to a reducible Gibbs sampler.

• Consider a simple example where  $X = \{1, 2\}$  and P(1, 2) = P(2, 1) = 1. Clearly the invariant distribution is given by  $\pi(1) = \pi(2) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

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 You need to make sure that you do NOT explore the space in a periodic way to ensure that X<sub>n</sub> ~ π asymptotically.

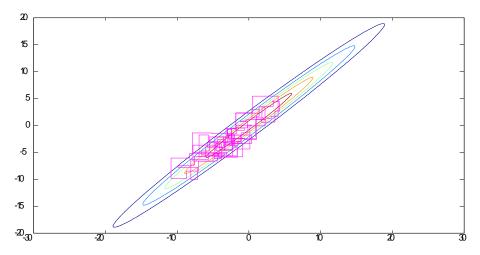


Figure: Even when irreducibility and aperiodicity are ensured, the Gibbs sampler can still converge very slowly.

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- Integrate analytically as many variables as possible: pretty algorithms can be much more inefficient than ugly algorithms.
- There is no general result telling strategy A is better than strategy B in all cases: you need experience.

## Application to Simulation of Fractal Images

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$$P(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i \delta_{A_i x + b_i}(y)$$

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• To find  $\{w_i, A_i, b_i\}$ , we write

$$\int \pi(x) P(x, y) f(y) dxdy = \sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i \int f(A_i x + b_i) \pi(x) dx$$
$$= \int f(x) \pi(x) dx \approx \int f(x) \nu(x) dx$$

and solve approximately the equations for some functions f (linear or low order polynoms). February 2007 27 / 35

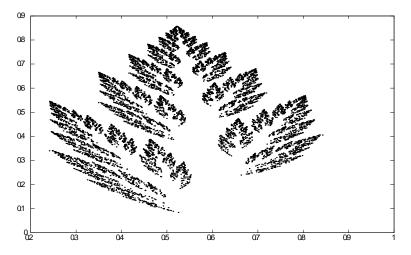


Figure: Fractal image generated using Iterated random functions with k = 2 and N = 10000 samples

## Gibbs Sampler for Bayesian Variable Selection

• We select the following model

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \beta_{i} X_{i} + \sigma V$$
 where  $V \sim \mathcal{N} (0, 1)$ 

where we assume  $\mathcal{IG}\left(\sigma^2;\frac{\nu_0}{2},\frac{\gamma_0}{2}\right)$  and for  $\alpha^2<<1$ 

$$\beta_{i} \sim \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{N}\left(0, \alpha^{2} \delta^{2} \sigma^{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{N}\left(0, \delta^{2} \sigma^{2}\right)$$

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• We introduce a latent variable  $\gamma_i \in \{0, 1\}$  such that

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{Pr}\left(\gamma_{i}=0\right)=\mathsf{Pr}\left(\gamma_{i}=1\right)=\frac{1}{2},\\ \beta_{i}|\,\gamma_{i}=0\sim\mathcal{N}\left(0,\alpha^{2}\delta^{2}\sigma^{2}\right), \quad \beta_{i}|\,\gamma_{i}=1\sim\mathcal{N}\left(0,\delta^{2}\sigma^{2}\right). \end{array}$$

• We have parameters  $\left(eta_{1:p},\gamma_{1:p},\sigma^2
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- A potential Gibbs sampler consists of sampling iteratively from  $p\left(\beta_{1:p} \middle| D, \gamma_{1:p}, \sigma^2\right)$  (Gaussian),  $p\left(\sigma^2 \middle| D, \gamma_{1:p}, \beta_{1:p}\right)$  (inverse-Gamma) and  $p\left(\gamma_{1:p} \middle| D, \beta_{1:p}, \sigma^2\right)$ .

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- In particular

$$p\left(\gamma_{1:p} \mid D, \beta_{1:p}, \sigma^{2}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{p} p\left(\gamma_{i} \mid \beta_{i}, \sigma^{2}\right)$$

and

$$p\left(\gamma_{i}=1|\beta_{i},\sigma^{2}\right)=\frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\delta\sigma}}\exp\left(-\frac{\beta_{i}^{2}}{2\delta^{2}\sigma^{2}}\right)}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\delta\sigma}}\exp\left(-\frac{\beta_{i}^{2}}{2\delta^{2}\sigma^{2}}\right)+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\alpha\delta\sigma}\exp\left(-\frac{\beta_{i}^{2}}{2\alpha^{2}\delta^{2}\sigma^{2}}\right)}.$$

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The Gibbs sampler becomes reducible as α goes to zero.

 This is the result of bad modelling and bad algorithm. You would like to put α ≃ 0 and write

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \gamma_{i} \beta_{i} X_{i} + \sigma V$$
 where  $V \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ 

where  $\gamma_i = 1$  if  $X_i$  is included or  $\gamma_i = 0$  otherwise. However this suggests that  $\beta_i$  is defined even when  $\gamma_i = 0$ .

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• A neater way to write such models is to write

$$Y = \sum_{\{i:\gamma_i=1\}} \beta_i X_i + \sigma V = \beta_{\gamma}^{\mathsf{T}} X_{\gamma} + \sigma V$$

where, for a vector  $\gamma = (\gamma_1, ..., \gamma_p)$ ,  $\beta_{\gamma} = \{\beta_i : \gamma_i = 1\}$ ,  $X_{\gamma} = \{X_i : \gamma_i = 1\}$  and  $n_{\gamma} = \sum_{i=1}^p \gamma_i$ .

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Prior distributions

$$\pi_{\gamma}\left(\beta_{\gamma},\sigma^{2}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\beta_{\gamma};0,\delta^{2}\sigma^{2}I_{n_{\gamma}}\right)\mathcal{IG}\left(\sigma^{2};\frac{\nu_{0}}{2},\frac{\gamma_{0}}{2}\right)$$

and  $\pi(\gamma) = \prod_{i=1}^{p} \pi(\gamma_i) = 2^{-p}$ .

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where

$$\pi\left(\left.\gamma\right|D\right)\propto\pi\left(\left.D\right|\gamma\right)\pi\left(\gamma\right)$$

and

$$\pi\left(\left.\mathcal{D}\right|\gamma\right) = \int \pi\left(\left.\mathcal{D},\beta_{\gamma},\sigma^{2}\right|\gamma\right)d\beta_{\gamma}d\sigma^{2}.$$

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• Optional step: Sample  $\left(\beta_{\gamma,i}, \sigma_i^2\right) \sim \pi\left(\left.\beta_{\gamma}, \sigma^2\right| D, \gamma\right)$ .

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- However, it can also mix very slowly because the components are updated one at a time.
- Updating correlated components together would increase significantly the convergence speed of the algorithm at the cost of an increased complexity.

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- Except the choice of the partitions of parameters, the Gibbs sampler is parameter free; this does not mean it is efficient.