

Gibbs sampling (an MCMC method) and relations to EM

Lecture Outline

1. Gibbs

- the algorithm
- a bivariate example
- an elementary convergence proof for a (discrete) bivariate case
- more than two variables
- a counter example.

2. EM – a again (These notes will follow as a separate file.)

- EM as a maximization/maximization method
- Gibbs as a variation of Generalized EM
 - an example
- A counterexample for EM

Gibbs Sampling

We have a joint density

$$f(x, y_1, \dots, y_k)$$

and we are interested, say, in some features of the marginal density

$$f(x) = \iint \dots \int f(x, y_1, \dots, y_k) dy_1, dy_2, \dots, dy_k.$$

For instance, suppose that we are interested in the average

$$E[X] = \int x f(x) dx.$$

If we can sample from the marginal distribution, then

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = E[X]$$

without using $f(x)$ explicitly in integration. Similar reasoning applies to any other characteristic of the statistical model, i.e., of the *population*.

The Gibbs Algorithm for computing this average.

Assume we can sample the $k+1$ -many univariate conditional densities:

$$\begin{aligned} &f(X \mid y_1, \dots, y_k) \\ &f(Y_1 \mid x, y_2, \dots, y_k) \\ &f(Y_2 \mid x, y_1, y_3, \dots, y_k) \\ &\dots \\ &f(Y_k \mid x, y_1, y_3, \dots, y_{k-1}). \end{aligned}$$

Choose, arbitrarily, k initial values: $Y_1 = y_1^0, Y_2 = y_2^0, \dots, Y_k = y_k^0$.

Create:

- x^1 by a draw from $f(X \mid y_1^0, \dots, y_k^0)$
- y_1^1 by a draw from $f(Y_1 \mid x^1, y_2^0, \dots, y_k^0)$
- y_2^1 by a draw from $f(Y_2 \mid x^1, y_1^1, y_3^0, \dots, y_k^0)$
- \dots
- y_k^1 by a draw from $f(Y_k \mid x^1, y_1^1, \dots, y_{k-1}^1)$.

This constitutes one Gibbs “pass” through the $k+1$ conditional distributions,

yielding values: $(x^1, y_1^1, y_2^1, \dots, y_k^1)$.

Iterate the sampling to form the second “pass”

$$(x^2, y_1^2, y_2^2, \dots, y_k^2).$$

Theorem: (under general conditions)

The distribution of x^n converges to $F(x)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Thus, we may take the last n X -values after many Gibbs passes:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=m}^{m+n} X^i \approx E[X]$$

or take just the last value, $x_i^{n_i}$ of n -many sequences of Gibbs passes

$$(i = 1, \dots, n) \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^{n_i} \approx E[X]$$

to solve for the average, $= \int x f(x) dx$.

A bivariate example of the Gibbs Sampler.

Example: Let X and Y have similar truncated conditional exponential distributions:

