
Algorithmische Bioinformatik II

WS2004/05

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Part III

Probabilistic Modeling IV

Bayesian Modeling: Algorithms, EM and MC Methods

HMMs

Markov Chain Monte Carlo Methods (MCMC)

- The rejection method is not very useful in high-dimensional problems as it is difficult to find a good bounding g-function
- MCMC is a class of algorithms for simulating random variables from a target distribution $\pi(\mathbf{x})$, given up to a normalizing constant
- This allows to draw from a high dimensional joint posterior distribution without knowing its denominator:

$$p(\theta, y_{mis} | y_{obs}) = \frac{p(y_{obs}, y_{mis} | \theta) f_0(\theta)}{\int \int p(y_{obs}, y'_{mis} | \theta') f_0(\theta') dy'_{mis} d\theta'}$$

- **Idea:** Design and simulate a **Markov chain** with equilibrium distribution $\pi(\mathbf{x})$
- There are two common methods for constructing such chains:
 - Metropolis-Hastings (variant: Simulated Annealing)
 - Gibbs Sampler

Markov Chains

Definition: A Markov chain is a series of random variables X^0, X^1, \dots , where the influence of X^1, \dots, X^n on the distribution of X^{n+1} is only mediated by X^n

$$P(x^{n+1} | x^n, \{x^t | t \in \mathcal{E}\}) = P(x^{n+1} | x^n)$$

for any subset $\mathcal{E} \subset \{0, \dots, n - 1\}$

t: successive times

X^t have a common range, the state space of the Markov chain

Markov Chains

A Markov chain can completely be specified by

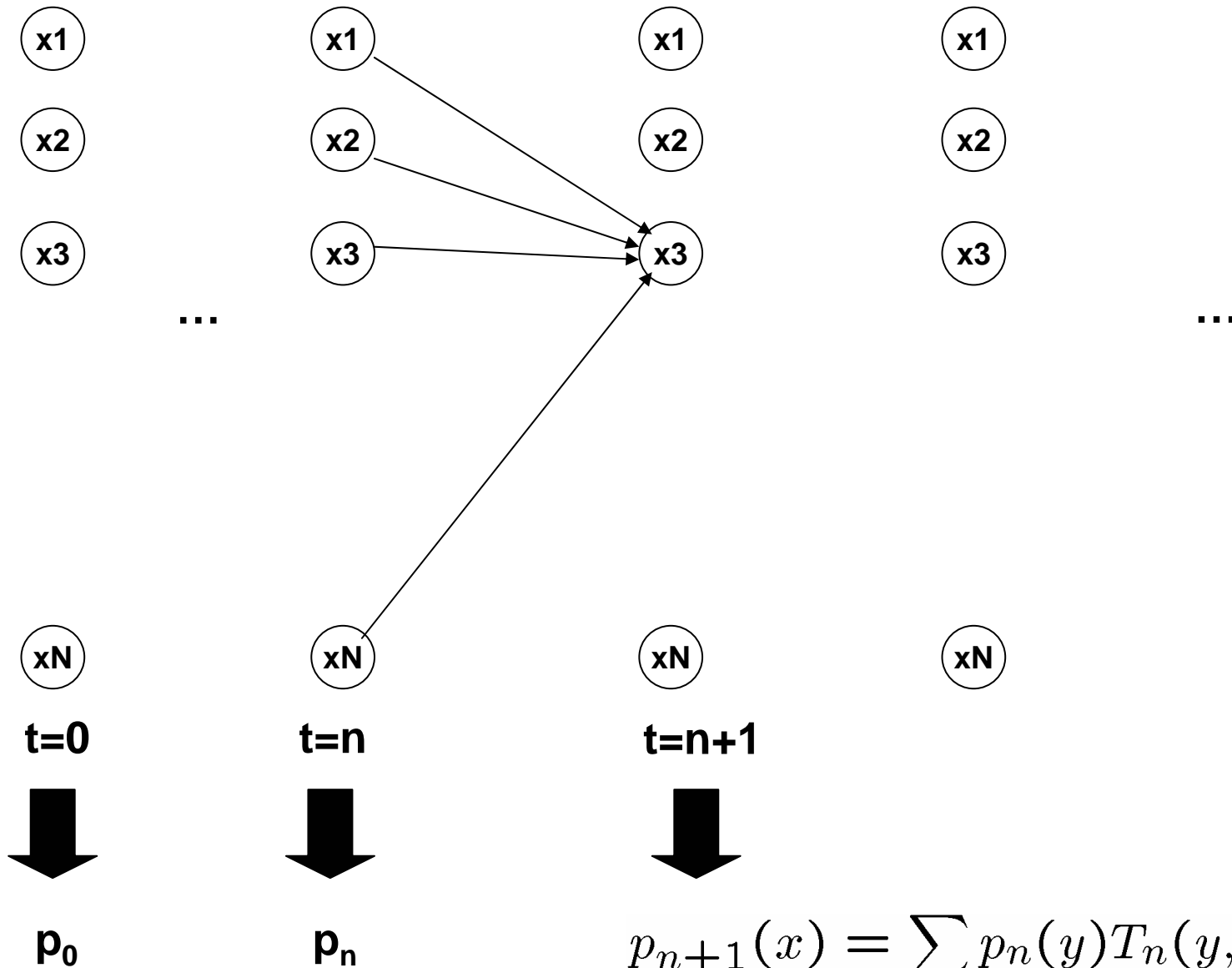
1. the initial probabilities p_0 for X^0 and
2. the transition probability $T_n(x, x')$ for state x' at time $n + 1$ to follow state x at time n

