

MCMC

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Overview

- Restate the Problem
- MH
- MCMC

Bayes Rule

- Recall we want the posterior distribution, the probability that a particular hypothesis “*hyp*” is correct, in light of the “*data*”.

$$\text{Bayes Rule : } p(\text{hyp}|\text{data}) = \frac{p(\text{data}|\text{hyp})p(\text{hyp})}{p(\text{data})} \quad (1)$$

- And we often throw away the denominator because it is a “constant” in this context

$$\text{Bayes Rule : } p(\text{hyp}|\text{data}) = p(\text{data}|\text{hyp})p(\text{hyp}) \quad (2)$$

- Use θ for the hypothesized parameter values

$$p(\theta|\text{data}) = p(\text{data}|\theta)p(\theta) \quad (3)$$

- Recall “*data*” is a collection of observations in a sample

$$\text{data} = (\text{data}_1, \text{data}_2, \text{data}_3 \dots, \text{data}_N) \quad (4)$$

Likelihood \times prior

- $p(\text{data}|\theta)$ is a likelihood function.
- Assuming “independence”,

$$p(\text{data}|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(\text{data}_i|\theta) \quad (5)$$

- So Bayes theorem means we need

$$p(\theta|\text{data}) = \left(\prod_{i=1}^N p(\text{data}_i|\theta)\right) \times \text{prior}(\theta) \quad (6)$$

What does $p(\theta|\text{data})$ Look Like?

- That's the million dollar question. What outcomes are most likely? How "widely spread" is it.
- In Jim Albert's book, one approximate approach is the Laplace approximation. This finds the "mode" of the posterior, approximately.
- Before high speed (parallel) computing, that was about as good as we can do (and it is still a useful "pedagogical" approach).

Remember “acceptance sampling”

- In my lecture on “drawing random samples”, it was shown that one can draw random cases from a distribution by choosing values from a candidate distribution and then accepting “the right proportion” of them.
- If θ is a one dimensional thing—a single parameter—then we could sample from $p(\theta|data)$ by ordinary acceptance sampling.
- As long as the proposal distribution covers the whole range of θ 's possible values, this is a manageable project.

If θ is Complicated...

- Suppose the parameter vector is larger

$$\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_m) \quad (7)$$

- Problem: find a “good” multidimensional proposal distribution
- Draw a reasonably large sample (and do so reasonably quickly, within our lifetimes)

Metropolis Algorithm

- Metropolis, Nicholas, Arianna W. Rosenbluth, Marshall N. Rosenbluth, Augusta H. Teller, and Edward Teller. 1953. "Equation of State Calculations by Fast Computing Machines." The Journal of Chemical Physics 21(6): 1087.
- Collect a sequence of values $\theta = \{\theta^1, \theta^2, \dots, \theta^T\}$ that will approximate $p(\theta|data)$
- In order to make sure that we "explore" the space, use a Markov Chain to draw new suggested points.
- Recall Markov Chain: "one step dependence"

$$\theta^t = \text{some function}(\theta^{t-1}, \text{any other info avail. at } t-1) \quad (8)$$

- The power of general theorems on Markov Chains comes into play, so that the Metropolis algorithm does not have to prove everything completely from scratch.

Implementation

- Metropolis, et al, proposed to begin at some arbitrary point θ^0 . Calculate $p(\theta^0|data)$.
- Then draw a new point for consideration at random by perturbation

$$\theta^* = \theta^0 + \text{noise} \quad (9)$$

- Then calculate $p(\theta^*|data)$.
- If $p(\theta^*|data) > p(\theta^0|data)$, that means hypothesis θ^* is “more likely” to be correct. So we accept θ^* into our collection of points. Call that θ^1 .

Mountain Climbing is Overrated

- If we only accept points such that $p(\theta^*|data) > p(\theta^{t-1}|data)$, then we are “hill climbing”.
- Suppose we are lucky, and there is just one “global maximum” (no local maxima), then this algorithm will find the “most likely value” of θ and it will stay there forever.
- That’s not enough because
 - It does not “explore” the full extent of possible values of θ
 - We would like to say “95% of the outcomes from $p(\theta|data)$ are between points A and B, and this does not allow such statements.

Go Sideways, or Down (sometimes)

- Metropolis et al proposed to accept some values of θ^* for which

$$p(\theta^* | data) < p(\theta^{t-1} | data) \quad (10)$$

- The chance of accepting a “lower” step was

$$r_m = \frac{p(\theta^* | data)}{p(\theta^{t-1} | data)} \quad (11)$$

- So if θ^* is “almost as likely” as θ^{t-1} , then θ^* is very likely to get added as θ^t .
- Even if θ^* is far less likely than θ^{t-1} , it has a chance of getting selected.
- Thus, there is at least “a chance” that even very unlikely spots will be visited.

