The Mathematics of MCMC Algorithms

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Background / Motivation

Often have complicated, high-dimensional density functions $\pi : \mathcal{X} \to [0, \infty)$, for some $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbf{R}^d$ with d large.

(e.g. Bayesian posterior distribution)

Want to compute probabilities like:

$$\Pi(A) := \int_A \pi(x) \, dx \, ,$$

and/or expected values of functionals like:

$$\mathsf{E}_{\pi}(h) := \int_{\mathcal{X}} h(x) \, \pi(x) \, dx \, .$$

Calculus? Numerical integration? Impossible, if π is something like . . .

Typical π : Variance Components Model

State space $\mathcal{X} = (0,\infty)^2 imes \mathbf{R}^{K+1}$, so d = K+3, with

$$\pi(V, W, \mu, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_K)$$

$$= C e^{-b_1/V} V^{-a_1-1} e^{-b_2/W} W^{-a_2-1}$$

$$\times e^{-(\mu-a_3)^2/2b_3} V^{-K/2} W^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^K J_i}$$

$$\times \exp\left[-\sum_{i=1}^K (\theta_i - \mu)^2/2V - \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} (Y_{ij} - \theta_i)^2/2W\right],$$

where a_i and b_i are fixed constants (prior), and $\{Y_{ij}\}$ are the data. In the application: K = 19, so d = 22.

Integrate? Well, no problems *mathematically*, but ...

High-dimensional! Complicated! How to compute?

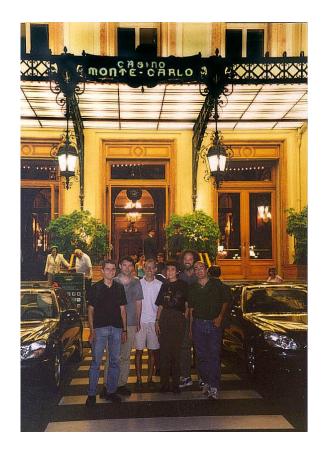
Try Monte Carlo!

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Monte Carlo, Monaco

Nice Place for a Conference!



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Estimation from sampling: Monte Carlo

Can try to sample from π , i.e. generate on a computer

$$X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_M \sim \pi$$
 (i.i.d.)

(meaning that $\mathbf{P}(X_i \in A) = \int_A \pi(x) \, dx$).

Then can estimate by e.g.

$$\mathbf{E}_{\pi}(h) \approx \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} h(X_i).$$

(Like taking an opinion poll. As $M \to \infty$, the estimate gets more and more accurate. Just like how the gambling house always wins.) Good. But how to sample from π ? Often infeasible! (e.g. above example!) Instead ...

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Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

Given a complicated, high-dimensional <u>target distribution</u> $\pi(\cdot)$:

Find an ergodic <u>Markov chain</u> (random process) X_0, X_1, X_2, \ldots , which is <u>easy</u> to run on a computer, and which <u>converges</u> in distribution to π as $n \to \infty$.

Then for "large enough" B, $\mathcal{L}(X_B) \approx \pi$, so X_B , X_{B+1} , ... are approximate samples from π , and e.g.

$$\mathbf{E}_{\pi}(h) ~\approx~ rac{1}{M} \sum_{i=B+1}^{B+M} h(X_i), ~~ ext{etc.}$$

Extremely popular: Bayesian inference, computer science, statistical genetics, statistical physics, finance, ...

But how to create such a Markov chain?

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Ex.: Random-Walk Metropolis Algorithm (1953)

This algorithm defines the chain X_0, X_1, X_2, \ldots as follows.

Given X_{n-1} :

- <u>Propose</u> a new state $Y_n \sim Q(X_{n-1}, \cdot)$, e.g. $Y_n \sim N(X_{n-1}, \Sigma_p)$.
- Let $\alpha = \min\left[1, \frac{\pi(Y_n)}{\pi(X_{n-1})}\right]$.
- With probability α , <u>accept</u> the proposal (set $X_n = Y_n$).
- Else, with prob. 1α , reject the proposal (set $X_n = X_{n-1}$).

