

Advanced Monte Carlo methods

Bayesian Methodology in Biostatistics (BST 249)

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Outline

Quasi-Monte Carlo

Auxiliary variable methods

- Auxiliary variable technique

- MH as a special case

- Probit regression with data augmentation

- Slice sampling

- Reversible jump MCMC

Handling intractable likelihoods

- Approximate Bayesian computation (ABC)

- MCMC for doubly intractable models

Monte Carlo techniques we've covered so far

- Simple Monte Carlo
- Importance sampling
- Gibbs sampling
- Metropolis–Hastings
- Combining MCMC moves
- MCMC algorithms for various models

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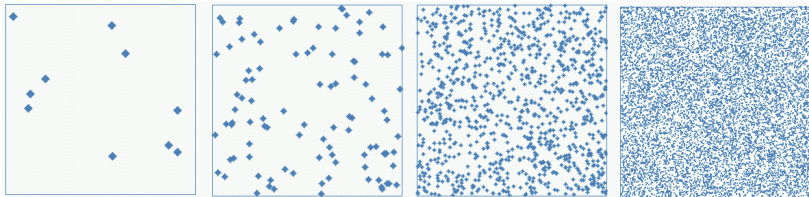
Handling intractable likelihoods

- Approximate Bayesian computation (ABC)

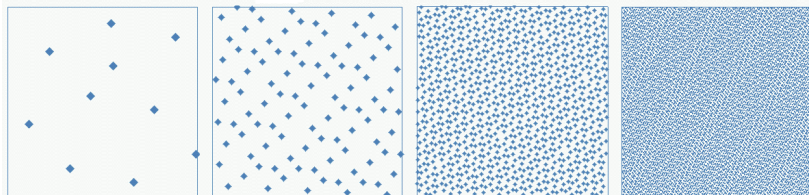
- MCMC for doubly intractable models

Quasi-Monte Carlo (QMC)

Random



Quasi-Monte Carlo



Quasi-Monte Carlo (QMC)

- Quasi-Monte Carlo uses well-spaced deterministic points instead of random samples to approximate integrals.
- These deterministic sequences of points are also known as “low-discrepancy sequences” (LDSs).
- In simple Monte Carlo, the error is of order $O(1/\sqrt{n})$.
- In quasi-Monte Carlo, the error is of order $O((\log n)^d/n)$ where d is the dimension. (Major improvement!)
- When $d = 1$ or $d = 2$, we could just use a grid, but the number of points in a grid grows exponentially with d .
- Consequently, as d grows, it is far from obvious how to construct good LDSs.

Quasi-Monte Carlo (QMC): Constructions

- Low-discrepancy sequences (LDSs) are usually defined to target the uniform distribution on $[0, 1]^d$.
- Standard choices of LDS:
 - ▶ Sobol sequence
 - ▶ Halton sequence
 - ▶ Hammersley sequence
 - ▶ Faure sequence
- By using inverse CDFs, it is easy to transform LDSs to target other probability distributions, e.g., multivariate Gaussians, discrete distributions, copulas.

Quasi-Monte Carlo (QMC): Issues

- Even though QMC is asymptotically superior, in high-dim spaces the benefit does not kick in until n is very large.
- The issue is that when d is large, the $(\log n)^d$ factor often makes QMC slower in practice.
- So far, QMC has had limited success in high-dim applications in statistics.
- Notable exception: In finance applications, QMC is reported to outperform Monte Carlo in many high-dim problems.

Quasi-Monte Carlo (QMC) and MCMC

- Part of the issue is that QMC does not work well when the target distribution is concentrated on a small set, since most of the samples are wasted.
- MCMC does not have this problem since it tends to stay in regions where the target distribution is concentrated.
- It is not clear how to combine QMC and MCMC in a way that obtains the nice properties of both.
- There have been efforts to use QMC in MCMC moves (Owen & Tribble, 2005), but so far there is not a clear benefit of this over standard MCMC.
- This remains an interesting open research problem.

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Auxiliary variable technique

- Many advanced MCMC methods employ auxiliary variables to construct moves with the desired stationary distribution.
- Suppose $p(x, z)$ is such that $\pi(x) = \int p(x, z) dz$ and T_{aug} is a move on (x, z) that preserves $p(x, z)$.
- Interpretation:
 - ▶ π = target distribution,
 - ▶ x = state of the Markov chain,
 - ▶ z = auxiliary variable.
- Define a move T on x as follows:
 1. Suppose the current state is x .
 2. Sample z from $p(z|x)$.
 3. Generate (x', z') by applying the move T_{aug} to (x, z) .
 4. Define the new state to be x' .
- It can be shown that $\pi T = \pi$, that is, T preserves π .