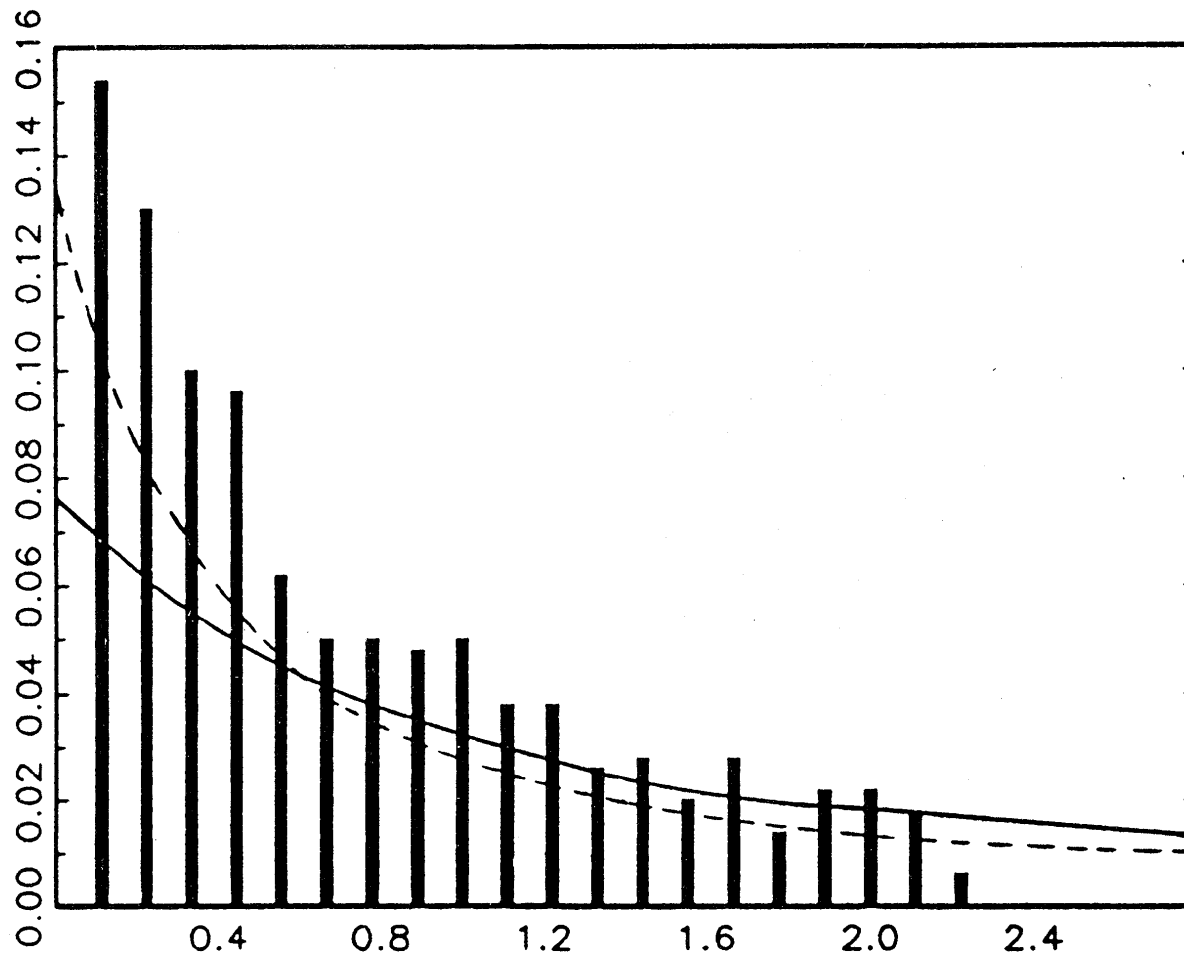
$$f(X|y) \propto ye^{-yx} \text{ for } 0 < X < \mathbf{b}$$

$$f(Y|x) \propto xe^{-xy} \text{ for } 0 < Y < \mathbf{b}$$

where \mathbf{b} is a known, positive constant.

Though it is not convenient to calculate, the marginal density $f(X)$ is readily simulated by Gibbs sampling from these (truncated) exponentials.

Below is a histogram for X , $\mathbf{b} = 5.0$, using a sample of 500 terminal observations with 15 Gibbs' passes per trial, $x_i^{n_i}$ ($i = 1, \dots, 500$, $n_i = 15$) (from Casella and George, 1992).



Histogram for X , $b = 5.0$, using a sample of 500 terminal observations with 15 Gibbs' passes per trial,

$x_i^{n_i}$ ($i = 1, \dots, 500, n_i = 15$). Taken from (Casella and George, 1992).

Here is an alternative way to compute the marginal $f(X)$ using the same Gibbs Sampler.

Recall the law of conditional expectations (assuming $E[X]$ exists):

$$E[E[X | Y]] = E[X]$$

Thus $E[f(x|Y)] = \int f(x | y)f(y)dy = f(x)$.