Try it: [APPLET] Converges to π !

Why? α is chosen just right so this Markov chain is reversible with respect to π , i.e. $\pi(dx) P(x, dy) = \pi(dy) P(y, dx)$. Hence, π is a stationary distribution.

Also, chain will be <u>aperiodic</u> and (usually) <u>irreducible</u>. So, it converges by general Markov chain theory.

More complicated example?

Example: Particle Systems

Suppose have *n* independent particles, each uniform on a region. What is, say, the average "diameter" (maximal distance)? Sample and see! [pointproc.java] Works! Monte Carlo!

Now suppose instead that the particles are <u>not</u> independent, but rather <u>interact</u> with each other, with the configuration probability proportional to e^{-H} , where H is an <u>energy function</u>, e.g.

$$H = \sum_{i < j} A |(x_i, y_i) - (x_j, y_j)| + \sum_{i < j} \frac{B}{|(x_i, y_i) - (x_j, y_j)|} + \sum_i C x_i$$

A large: particles like to be <u>close together</u>.

B large: particles like to be <u>far apart</u>.

C large: particles like to be <u>towards the left</u>.

Can't directly sample, but can use Metropolis! [pointproc.java]

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Okay, but Where's the Math?

MCMC's greatest successes have been in ... applications!

- Medical Statistics
- Statistical Genetics
- Bayesian Inference
- Chemical Physics
- Computer Science
- Mathematical Finance

So, what is MCMC mathematical theory good for?

- Informs and justifies the basic algorithms.
- Suggests new modifications of the algorithms.
- Determines which algorithm choices are best.
- Develops new MCMC directions (e.g. adaptive MCMC).

I'll discuss various Mathematical Research Questions (MRQ).

MRQ#1: How to Optimise MCMC Choices?

The theorem says that we can use essentially <u>any</u> update rules, as long as they leave π stationary.

• <u>Any</u> symmetric proposal distribution *Q*. (Choices!)

• <u>Non</u>-symmetric proposals, with a suitably modified acceptance probability. ("Metropolis-Hastings") (e.g. Independent, Langevin)

- Update one coordinate at a time. ("Componentwise")
- Update from full conditional distributions. ("Gibbs Sampler")

So what choice works <u>best</u>? e.g. What γ in [APPLET]?

• If γ too small (say, $\gamma=1),$ then usually accept, but move very slowly. (Bad.)

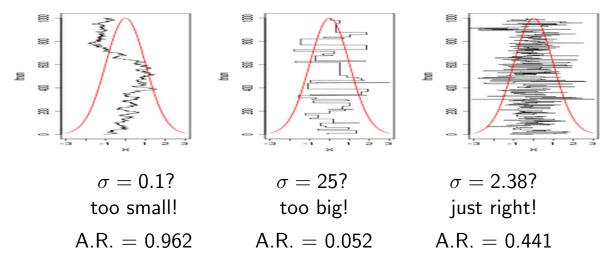
• If γ too large (say, $\gamma = 50$), then usually $\pi(Y_{n+1}) = 0$, i.e. hardly ever accept. (Bad.)

• Best γ is <u>between</u> the two extremes, i.e. acceptance rate should be far from 0 <u>and</u> far from 1. ("Goldilocks Principle")

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Example: Metropolis for N(0,1)

Target $\pi = N(0, 1)$. Proposal $Q(x, \cdot) = N(x, \sigma^2)$. How to choose σ ? Big? Small? What acceptance rate (A.R.)?

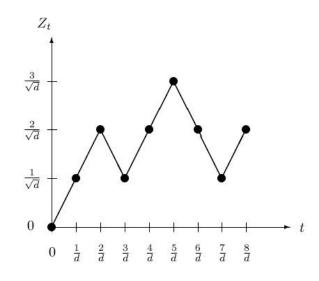


The Goldilocks Principle in action!

What about higher-dimensional examples? If d increases, then σ should: decrease. But how quickly? On what scale? Theory?