i.e., the probability of a state x at time $n + 1$ is:

$$p_{n+1}(x) = \sum_y p_n(y) T_n(y, x)$$

This determines the chain for all times!

Markov chains



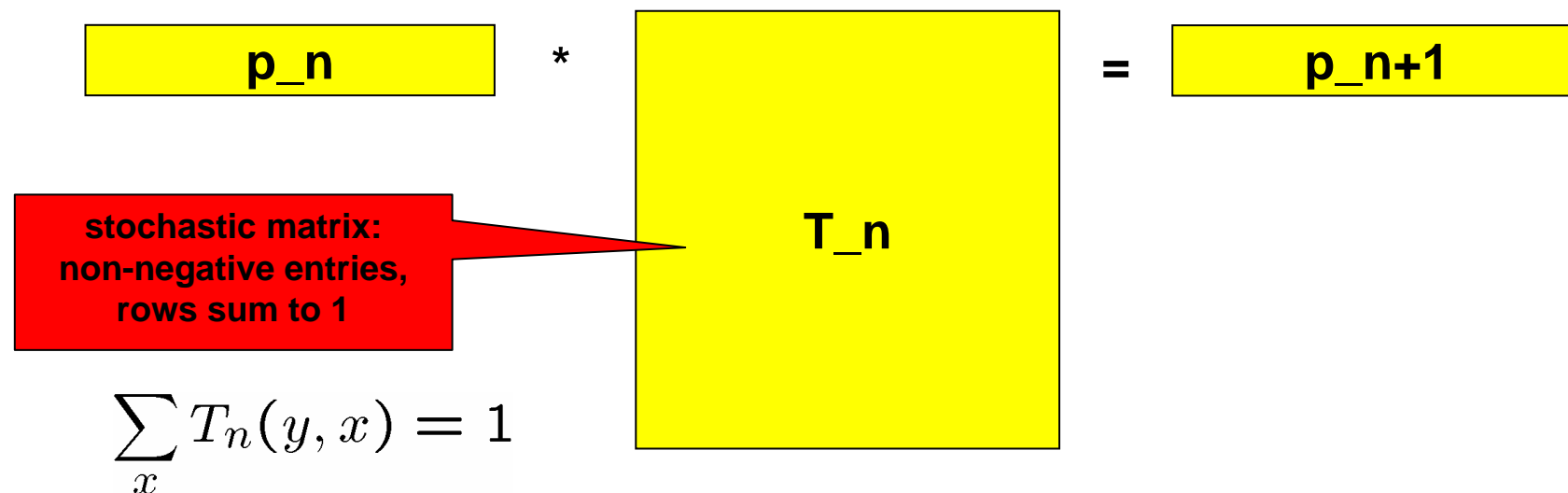
Stationary Markov Chains

Definition:

A Markov chain is *homogeneous* or *stationary*

$:\Leftrightarrow \forall_n : T_n = T$

$$P_{n+1}(x) = \sum_y p_n(y) T_n(y, x)$$



$$p_n = p_0 T_0 T_1 T_2 \dots T_{n-1} \quad p_n = p_0 T^n$$

Invariant distributions of a Markov Chain

The distribution π is invariant with respect to the Markov chain with transition probabilities T_i iff for all n

$$\forall x : \pi(x) = \sum_y \pi(y) T_n(y, x)$$

π persists forever once it is reached!

$$\forall n : \pi = \pi T_n$$

π invariant of a stationary Markov chain with T iff

$$\pi = \pi T$$

Invariant distributions of a Markov Chain

- A Markov chain can have more than one invariant distribution
- Example ?
- If $T=I$ (identity matrix)
- ... then any distribution is invariant !
- A finite Markov chain always has at least one invariant distribution
- Goal: Construct a Markov chain for which the target distribution to be sampled is invariant

