

## Lecture 8: Sampling: MCMC (MH, Gibbs &amp; Hamiltonian)

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## 8.1 Recap

- Frequentist Learning vs. Bayesian Learning
- Motivation for Sampling
- Types of Sampling: Inverse Probability Transformation, Acceptance-Rejection Sampling
- Recapped how to find best  $q(x)$  (Arbitrary distribution to sample from)

**Proof:**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Best } q(x) &\rightarrow \underset{q}{\operatorname{argmin}} \operatorname{Var}[\mathbb{E}_q[\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} f(x)]] \\
 &= \underset{q}{\operatorname{argmin}} \operatorname{Var}[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \frac{p(x_i)}{q(x_i)}] \\
 &= \underset{q}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{n} (\mathbb{E}_q[\sum_{i=1}^n f^2(x_i) \frac{p^2(x_i)}{q^2(x_i)}] - (\mathbb{E}_q[f(x) \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}])^2)
 \end{aligned}$$

The first expectation term can be rewritten as:  $\underset{\operatorname{argmin}}{q} \int f^2(x) \frac{p^2(x)}{q^2(x)}$  and the second expectation term can be rewritten as  $\mathbb{E}_p[f(x)]$ , which is constant in  $q$  and thus removed from the optimization. Then by applying the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality we can rewrite it as

$$\int f^2(x) \frac{p^2(x)}{q^2(x)} dx * \int q(x) dx \geq (\int f(x) p(x) dx)^2$$

( $\int q(x) dx = 1$  because it is a probability distribution)

$$q(x) = \frac{f(x)p(x)}{\int f(x)p(x) dx}$$

■

## 8.2 New Content

### 8.2.1 Motivation

The problem with Acceptance and Rejection Sampling is that  $q(x)$  needs to meet certain conditions which is restrictive and sometimes difficult.

### 8.2.2 MCMC Sampling

Pseudocode for MCMC sampling:

```
Sample  $x_0 \sim q(x)$  \\  
for  $t = 1 \dots$   
   $x_t \sim T(x|x_{t-1})$ 
```

(This is known as a Markovian process because the current sample only depends on the previous sample).

As  $t$  goes to infinity the sample converges to the target distribution  $x_\infty \sim P(x)$ .

We can write this condition mathematically as

$$P(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int \prod_{i=1}^t T(x_i|x_{i-1}q(x_0)) d\{x_i\}_{i=1}^t \quad (8.1)$$

Designing  $T$  so that it converges to the target distribution  $p(x)$

$$\text{Thm1. } \begin{cases} P(x') = \int T(x'|x)p(x)dx \\ T(x'|x) \text{ has only one unique stationary distribution} \end{cases}$$

Theorem 1 is a sufficient condition to check equation 8.1

$$\text{Thm2. } \begin{cases} P(x')T(x'|x) = P(x)T(x|x') \\ \text{Irreducible } (\forall x, y T(x|y), T(y|x) \geq 0) \text{ and a-periodic } (pt(x|x) \neq 0 \forall t) \end{cases}$$

Thm2. is a sufficient condition to check for thm1.

Proof to show Detailed balance (Thm2.) is sufficient to prove stationary distribution (thm1.)

**Proof:**

$$\begin{aligned} & \int T(x'|x)p(x)dx \\ &= \int T(x|x')p(x')dx \\ &= p(x') \int T(x|x')dx \\ &= p(x') * 1 \\ & p(x') = p(x') \end{aligned}$$

■

The pros of MCMC sampling is that our choice of  $q(x)$  is less restricted but the cons are that the sampled data generates is dependent.

### 8.2.3 MH - Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm

The MH algorithm is one such MCMC method. In the case of the MH algorithm,  $T(\cdot|x_{t-1})$  is as follows:

$$\begin{cases} i) & y \sim \tilde{P}(\cdot|x_{t-1}) \\ ii) & \mu \sim U[0, 1] \end{cases}$$

Accept sample if  $\mu \leq A(x, y) := \min(1, \frac{P(y)\tilde{P}(x|y)}{P(x)\tilde{P}(y|x)})$

Proof to check if MH algorithms satisfies Thm2.

**Proof:** First Condition:

$$\begin{aligned} p(x)T(y|x) &= p(x)A(x, y)\tilde{p}(y|x) = p(x)\tilde{p}(y|x) * \min(1, \frac{p(y)\tilde{p}(x|y)}{p(x)\tilde{p}(y|x)}) \\ &= \min(p(x)\tilde{p}(y|x), p(y)\tilde{p}(x|y)) = p(y)\tilde{p}(x|y) * \min(\frac{p(x)\tilde{p}(y|x)}{p(y)\tilde{p}(x|y)}, 1) = p(y)T(x|y) \end{aligned}$$

Proving the second condition is tedious, so it was not covered in class. ■

### 8.2.4 Hit and Run Algorithm

Hit and Run algorithm is a modification on the MH operator, it samples  $y$  from a normal distribution centered around the previous sample.

$$y \sim \tilde{P}(\cdot|x_{t-1}) \propto \exp(-\frac{\|x - x_{t-1}\|^2}{2\sigma^2})$$

Example 1. Given  $P(x) \propto \exp(-\|x\|^2)$ . How do we calculate  $A(x, y)$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} &= \min(1, \frac{P(y)\tilde{P}(x|y)}{P(x)\tilde{P}(y|x)}) \\ &= \exp(-\|y\|^2 + \|x\|^2) \\ &= \exp(\|x\|^2 - \|x + \epsilon\|^2) \\ &= \exp(\epsilon^2 - 2x^T \epsilon) \end{aligned}$$

(note:  $y = x + \epsilon$ )

As we can see, when  $\epsilon$  is small there is a high chance to accept the sample whereas if it is large there is a high chance to reject sample.

### 8.2.5 Gibbs Sampling

Gibbs sampling is another MCMC algorithm.

Given  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$x_t \sim T(\cdot|x_{t-1})$$

(Find permutation of  $d$ )

Repeat  $d$  times to obtain  $x_t$ :

$$y_i \sim P(x_i|x_{-i})$$

Unlike the previous algorithms, we accept every sample.  $A((x_i, x_{-i}), x_{t-1}) = 1$

**Proof:**

$$A(x, y) = \min\left(1, \frac{p(y)\tilde{p}(x|y)}{p(x)\tilde{p}(y|x)}\right)$$

Let  $z = \frac{p(y)\tilde{p}(x|y)}{p(x)\tilde{p}(y|x)}$ . Also, define  $x = \{x_1, x_{-1}\}$  and  $y = \{y_1, x_{-1}\}$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} p(y) &= p(x_{-1})p(y_1|x_{-1}) \\ p(x) &= p(x_{-1})p(x_1|x_{-1}) \\ \tilde{p}(x|y) &= \tilde{p}(x_1|x_{-1}) \\ \tilde{p}(y|x) &= \tilde{p}(y_1|x_{-1}) \\ z &= \frac{p(x_{-1}) * p(y_1|x_{-1}) * \tilde{p}(x_1|x_{-1})}{p(x_{-1}) * p(x_1|x_{-1}) * \tilde{p}(y_1|x_{-1})} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $A(x, y) = \min(1, 1) = 1$  ■