Theoretical Progress: Diffusion Limits

<u>Recall</u>: if $\{X_n\}$ is simple random walk, and $Z_t = d^{-1/2}X_{dt}$ (i.e., we speed up time, and shrink space), then as $d \to \infty$, the process $\{Z_t\}$ converges to Brownian motion (i.e., a diffusion).



Do similar limits hold for a Metropolis algorithm, in dimension d, as $d \rightarrow \infty$? Yes!

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Diffusion Limits for the Metropolis Algorithm

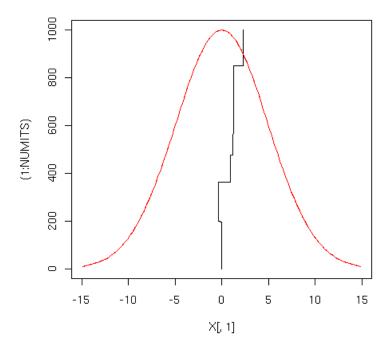
<u>Theorem</u> [Roberts, Gelman, Gilks, AAP 1997]: If $\{X_n\}$ is a Metropolis algorithm in dimension d, as $d \to \infty$, with $Q(x, \cdot) = N(x, \frac{\ell^2}{d}I_d)$, then if $Z_t = d^{-1/2}X^{(1)}_{\lfloor dt \rfloor}$, then under "certain conditions", the process $\{Z_t\}$ converges to a <u>diffusion</u>, whose speed $h(\ell)$ is <u>explicitly</u> related to its asymptotic acceptance rate $A(\ell)$.

- So, to optimize the algorithm, we should maximize $h(\ell)$.
- The maximization gives: $\ell_{opt} \doteq 2.38/C_{\pi}$. (unknown)
- Then we compute that: $A(\ell_{opt}) \doteq 0.234$. (explicit!)

So, for $Q(x, \cdot) = N(x, \sigma^2 I_d)$, it is <u>optimal</u> to choose a scaling σ^2 which corresponds to an optimal acceptance rate of 0.234.

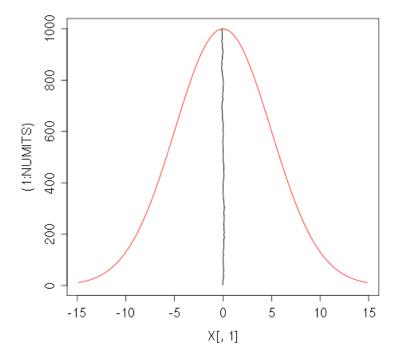
 Clear, simple "0.234" rule. Good! Useful! (Used in BUGS!)
 Later generalizations to Langevin diffusions, other targets, etc. (Roberts & R., JRSSB 1998, Stat Sci 2001; Bédard, AAP 2007; Bédard & R., CJS 2008; Sherlock, JAP 2013; Stuart et al.; ...)
 What about further optimality, beyond "0.234"? (14/41) **Example:** $\pi = N(0, \Sigma)$ in dimension 20

First try: $Q(x, \cdot) = N(x, I_{20})$ (A.R. = 0.006)



Horrible: $\Sigma_{11} = 24.54$, $E(X_1^2) = 1.50$. Need smaller proposal! (15/41)

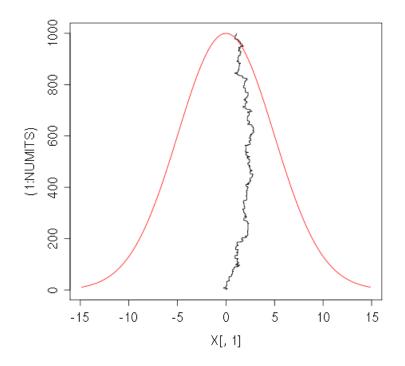
Second try: $Q(x, \cdot) = N(x, (0.0001)^2 I_{20})$ (A.R.=0.9996)



Also horrible: $\Sigma_{11} = 24.54$, $E(X_1^2) = 0.0053$. Need bigger proposal!