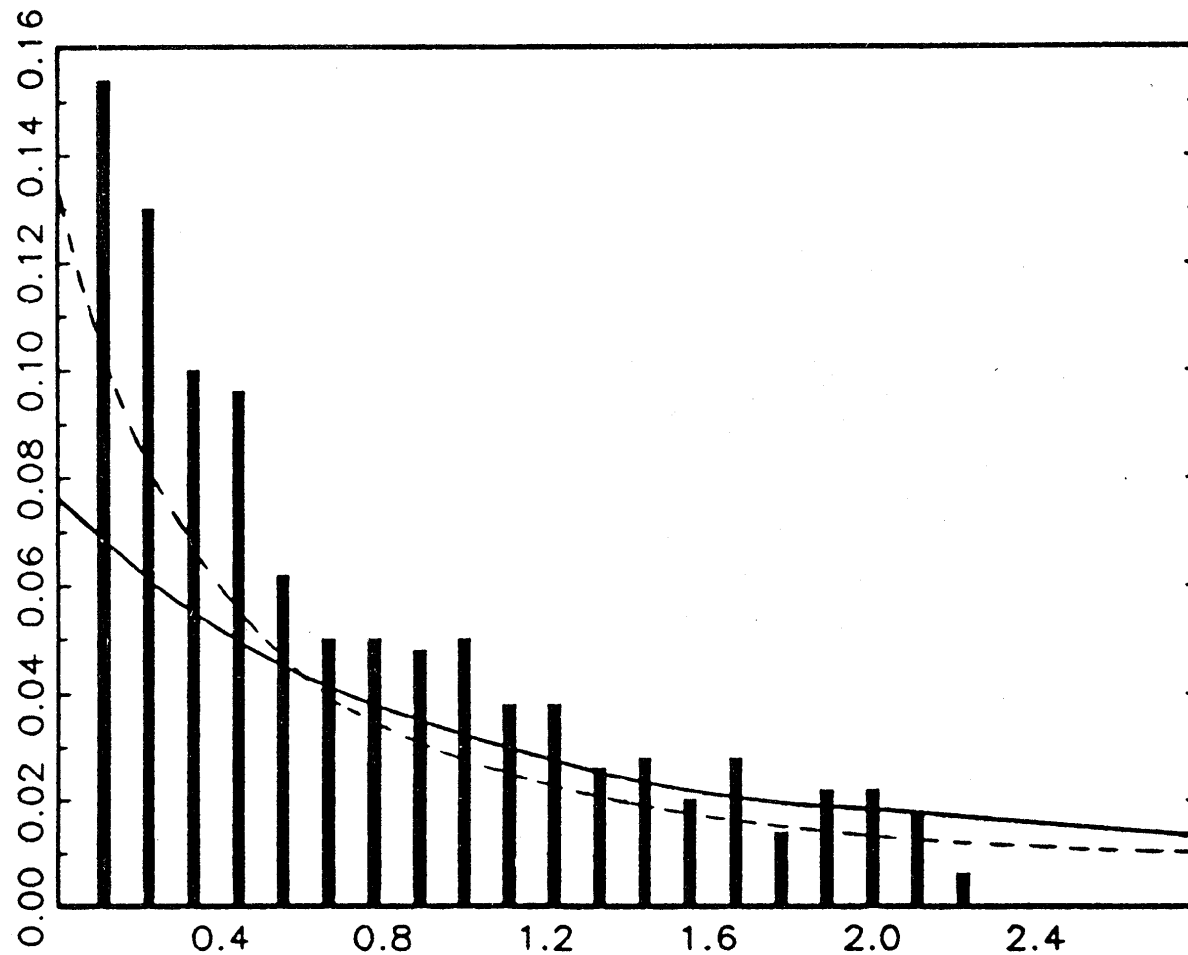
Now, use the fact that the Gibbs sampler gives us a simulation of the marginal density $f(Y)$ using the penultimate values (for Y) in each Gibbs' pass, above:

$$y_i^{n_i-1} \quad (i = 1, \dots, 500; n_i = 15).$$

Calculate $f(x | y_i^{n_i-1})$, which by assumption is feasible.

Then note that:

$$f(x) \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x | y_i^{n_i-1})$$



The **solid line** graphs the alternative Gibbs Sampler estimate of the marginal $f(x)$ from the same sequence of 500 Gibbs' passes, using $\int f(x | y)f(y)dy = f(x)$. The **dashed-line** is the exact solution. Taken from (Casella and George, 1992).