Tweaks

- Fiddle around with the procedure for drawing suggested points: Proposal density.
 - Random Walk (depends on θ^{t-1})
 - Independent draws (does not depend on θ^{t-1})
- Fiddle around with the criterion for deciding whether to accept points into the chain.
 - Hastings's proposal (1970) (In Jackman's notation)

$$r = \frac{p(\theta^* | \text{data})}{p(\theta^{t-1} | \text{data})} \cdot \frac{J_t(\theta^*, \theta^{t-1})}{J_t(\theta^{t-1}, \theta^*)} \quad (12)$$

- W. K. Hastings (1970) Monte Carlo Sampling Methods Using Markov Chains and Their Applications, *Biometrika*, 57(1): 97-109
- J_t is the jumping distribution
- Hastings (p. 100) notes this is same as Metropolis if J_t is reversible,

$$J_t(\theta^*, \theta^{t-1}) = J_t(\theta^{t-1}, \theta^*) \quad (13)$$

- Use of right J_t may improve "mixing" (exploration of parameter space) without raising the number of wasted (rejected) proposals.

Example Usage of MH

Count model from MCMCpack in Jackman

Practical Problems of MH

- Slow: creating draws in m dimensional space
- Slow: rejection rate high
- Autocorrelation: Must aggressively “thin” (throw away observations)

Gibbs Sampling

- Recall that

$$Pr(x, y, z) = Pr(x|y, z) \cdot Pr(y, z) \quad (14)$$

- and

$$Pr(y, z) = Pr(y|z) \cdot P(z) \quad (15)$$

- So the 3-tuple's (x, y, z) distribution can be thought of as a series of conditional distributions.

Gibbs Sampling

- The posterior distribution

$$p(\theta|data) \propto p(data|\theta)p(\theta) \quad (16)$$

- Draw each parameter conditionally on all the others

draw θ_1 from $g_1(\theta_1|\theta_{-1}, data)$

draw θ_2 from $g_2(\theta_2|\theta_{-2}, data)$

...

draw θ_m from $g_m(\theta_m|\theta_{-m}, data)$

(17)

Gibbs Sampling

- The distribution of θ from those draws eventually converges to $p(\theta|data)$
- At the start, $g(\theta)$ does not resemble $p(\theta|data)$, so it is necessary to throw away a chunk of observations. (“burn in” iterations)

When This is Done

- We have a sample from the multivariate density $(\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3 \dots, \theta_m)$
- That's m “columns” of estimates, each of which is an “exact sampling distribution”.
- How is that different from Maximum Likelihood (?)
- Can treat each column as a “marginal posterior density”, (Jackman, p 220).
- King's Clarify software uses these columns to calculate predicted values

Why Doesn't a Metropolis Algorithm Require a Burn In Period?

- MH can use every sample drawn
- Gibbs sampling cannot. Why the difference
- MH accepts suggestions in proportion to the desired probability (acceptance sampling)
- Gibbs accepts all draws, without checking that any particular one matches the desired distribution
- The premise is that Gibbs will be more efficient because it is so much simpler to work with one parameter at a time, even though some must be discarded.

An Ordinary Regression Model

| | Garbage Can Regression | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------|---------|
| | Estimate | S.E. |
| (Intercept) | -29.565* | (8.66) |
| V045117L | -10.788 | (7.931) |
| V045117SL | 2.375 | (7.933) |
| V045117M | 5.612 | (7.819) |
| V045117SC | 10.141 | (8.257) |
| V045117C | 17.499* | (8.341) |
| V045117EC | 26.398* | (9.783) |
| V043116WD | 24.605* | (4.032) |
| V043116ID | 22.365* | (3.765) |
| V043116I | 40.605* | (5.165) |
| V043116IR | 65.212* | (4.59) |
| V043116WR | 67.239* | (4.515) |
| V043116SR | 82.348* | (4.722) |
| V043210No | 7.911* | (2.615) |
| V043210Med | 6.781 | (5.84) |
| V0432133. Worse | -25.083* | (3.278) |
| V0432135. The same | -7.382* | (3.317) |
| V045145X2. Very good | -7.623* | (2.528) |
| V045145X3. Somewhat good | -14.505* | (3.387) |
| V045145X4. Not very good | -14.672* | (6.141) |
| V045145X7. Don't feel anything VOL | -26.238* | (8.668) |
| V041109AF | 0.284 | (2.19) |
| N | 803 | |
| RMSE | 29.95 | |
| R ² | 0.712 | |
| AIC | 7762.133 | |

Treat some predictors as Numeric

| | Garbage Can Regression | |
|----------------|------------------------|---------|
| | Estimate | S.E. |
| (Intercept) | -87.134* | (6.888) |
| Ideology | 7.47* | (1.063) |
| Party ID | 15.003* | (0.692) |
| AntiGay | 8.892* | (2.294) |
| Economy | -0.94 | (1.714) |
| Flag Love | -7.447* | (1.301) |
| V041109AF | -0.504 | (2.266) |
| N | 803 | |
| RMSE | 31.831 | |
| R ² | 0.669 | |
| AIC | 7845.258 | |