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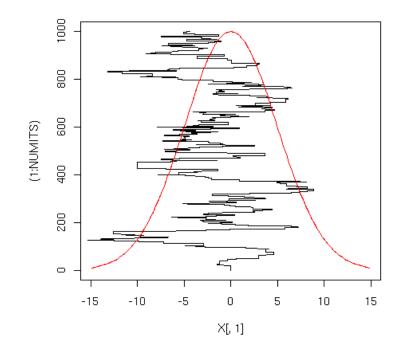
Third try:
$$Q(x, \cdot) = N(x, (0.02)^2 I_{20})$$
 (A.R.=0.234)



Still terrible: $\Sigma_{11} = 24.54$, $E(X_1^2) = 3.63$. But acceptance rate is "just right". What gives?

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Fourth try: $Q(x, \cdot) = N(x, [(2.38)^2/20]\Sigma)$ (A.R.=0.263)



Much better: $\Sigma_{11} = 24.54$, $E(X_1^2) = 25.82$. Not perfect, but fairly good. Why?

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Theory about the Proposal Covariance (Shape)

Theorem [Roberts and R., Stat Sci 2001]:

Under "certain conditions" on π , the optimal Metropolis algorithm Gaussian proposal distribution as $d \to \infty$ is:

$$Q(x, \cdot) = N(x, ((2.38)^2/d)\Sigma)$$

<u>not</u> $N(x, \sigma^2 I_d)$, where Σ is target covariance.

The corresponding asymptotic acceptance rate is again 0.234.

• And, this turns out to be <u>nearly</u> optimal for many other high-dimensional densities, too.

This gives very useful advice \dots if Σ is known! But what if the target covariance Σ is unknown? Can we make use of this optimality result anyway? (Adaptive MCMC – later.) But first \dots

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MRQ#2: Quantitative Convergence Bounds?

What about <u>quantitative</u> bounds, i.e. a specific number n_* such that, say, $\mathbf{P}(X_{n_*} \in A) - \pi(A) | < 0.01 \quad \forall A$? (Not just "as $n \to \infty$ ".)

One method: <u>coupling</u>. (Other methods: drifts, eigenvalues, ...)

Consider two chain copies, $\{X_n\}$ and $\{X'_n\}$.

Assume that $X'_0 \sim \pi$ (so $X'_n \sim \pi \ \forall n$).

If can "make" the two copies become equal for $n \ge T$, while respecting their marginal update probabilities, then $X_n \approx \pi$ too.

Specifically, the <u>coupling inequality</u> says:

$$|\mathbf{P}(X_n \in A) - \pi(A)| \equiv |\mathbf{P}(X_n \in A) - \mathbf{P}(X'_n \in A)| \leq \mathbf{P}(T > n).$$

But how to apply this to a complicated MCMC algorithm?

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Quantitative Bounds: Minorisation

Simplest version:

Suppose there is $\epsilon > 0$, and a probability measure ν , such that $P(x, y) \ge \epsilon \nu(y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$.

This "minorisation condition" gives an ϵ -sized "overlap" between the transition distributions $P(x, \cdot)$ and $P(x', \cdot)$.

That means at each iteration, we can give the two copies probability ϵ of becoming equal. Hence, $\mathbf{P}(T > n) = (1 - \epsilon)^n$.

Therefore, $|\mathbf{P}(X_n \in A) - \pi(A)| \leq (1 - \epsilon)^n$, $\forall A$.

e.g. [APPLET], with $\gamma = 3$ (say): check that $P(x, y) \ge \epsilon \nu(y)$ for all x, y, where $\epsilon = 0.2$, and $\nu(3) = \nu(4) = 1/2$.

- So $|P^n(x,A) \pi(A)| \le (1-\epsilon)^n = (1-0.2)^n = (0.8)^n$.
- Hence, $|P^n(x, A) \pi(A)| < 0.01$ whenever $n \ge 21$.
- "The chain converges in 21 iterations." Good!

What about a harder example??