Auxiliary variable technique

- An auxiliary variable move T constructed in this way is guaranteed to have π as its stationary distribution.
- However, it is not guaranteed to yield an irreducible Markov chain (and in practice, often it does not).
- Auxiliary moves are often combined with other moves to improve mixing. Irreducibility can be obtained with an appropriate combination of moves.
- Special cases of the auxiliary variable technique:
 - ▶ Metropolis–Hastings (and Gibbs)
 - ▶ Mixture model sampler with allocation variables
 - ▶ Probit regression sampler with data augmentation
 - ▶ Slice sampling
 - ▶ Reversible jump MCMC
 - ▶ Hamiltonian Monte Carlo
 - ▶ MCMC for doubly intractable models
 - ▶ Swendsen-Wang algorithm for Ising model

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Auxiliary variable technique: MH as a special case

- How can we view Metropolis–Hastings (MH) as an auxiliary variable move?
- First, the Metropolis algorithm is an older and simpler version of MH in which the proposal distribution is symmetric:

$$q(x_{\text{prop}}|x) = q(x|x_{\text{prop}}).$$

- Consequently, the proposal distribution cancels in the MH acceptance probability.
- Thus, in a Metropolis move, the acceptance probability is

$$\alpha = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(x_{\text{prop}})}{\pi(x)} \right\}.$$

Auxiliary variable technique: MH as a special case

- MH can be viewed as performing a simple Metropolis move in an augmented space.
- Suppose $z = x_{\text{prop}}$ is the proposed new value of x in MH.
- Then $p(x, z) = p(x, x_{\text{prop}}) = \pi(x)q(x_{\text{prop}}|x)$.
- Now, apply a Metropolis move on (x, x_{prop}) as follows:
Propose to swap x and x_{prop} , that is, $(x, x_{\text{prop}}) \mapsto (x_{\text{prop}}, x)$.
- The acceptance probability of this Metropolis move on (x, x_{prop}) is

$$\alpha = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(x_{\text{prop}})q(x|x_{\text{prop}})}{\pi(x)q(x_{\text{prop}}|x)} \right\}.$$

- This coincides with the standard MH acceptance probability!

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Example: Probit regression with data augmentation

- Probit regression for binary outcomes Y_i given covariates x_i :

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_i = 1 \mid \beta, x_i) = \Phi(\beta^T x_i)$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the standard normal CDF.

- The posterior on β is not amenable to Gibbs sampling.
- We could use MH, but we would have to tune the proposal distribution.
- Auxiliary variables (a.k.a. data augmentation) allow us to use Gibbs on an augmented space.

Example: Probit regression with data augmentation

- Augmented model:

$$\beta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, C) \quad (\text{prior on } \beta)$$

$$Z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta^T x_i, 1) \quad (\text{auxiliary variables})$$

$$Y_i = \mathbb{I}(Z_i > 0). \quad (\text{outcomes})$$

- Integrating out the Z_i 's, this is equivalent to the probit regression model.
- The nice thing is that given the Z_i 's, this is just a linear regression model with the Z_i 's playing the role of the data.
- Thus, the full conditional for β is the usual linear regression posterior with Z_i 's as data.
- This approach to probit regression is due to Albert & Chib (1993).

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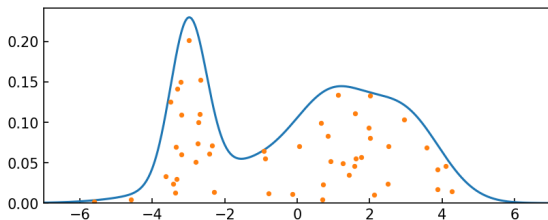
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Slice sampling

- Like MH, slice sampling can be used on complicated target distributions $\pi(x) \propto \tilde{\pi}(x)$.
- Slice sampling is way of constructing MCMC moves that sometimes have better mixing than MH.
- The advantage is that slice sampling makes moves that automatically adapt to the shape of the target distribution.
- Basic idea: Sample uniformly from the region under the target density by alternating between “horizontal” and “vertical” Gibbs updates.
- Slice sampling was introduced by Neal (2003).

Slice sampling: Recall the projection principle

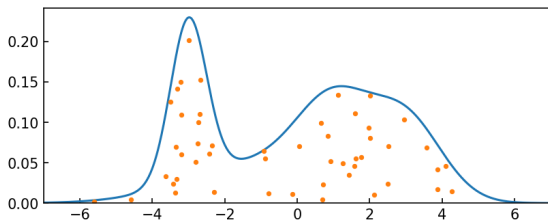


- Suppose we want to sample from a distribution on \mathbb{R}^d with p.d.f. $\pi(x) \propto \tilde{\pi}(x)$.
- Consider the region of \mathbb{R}^{d+1} under $\tilde{\pi}$:

$$A = \left\{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} : 0 < y < \tilde{\pi}(x) \right\}.$$

- It turns out that if $(X, Y) \sim \text{Uniform}(A)$, then $X \sim \pi$.