An elementary proof of convergence in the case of 2 x 2 Bernoulli data

Let (X, Y) be a bivariate variable, marginally, each is Bernoulli

$$\begin{array}{c} X \\ 0 \quad 1 \\ Y \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} p_1 & p_2 \\ p_3 & p_4 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

where $p_i > 0$, $\sum p_i = 1$, marginally

$$\mathbf{P}(X=0) = p_1 + p_3 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{P}(X=1) = p_2 + p_4$$

$$\mathbf{P}(Y=0) = p_1 + p_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{P}(Y=1) = p_3 + p_4.$$

The conditional probabilities $\mathbf{P}(X|y)$ and $\mathbf{P}(Y|x)$ are evident:

$\mathbf{P}(Y|x)$:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \mathbf{Y} \\
 \begin{array}{cc}
 0 & 1 \\
 \frac{p_1}{p_1+p_3} & \frac{p_2}{p_2+p_4} \\
 \frac{p_3}{p_1+p_3} & \frac{p_4}{p_2+p_4}
 \end{array} \\
 1
 \end{array}
 \begin{array}{c}
 \mathbf{X} \\
 \begin{array}{cc}
 0 & 1
 \end{array} \\
 \left[\begin{array}{cc}
 \frac{p_1}{p_1+p_3} & \frac{p_2}{p_2+p_4} \\
 \frac{p_3}{p_1+p_3} & \frac{p_4}{p_2+p_4}
 \end{array} \right]
 \end{array}$$

$\mathbf{P}(X|y)$:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \mathbf{Y} \\
 \begin{array}{cc}
 0 & 1 \\
 \frac{p_1}{p_1+p_2} & \frac{p_2}{p_1+p_2} \\
 \frac{p_3}{p_3+p_4} & \frac{p_4}{p_3+p_4}
 \end{array} \\
 1
 \end{array}
 \begin{array}{c}
 \mathbf{X} \\
 \begin{array}{cc}
 0 & 1
 \end{array} \\
 \left[\begin{array}{cc}
 \frac{p_1}{p_1+p_2} & \frac{p_2}{p_1+p_2} \\
 \frac{p_3}{p_3+p_4} & \frac{p_4}{p_3+p_4}
 \end{array} \right]
 \end{array}$$

Suppose (for illustration) that we want to generate the marginal distribution of X by the Gibbs Sampler, using the sequence of iterations of draws between the two conditional probabilities $\mathbf{P}(X|y)$ and $\mathbf{P}(Y|x)$.

That is, we are interested in the sequence $\langle x^i : i = 1, \dots \rangle$ created from the starting value $y^0 = 0$ or $y^0 = 1$.

Note that:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}(X^n = 0 \mid x^i : i = 1, \dots, n-1) &= \mathbf{P}(X^n = 0 \mid x^{n-1}) \text{ \textit{the Markov property}} \\ &= \mathbf{P}(X^n = 0 \mid y^{n-1} = 0) \mathbf{P}(Y^{n-1} = 0 \mid x^{n-1}) + \mathbf{P}(X^n = 0 \mid y^{n-1} = 1) \mathbf{P}(Y^{n-1} = 1 \mid x^{n-1}) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have the four (positive) transition probabilities:

$$\mathbf{P}(X^n = j | x^{n-1} = i) = p_{ij} > 0, \text{ with } \sum_i \sum_j p_{ij} = 1 \quad (i, j = 0, 1).$$

With the transition probabilities positive, it is an (old) ergodic theorem that, $\mathbf{P}(X^n)$ converges to a (unique) *stationary* distribution, independent of the starting value (y^0).

Next, we confirm the easy fact that the marginal distribution $\mathbf{P}(X)$ is that same distinguished *stationary* point of this Markov process.

$$\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{P}(X^n = 0) \\
= & \mathbf{P}(X^n = 0 | x^{n-1} = 0) \mathbf{P}(X^{n-1} = 0) + \mathbf{P}(X^n = 0 | x^{n-1} = 1) \mathbf{P}(X^{n-1} = 1) \\
= & \mathbf{P}(X^n=0 | y^{n-1}=0) \mathbf{P}(Y^{n-1}=0 | x^{n-1} = 0) \mathbf{P}(X^{n-1} = 0) \\
& + \mathbf{P}(X^n=0 | y^{n-1}=1) \mathbf{P}(Y^{n-1}=1 | x^{n-1} = 0) \mathbf{P}(X^{n-1} = 0) \\
& + \mathbf{P}(X^n=0 | y^{n-1}=0) \mathbf{P}(Y^{n-1}=0 | x^{n-1} = 1) \mathbf{P}(X^{n-1} = 1) \\
& + \mathbf{P}(X^n=0 | y^{n-1}=1) \mathbf{P}(Y^{n-1}=1 | x^{n-1} = 1) \mathbf{P}(X^{n-1} = 1) \\
= & \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{P}} [\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{P}} [X^n=0 | X^{n-1}]] \\
= & \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{P}} [X^n = 0] \\
= & \mathbf{P}(X^n = 0) .
\end{aligned}$$