Example: Baseball Data Model

Hierarchical model for baseball hitting percentages (J. Liu): observed hitting percentages satisfy $Y_i \sim N(\theta_i, c)$ for $1 \le i \le K$, where $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_k \sim N(\mu, V)$, *c* is empirically estimated, with $\mu, V, \theta_1, \ldots, \theta_K$ to be estimated. Priors: $\mu \sim \text{flat}, V \sim IG(a, b)$.

Diagram:

For our data, K = 18, so d = 20.

High dimensional! How to estimate?

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Baseball Data Model (cont'd)

MCMC solution: Run a <u>Gibbs sampler</u> for π . Markov chain is $X_k = (A^{(k)}, \mu^{(k)}, \theta_1^{(k)}, \dots, \theta_K^{(k)})$, updated by:

$$A^{(n)} \sim IG\left(a + \frac{K-1}{2}, b + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i}(\theta_{i}^{(n-1)} - \overline{\theta}^{(n-1)})^{2}\right);$$
$$\mu^{(n)} \sim N(\overline{\theta}^{(n-1)}, A^{(n)}/K);$$
$$\theta_{i}^{(n)} \sim N\left(\frac{\mu^{(n)}V + Y_{i}A^{(n)}}{V + A^{(n)}}, \frac{A^{(n)}V}{V + A^{(n)}}\right) (1 \le i \le K);$$

where $\overline{\theta}^{(n)} = \frac{1}{K} \sum \theta_i^{(n)}$. Recall that K = 18, so d = 20.

Complicated! How to analyze convergence?

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Example: Baseball Data Model (cont'd)

Here we can find a minorisation $P(x, y) \ge \epsilon \nu(y)$, but only when $x \in C$ for a subset $C \subseteq \mathcal{X}$.

But also have a "drift condition" $\mathbf{E}[f(X_1) | X_0 = x] \leq \lambda f(x) + \Lambda$, for some $\lambda < 1$ and $\Lambda < \infty$, where $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} (\theta_i - \overline{Y})^2$; this "forces" returns to C.

Can compute (R., Stat & Comput. 1996):

- a drift condition towards $C = \left\{ \sum_{i} (\theta_i \overline{Y})^2 \le 1 \right\}$, with $\lambda = 0.000289$ and $\Lambda = 0.161$;
 - a minorization with $\epsilon = 0.0656$, at least for $x \in C \subseteq \mathcal{X}$.

Then can use coupling to prove (R., JASA 1995) that

$$|\mathbf{P}(X_n \in A) - \pi(A)| \le (0.967)^n + (1.17)(0.935)^n, \quad n \in \mathbf{N},$$

so e.g. $|\mathbf{P}(X_n \in A) - \pi(A)| < 0.01$ if $n \ge 140$.

Realistic models/bounds!

(cf. Jones & Hobert, Stat Sci 2001)

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MRQ#3: Qualitative Convergence Bounds

Quantitative bounds too tricky for everyday use ... what else?

DEFN: Say the chain is geometrically ergodic if

 $\sup_{A} |\mathbf{P}(X_n \in A) - \pi(A)| \leq B_x \rho^n, \qquad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

for some $\rho < 1$, where $B_x < \infty$ for π -a.e. $x = X_0$.

i.e., convergence is exponentially quick (at <u>some</u> exponential rate).

This property always holds on finite state spaces.

• (e.g. must hold for [APPLET] example)

But on <u>unbounded</u> state spaces, it may or may not hold.

It says <u>something</u> about quick convergence (good).

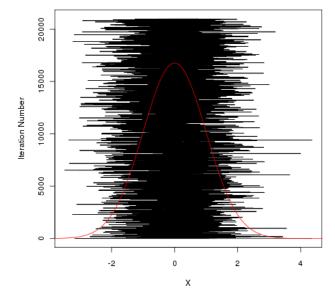
But not too much, since ρ and B_{χ} are unspecified (bad).

Easier. But does this qualitative property actually matter??

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Example: Metropolis for N(0,1), again

Run random-walk Metropolis algorithm for $\pi = N(0, 1)$, with $Q(x, \cdot) = N(x, \sigma^2)$, where σ is chosen to make A.R. $\doteq 0.234$.