Slice sampling: Idea of the algorithm



- Slice sampling: Sample uniformly from the region under the target density

$$A = \left\{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} : 0 < y < \tilde{\pi}(x) \right\}$$

by alternating between “horizontal” and “vertical” Gibbs updates to x and y , respectively.

Slice sampling: Algorithm

- The vertical update (sampling from the full conditional of y) is trivial:

$$Y|x \sim \text{Uniform}(0, \tilde{\pi}(x)).$$

- For the horizontal update (sampling from the full conditional of x), ideally we would sample uniformly from the “slice”:

$$A_y = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d : (x, y) \in A \right\} = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d : y < \tilde{\pi}(x) \right\}.$$

- Exactly sampling from $\text{Uniform}(A_y)$ is often difficult. Fortunately, however, we only need to make a move that has $\text{Uniform}(A_y)$ as its stationary distribution.
- For instance, we can use an MH move with proposal $\text{Uniform}(B_r(x))$ where $B_r(x) = \{x' \in \mathbb{R}^d : \|x' - x\| < r\}$ is the ball of radius r , centered at x . The radius r can be chosen adaptively; see Neal (2003) for details.

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Reversible jump MCMC (RJMCMC)

- RJMCMC is a technique for sampling from spaces of varying dimension.
- For instance, suppose models $\mathcal{M}_1, \mathcal{M}_2, \dots$ have parameter spaces of dimension d_1, d_2, \dots , and we want to sample from the posterior on models, but the marginal likelihood cannot be computed.
- Examples:
 - ▶ Variable selection with non-conjugate priors
 - ▶ Mixture models with an unknown number of components (with non-conjugate priors on the component parameters)
 - ▶ Time-series models of unknown order (with non-conjugate priors)

Reversible jump MCMC (RJMCMC)

- It is not obvious how to construct valid MCMC updates for moving between spaces with different dimension.
- Part of the issue is that the meaning of the density is different in different dimensions.
- RJMCMC (Green, 1995) is a general way of constructing “transdimensional” moves with the correct stationary distribution.
- Basic idea: Introduce auxiliary variables that embed multiple models into spaces of common dimension, and make a move in this augmented space.
- Unfortunately, RJMCMC often mixes very slowly because it is difficult to design good proposals for moving between models.

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Approximate Bayesian computation (ABC)

- Sometimes your model is so complicated that you can't even compute the likelihood $p(x|\theta)$ as a function of θ .
- This is sometimes referred to as a “doubly intractable model”.
- Suppose you want to sample from the posterior. If you can't compute $p(x|\theta)$, then most MCMC methods cannot be used. E.g., you can't compute the MH acceptance probabilities.
- Suppose, on the other hand, that you can easily generate data sets from $p(x|\theta)$. ABC is designed for such situations.
- This is actually pretty common, for instance, in:
 - ▶ evolutionary biology,
 - ▶ ecology models,
 - ▶ epidemiology,
 - ▶ weather and climate models,
 - ▶ physics/biophysics models, and
 - ▶ dynamical systems models.

ABC: Naive version (Rejection sampling)

- Suppose x is discrete and the observed value is x_{obs} .
- Generate samples of θ according to the following procedure:
 1. Draw $\theta \sim p(\theta)$ and $x|\theta \sim p(x|\theta)$, so that $(x, \theta) \sim p(x, \theta)$.
 2. If $x = x_{\text{obs}}$, then accept θ . Otherwise, reject θ and go back to step 1.
- Then the accepted θ 's are samples from the posterior $p(\theta|x_{\text{obs}})$, by the rejection principle.
- (Rejection principle: If we sample Z , and reject unless $Z \in A$, then we get samples from $Z | Z \in A$.)
- This naive version of ABC is extremely inefficient unless x can only take a relatively small number of values.

ABC: Standard version (Rejection + summary statistics)

- To make this work more generally, the idea of ABC is accept θ if x is close to x_{obs} , rather than requiring $x = x_{\text{obs}}$.
- Usually, “closeness” is defined by accepting if

$$d(s(x), s(x_{\text{obs}})) \leq \varepsilon$$

where $s(x) \in \mathbb{R}^k$ is a vector of summary statistics and $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is Euclidean distance.