The *Ergodic* Theorem:

Definitions:

- A *Markov chain*, X_0, X_1, \dots satisfies

$$\mathbf{P}(X_n | x_i: i = 1, \dots, n-1) = \mathbf{P}(X_n | x_{n-1})$$

- The distribution $F(x)$, with density $f(x)$, for a Markov chain is *stationary* (or *invariant*) if

$$\int_{\mathbf{A}} f(x) dx = \int \mathbf{P}(X_n \in \mathbf{A} | x_{n-1}) f(x) dx.$$

- The Markov chain is *irreducible* if each set with positive \mathbf{P} -probability is visited at some point (almost surely).

- An irreducible Markov chain is *recurrent* if, for each set \mathbf{A} having positive \mathbf{P} -probability, with positive \mathbf{P} -probability the chain visits \mathbf{A} infinitely often.
- A Markov chain is *periodic* if for some integer $k > 1$, there is a partition into k sets $\{\mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_k\}$ such that $\mathbf{P}(X_{n+1} \in \mathbf{A}_{j+1} \mid x_n \in \mathbf{A}_j) = 1$ for all $j = 1, \dots, k-1 \pmod{k}$. That is, the chain cycles through the partition. Otherwise, the chain is *aperiodic*.

Theorem: If the Markov chain X_0, X_1, \dots is irreducible with an invariant probability distribution $F(x)$ then:

1. the Markov chain is recurrent
2. F is the unique invariant distribution

If the chain is aperiodic, then for F -almost all x_0 , both

$$3. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{\mathbf{A}} | \mathbf{P}(X_n \in \mathbf{A} | X_0 = x_0) - \int_{\mathbf{A}} \mathbf{f}(x) dx | = 0$$

And for any function \mathbf{h} with $\int \mathbf{h}(x) dx < \infty$,

$$4. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{h}(X_i) = \int \mathbf{h}(x) \mathbf{f}(x) dx \quad (= \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}[\mathbf{h}(x)]),$$

That is, the *time average* of $\mathbf{h}(X)$ equals its *state-average*, a.e. F .

A (now-familiar) puzzle.

Example (continued): Let X and Y have similar conditional exponential distributions:

$$f(X|y) \propto ye^{-yx} \text{ for } 0 < X$$

$$f(Y|x) \propto xe^{-xy} \text{ for } 0 < Y$$

To solve for the marginal density $f(X)$ use Gibbs sampling from these exponential distributions. The resulting sequence does *not* converge!

Question: Why does this happen?

Answer: (Hint: Recall HW #1, problem 2.) Let θ be the statistical parameter for X with $f(X|\theta)$ the exponential model. What “prior” density for θ yields the *posterior* $f(\theta|x) \propto xe^{-x\theta}$?

Then, what is the “prior” expectation for X ?

Remark: Note that $W = X\theta$ is pivotal. What is its distribution?

More on this puzzle:

The conjugate prior for the parameter θ in the exponential distribution is the Gamma $\Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$.

$$f(\theta) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \theta^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta\theta} \quad \text{for } \theta, \alpha, \beta > 0,$$

Then the posterior for θ based on $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, n iid observations from the exponential distribution is

$$f(\theta|\mathbf{x}) \text{ is Gamma } \Gamma(\alpha', \beta')$$

where $\alpha' = \alpha+n$ and $\beta' = \beta + \sum x_i$.

Let $n=1$, and consider the limiting distribution as $\alpha, \beta \rightarrow 0$.

This produces the “posterior” density $f(\theta|x) \propto x e^{-x\theta}$, which is mimicked in Bayes theorem by the improper “prior” density

$f(\theta) \propto 1/\theta$. But then $E_{\mathbf{F}}(\theta)$ does not exist!

Additional References

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