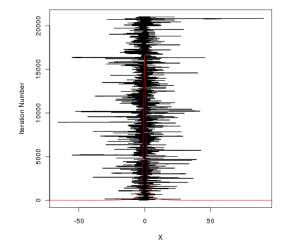


 $P(|X| > 2) \doteq 0.0455$; estimate = 0.0453. Great!

Does it always work so well?

Example: Metropolis for Cauchy

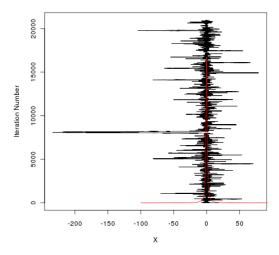
Random-walk Metropolis for $\pi(x) = \frac{c}{1+x^2}$ (Cauchy), with $Q(x, \cdot) = N(x, \sigma^2)$, with σ again chosen to make A.R. $\doteq 0.234$. Much worse!



 $P(|X| > 10) \doteq 0.0635$; estimate = 0.0469. Way too small!

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Example: Metropolis for Cauchy, second try



 $P(|X| > 10) \doteq 0.0635$; estimate = 0.0746. Way too big!

• So, MCMC is performing very badly here. Why??

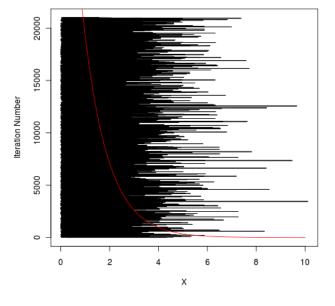
<u>Theorem</u> (Mengersen-Tweedie-Roberts, 1996): Metropolis is geometrically ergodic <u>iff</u> $\pi(\cdot)$ has exponentially-small tails. N(0,1): yes. Cauchy: no. Makes a big difference!

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MRQ#4: Case Study – Independence sampler

Consider Metropolis-Hastings where $\pi(x) = e^{-x}$, and proposals are chosen i.i.d. $\sim \text{Exp}(k)$ with density ke^{-ky} , for some k > 0.

• k = 1 (i.i.d. sampling)

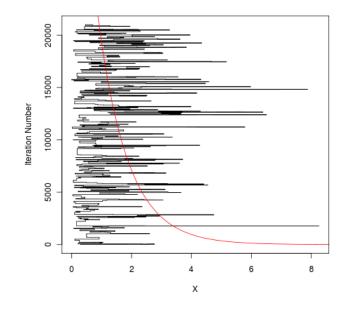


 $\mathbf{E}(X) = 1$; estimate = 1.001. Excellent! Other k?



Independence sampler (cont'd)

•
$$k = 0.01$$

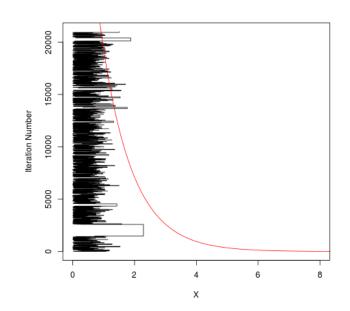


 $\mathbf{E}(X) = 1$; estimate = 0.993. Quite good.

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Independence sampler (cont'd)

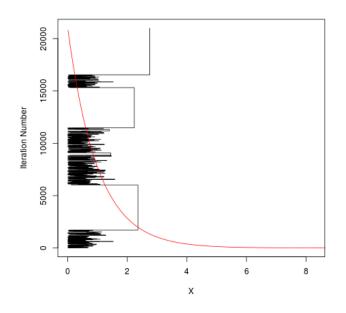




 $\mathbf{E}(X) = 1$; estimate = 0.687. Terrible: way too small! What happened? Maybe we just got unlucky? Try again!

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• Another try with k = 5:



 $\mathbf{E}(X) = 1$; estimate = 1.696. Terrible: way too big!

In fact, we can prove (Roberts and R., MCAP, 2011) that with k = 5, the chain takes between 4,000,000 and 14,000,000 iterations to converge to within 0.01 of π ! But why??

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Independence Sampler: Theory

What's going on in this example?