* $p \leq 0.05$

MCMCpack has regression

Inteface:

```
MCMCregress(formula , data = NULL, burnin = 1000,
             mcmc = 10000,          thin = 1, verbose = 0,
             seed = NA, beta.start = NA,          b0 = 0, B0
             = 0, c0 = 0.001, d0 = 0.001,
             marginal.likelihood = c("none", "Laplace", "
             Chib95"), ...)
```

Count Regression as a Hierarchical Bayesian Model

- Suppose some “count” model follows a Poisson distribution. The i 'th case:

-

$$f(y_i | X_i, \beta) = \frac{X_i \beta^{y_i}}{y_i!} \exp(-X_i \beta) \quad (18)$$

- β is a vector of parameters, X_i is a row of observations for the i 'th case
- Across a sample of N cases, that leads to a likelihood

$$f(y | X, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{X_i \beta^{y_i}}{y_i!} \exp(-X_i \beta) \quad (19)$$

Frailty

- Throw in ϵ_i like so:

$$f(y|X, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{X_i \beta^{y_i}}{y_i!} \exp(-X_i \beta + \epsilon_i) \quad (20)$$

- If 0, then this is just the same old model.
 - However, if ϵ_i has some noise in it, then it will cause the observations to fluctuate more.
- Any probability model for which $E[\epsilon_i] = 0$ can be used.

Rewrite Like This

- Rearrange

$$f(y|X, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{X_i \beta^{y_i}}{y_i!} \exp(-X_i \beta) \exp(\epsilon_i) \quad (21)$$

- Now think of the multiplicative error $\delta_i = \exp(\epsilon_i)$ as something that has expected value 1.
- The benefit here is that the terms are multiplicatively separated

$$f(y|X, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{X_i \beta^{y_i}}{y_i!} \exp(-X_i \beta) \delta_i \quad (22)$$

- If $\delta \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \alpha)$, Recall $E[\delta] = \alpha/\alpha=1$. However, the Variance can differ, $\text{Var}[\delta] = 1/\alpha$.
- That gives y a Negative Binomial distribution. (same expected value as Poisson, bigger variance.)

Estimation

- α is a “hyper parameter”
- We need to estimate β and α
- Because of Gibbs sampling, we can alternate between drawing values of α and β from this posterior.

MCMCpoisson MCMCpack

Markov Chain Monte Carlo for Poisson Regression
Description:

This function generates a sample from the posterior distribution of a Poisson regression model using a random walk Metropolis algorithm. The user supplies data and priors, and a sample from the posterior distribution is returned as an mcmc object, which can be subsequently analyzed with functions provided in the coda package.

Usage:

MCMCpoisson MCMCpack

```
MCMCpoisson(formula , data = NULL, burnin = 1000 ,  
            mcmc = 10000,          thin = 1, tune = 1.1 ,  
            verbose = 0, seed = NA,  beta.start = NA,  
            b0 = 0, B0 = 0, marginal.likelihood = c  
            ("none", "Laplace"), ...)
```

Priors: Prior on β is $MVN(b_0, B_0^{-1})$ (B_0 is the prior's "precision", the reciprocal of variance).

Phony Example I

```
library(MCMCpack)
counts ← c(18, 17, 15, 20, 10, 20, 25, 13, 12)
outcome ← gl(3, 1, 9)
treatment ← gl(3, 3)
posterior ← MCMCpoisson(counts ~ outcome + treatment)
```

```

%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
The Metropolis acceptance rate for beta was 0.27318
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%

```

```
summary(posterior)
```

```

Iterations = 1001:11000
Thinning interval = 1
Number of chains = 1
Sample size per chain = 10000

1. Empirical mean and standard deviation for each variable ,
   plus standard error of the mean:

              Mean      SD Naive SE Time-series SE
(Intercept)  3.025836  0.1770  0.001770      0.008396
outcome2     -0.450066  0.1965  0.001965      0.008228
outcome3     -0.284293  0.1913  0.001913      0.008052

```

Phony Example II

```
treatment2  0.001680 0.2008 0.002008          0.007786
treatment3 -0.006043 0.2021 0.002021          0.008560
```

2. Quantiles for each variable:

| | 2.5% | 25% | 50% | 75% | 97.5% |
|-------------|---------|---------|-----------|---------|----------|
| (Intercept) | 2.6618 | 2.9059 | 3.030113 | 3.1535 | 3.35518 |
| outcome2 | -0.8284 | -0.5782 | -0.456604 | -0.3190 | -0.05947 |
| outcome3 | -0.6764 | -0.4115 | -0.285502 | -0.1569 | 0.08712 |
| treatment2 | -0.3878 | -0.1381 | -0.000305 | 0.1427 | 0.39398 |
| treatment3 | -0.3999 | -0.1459 | -0.003043 | 0.1302 | 0.38832 |

```
plot(posterior)
```

Default Plot