- This generates samples from the “ABC posterior”

$$p(\theta \mid d(s(X), s(x_{\text{obs}})) \leq \varepsilon),$$

which is intended to approximate the standard posterior $p(\theta \mid X = x_{\text{obs}})$.

- If $s(x) = x$ and $\varepsilon = 0$, then the ABC posterior equals the standard posterior.

ABC: Pros and cons

- ABC is very easy to use, even for complex models with intractable likelihoods.
- However, the accuracy of the approximation can be poor, unless the summary statistics $s(x)$ are chosen well and the tolerance ε is small.
- Choosing good summary statistics is tricky, and while there is some theory, it remains something of an art.
- Further, when ε is small, the number of rejected samples is large, making ABC very computationally burdensome.
- Adding to the computational burden is the fact that in many models with intractable likelihoods, generating samples from $p(x|\theta)$ can be slow.

ABC: Refined version (Nonparametric regression)

- A more refined version of ABC uses nonparametric regression rather than rejection sampling.
- This allows one to use all of the samples, and tends to improve the accuracy of the approximation.
- The idea is to view the calculation of a posterior expectation $E(h(\theta)|x)$ as a regression problem, as follows.
- As before, generate a bunch of samples $(x_i, \theta_i) \sim p(x, \theta)$ i.i.d.
- Consider $h(\theta)$ to be the outcome, x to be the predictor, and $(x_1, h(\theta_1)), \dots, (x_T, h(\theta_T))$ to be the data.
- Use nonparametric regression to fit this “data”. Then the estimated regression function $\hat{E}(h(\theta)|x_{\text{obs}})$ is an approximation of $E(h(\theta)|x_{\text{obs}})$, the quantity of interest.

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- ABC can be used very generally — whenever we can generate data sets from the assumed model.
- In some doubly intractable models, we can compute the likelihood $p(x|\theta)$ up to a normalization constant $c(\theta)$, that is,

$$p(x|\theta) = f(x, \theta)c(\theta)$$

where $f(x, \theta)$ can be computed but $c(\theta)$ cannot.

- In such cases, there are very clever MCMC techniques for sampling from the posterior $p(\theta|x)$.
- Basic idea: Introduce an auxiliary data set in such a way that $c(\theta)$ cancels in the MH acceptance probability.

MCMC for doubly intractable models

- The posterior is

$$p(\theta|x) = \frac{p(x|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(x)} = \frac{f(x, \theta)c(\theta)p(\theta)}{p(x)}.$$

- Introduce an auxiliary variable z that takes values in the same space as x and has some conditional density $p(z|x, \theta)$ that can be computed and sampled from.
- Consider using an MH move preserving the augmented posterior,

$$p(z, \theta|x) = p(z|x, \theta)p(\theta|x) = \frac{p(z|x, \theta)f(x, \theta)c(\theta)p(\theta)}{p(x)}.$$

MCMC for doubly intractable models

- If the MH proposal distribution is $q(z', \theta' | z, \theta, x)$, then the MH acceptance probability is

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &= \min \left\{ 1, \frac{p(z', \theta' | x)}{p(z, \theta | x)} \frac{q(z, \theta | z', \theta', x)}{q(z', \theta' | z, \theta, x)} \right\} \\ &= \min \left\{ 1, \frac{p(z' | x, \theta')}{p(z | x, \theta)} \frac{f(x, \theta') c(\theta') p(\theta')}{f(x, \theta) c(\theta) p(\theta)} \frac{q(z, \theta | z', \theta', x)}{q(z', \theta' | z, \theta, x)} \right\}.\end{aligned}$$

- Now, suppose we choose the proposal distribution such that

$$q(z', \theta' | z, \theta, x) = g(\theta' | x, \theta) f(z', \theta') c(\theta'),$$

in other words, propose θ' from some density $g(\theta' | x, \theta)$ and propose z' by sampling from the model given θ' .

- Plugging this into the MH acceptance probability, the $c(\theta)$ and $c(\theta')$ factors cancel, and we have

$$\alpha = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{p(z' | x, \theta')}{p(z | x, \theta)} \frac{f(x, \theta') p(\theta')}{f(x, \theta) p(\theta)} \frac{g(\theta | x, \theta') f(z, \theta)}{g(\theta' | x, \theta) f(z', \theta')} \right\}.$$

MCMC for doubly intractable models

- Every factor in this MH acceptance probability can be computed.
- Hence, this yields a tractable MCMC sampler for $p(z, \theta|x)$. Discarding the z samples and keeping the θ samples, we obtain samples from $p(\theta|x)$.
- While it works in principle, this sampler can suffer from low acceptance probability.
- Improvements upon this basic idea have been developed by Murray et al. (2006).
- The algorithm above was introduced by Møller et al. (2006).

References and supplements

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