Why is k = 0.01 pretty good, and k = 5 so terrible?

<u>Theorem</u> [Mengersen & Tweedie, Ann Stat 1996]: Independence samplers are geometrically ergodic if and only if there is $\delta > 0$ for which $Q(x) \ge \delta \pi(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$.

If there is, then $|P^n(x,A) - \pi(A)| \leq (1-\delta)^n$. (Quantitative!)

In above example, $\pi(x) = e^{-x}$ and $Q(x) = ke^{-kx}$, so:

• k = 1: yes, $\delta = 1$; converges <u>immediately</u> (of course).

• k = 0.01: yes, $\delta = 0.01$; and $(1 - 0.01)^{459} < 0.01$, so the chain "converges within 459 iterations". (Pretty good.)

• k = 5: no such δ . <u>Not</u> geometrically ergodic. (Bad.)

So, geometric ergodicity makes a big difference!

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MRQ#5: Validity of Adaptive MCMC?

Recall:

- MCMC is really really really important.
- Some MCMC algorithms converge <u>much faster</u> than others.
- Can find optimality results from diffusion limits.

• e.g. Gaussian Random-Walk Metropolis: optimal choice has acceptance rate around 0.234 (how?), and proposal covariance $(2.38)^2 d^{-1} \Sigma_t$ where Σ_t is the target covariance (unknown).

• So, we have guidance about optimising MCMC in terms of acceptance rate, target covariance matrix Σ_t , etc.

• But we don't <u>know</u> what proposal will lead to a desired acceptance rate, nor how to compute Σ_t .

• What to do? Trial and error? (difficult, especially in high dimension) Or ...

Adaptive MCMC

• Suppose have a family $\{P_{\gamma}\}_{\gamma \in \mathcal{Y}}$ of possible Markov chains, each with stationary distribution π .

- How to <u>choose</u> among them?
- Let the computer decide, on the fly!

• At iteration *n*, use Markov chain P_{Γ_n} , where $\Gamma_n \in \mathcal{Y}$ chosen according to some adaptive rules (depending on history, etc.).

• Simple example: [APPLET]

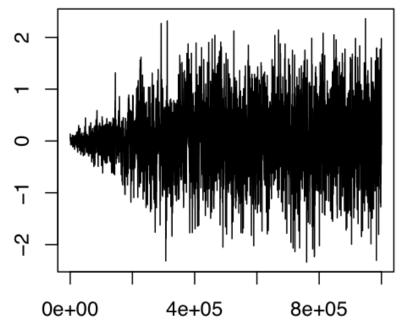
• e.g. Estimate true target covariance Σ_t by the empirical estimate, Σ_n , based on the observations so far (X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) .

• Can this help us to find better Markov chains? (Yes!)

• On the other hand, the Markov property, stationarity, etc. are all <u>destroyed</u> by using an adaptive scheme.

• Is the resulting algorithm still ergodic? (Sometimes!)

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Example: 100-Dimensional Adaptive Metropolis

Plot of first coord. Takes about 300,000 iterations, then "finds" good proposal covariance and starts mixing well. Good!

• Similarly Adaptive Componentwise Metropolis, Gibbs, etc.

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But What About the Theory?

• So, adaptive MCMC seems to work well in practice.

• But will it be ergodic, i.e. converge to π ? (Converge at <u>all</u> ... never mind how <u>quickly</u> ...)

• Ordinary MCMC algorithms, with fixed choice γ , are automatically ergodic by standard Markov chain theory (since they're irreducible and aperiodic and leave π stationary). But adaptive algorithms are more subtle, since the Markov property and stationarity are destroyed by using an adaptive scheme.

• e.g. if the adaption of Γ_n is such that P_{Γ_n} usually moves <u>slower</u> when x is in a certain subset $\mathcal{X}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{X}$, then the algorithm will tend to spend much <u>more</u> than $\pi(\mathcal{X}_0)$ of the time inside \mathcal{X}_0 , even if each update on its own preserves stationarity. [APPLET]

• Some previous results, but they require limiting / hard-to-verify conditions, like bounded state space, or existence of simultaneous geometric drift conditions, or Doeblin condition, or ...

• Need more general, easily-verified theorems ...

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One Particular Convergence Theorem

• Theorem [Roberts and R., J.A.P. 2007]: Adaptive MCMC will converge, i.e. $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sup_{A\subseteq \mathcal{X}} \|\mathbf{P}(X_n \in A) - \pi(A)\| = 0$, if:

(a) [Diminishing Adaptation] Adapt less and less as the algorithm proceeds. Formally, $\sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \|P_{\Gamma_{n+1}}(x, \cdot) - P_{\Gamma_n}(x, \cdot)\| \to 0$ in prob. [Can always be <u>made</u> to hold, since adaption is user controlled.]

(b) [Containment] Times to stationary from X_n , if fix $\gamma = \Gamma_n$, remain bounded in probability as $n \to \infty$. [Technical condition, to avoid "escape to infinity". Holds if e.g. \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} <u>finite</u>, or <u>compact</u>, or ... And always <u>seems</u> to hold in practice.]

(Also guarantees WLLN for bounded functionals. Various other results about LLN / CLT under stronger assumptions.)

Good, but ... Containment condition is a pain.

Can we eliminate it?

What about that "Containment" Condition?

• <u>Recall</u>: adaptive MCMC is ergodic if it satisfied Diminishing Adaptation (easy: user-controlled) and Containment (technical).

• Is Containment just an annoying artifact of the proof? No!

• Theorem (Latuszynski and R., 2014): If an adaptive algorithm does <u>not</u> satisfy Containment, then for all $\epsilon > 0$,

 $\lim_{K\to\infty} \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbf{P}(M_{\epsilon}(X_n,\gamma_n) > K) > 0,$

where $M_{\epsilon}(x, \gamma) = \inf\{n \ge 1 : \|P_{\gamma}^{n}(x, \cdot) - \pi(\cdot)\| < \epsilon\}$ is the time to converge to within ϵ of stationarity.

That is, an adaptive algorithm <u>without</u> Containment will take <u>arbitrarily large</u> numbers of steps (K) to converge. Bad!

- Conclusion: Yay Containment!?!?
- But how to verify it??

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Verifying Containment: "For Everyone"

• Proved general theorems about stability of "adversarial" Markov chains under various conditions (Craiu, Gray, Latuszynski, Madras, Roberts, and R., A.A.P. 2015).

• Then applied them to adaptive MCMC, to get a list of directly-verifiable conditions which guarantee Containment:

- \Rightarrow Never move more than some (big) distance D.
- \Rightarrow Outside (big) rectangle K, use <u>fixed</u> kernel (no adapting).

 \Rightarrow The transition or proposal kernels have <u>continuous</u> densities wrt Lebesgue measure. (or <u>piecewise continuous</u>: Yang & R. 2015)

⇒ The fixed kernel is bounded, above and below (on compact regions, for jumps $\leq \delta$), by constants times Lebesgue measure. (Easily verified under continuity assumptions.)

- Can directly verify these conditions in practice.
- So, this can be used by applied MCMC users.
- "Adaptive MCMC for everyone!"

Summary

- MCMC has tremendous application to many areas.
- MCMC <u>mathematical theory</u> plays a crucial supporting role.

• Theory can help <u>verify</u> and <u>extend</u> the algorithms, <u>optimise</u> proposal scaling / shape, bound <u>convergence times</u> with minorization conditions etc., show <u>geometric ergodicity</u>, and more.

• Theory also allows for <u>adaption</u> (if done carefully), to get the computer to "learn" good MCMC algorithms and run faster.

• Adaptive MCMC works very well, even in high-dimensional examples (good). But it must be done carefully, or it will destroy stationarity (bad). Suffices to have stationarity of each P_{γ} , plus Diminishing Adaptation (important), and Containment (technical condition, usually satisfied, necessary). "Adversarial Markov chain" theorems provide simple sufficient conditions.

• All my papers, applets, software: www.probability.ca

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