Detailed balance

- A time reversible homogeneous Markov chain satisfies the **detailed balance condition** : \Leftrightarrow for all x, y

$$\pi(x)T(x, y) = \pi(y)T(y, x)$$

- i.e. a transition occurs from a state picked according to probability π , then the probability of that transition from state x to state y is the same as from state y to x
- Detailed balance implies that π is an invariant distribution

$$\sum_x \pi(x)T(x, y) = \sum_x \pi(y)T(y, x) = \pi(y) \underbrace{\left(\sum_x T(y, x) \right)}_{=1} = \pi(y)$$

Detailed balance

- **Example: states = {0,1,2}, $T(0,1) = T(1,2) = T(2,0) = 1$**
- **The uniform distribution $(1/3, 1/3, 1/3)$ is**

– **invariant** $\pi = \pi T$

$$(1/3, 1/3, 1/3) * \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = (1/3, 1/3, 1/3)$$

– **but detailed balance:**

$$\pi(0)T(0, 1) = 1/3 * 1 \neq \pi(1)T(1, 0) = 1/3 * 0$$

– **does **not** hold**

Ergodic Markov Chains

- **Invariant distributions** are not enough
- For sampling we require that the invariant distribution is reached and is unique independent from the initial probabilities
- A Markov chain is *ergodic* iff the probabilities p_n (for $n \rightarrow \infty$) converge to the invariant distribution (then called the *equilibrium distribution*)
- Some Markov chains "converge" against a cycle of distributions (and therefore are not ergodic according to the above definition)

Ergodic Markov Chains: Fundamental Theorem

FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM. *If a homogeneous Markov chain on a finite state space with transition probabilities $T(x, x')$ has π as an invariant distribution and*

$$\nu = \min_x \min_{x': \pi(x') > 0} T(x, x') / \pi(x') > 0 \quad (3.12)$$

then the Markov chain is ergodic, i.e., regardless of the initial probabilities, $p_0(x)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n(x) = \pi(x) \quad (3.13)$$

for all x . A bound on the rate of convergence is given by

$$|\pi(x) - p_n(x)| \leq (1 - \nu)^n \quad (3.14)$$

Furthermore, if $a(x)$ is any real-valued function of the state, then the expectation of a with respect to the distribution p_n , written $E_n[a]$, converges to its expectation with respect to π , written $\langle a \rangle$, with

$$|\langle a \rangle - E_n[a]| \leq (1 - \nu)^n \max_{x, x'} |a(x) - a(x')| \quad (3.15)$$

Ergodic Markov Chains: Proof of the Fundamental Theorem

$$p_n(x) = [1 - (1 - \nu)^n] \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^n r_n(x) \quad (3.16)$$

r_n is a valid probability distribution

$\nu \leq 1$, since we cannot have: $\pi(x') < T(x, x')$ for all x'

3.16 is true for $n=0$: just set $r_0(x) = p_0(x)$

$$p_{\bar{n}+1}(x) = \sum_{\tilde{x}} p_{\bar{n}}(\tilde{x}) T(\tilde{x}, x) \quad \text{transition probability of MC} \quad (3.17)$$

$$\text{3.16} = [1 - (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}}] \sum_{\tilde{x}} \pi(\tilde{x}) T(\tilde{x}, x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}} \sum_{\tilde{x}} r_{\bar{n}}(\tilde{x}) T(\tilde{x}, x) \quad (3.18)$$

$$\text{invariant} = [1 - (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}}] \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}} \sum_{\tilde{x}} r_{\bar{n}}(\tilde{x}) [T(\tilde{x}, x) - \nu \pi(x) + \nu \pi(x)] \quad (3.19)$$

$$= [1 - (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}}] \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}} \nu \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}} \sum_{\tilde{x}} r_{\bar{n}}(\tilde{x}) [T(\tilde{x}, x) - \nu \pi(x)] \quad (3.20)$$

$$= [1 - (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}+1}] \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}+1} \sum_{\tilde{x}} r_{\bar{n}}(\tilde{x}) \frac{T(\tilde{x}, x) - \nu \pi(x)}{1 - \nu} \quad (3.21)$$

$$= [1 - (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}+1}] \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}+1} r_{\bar{n}+1}(x) \quad (3.22)$$

$$\text{where } r_{\bar{n}+1}(x) = \sum_{\tilde{x}} r_{\bar{n}}(\tilde{x}) [T(\tilde{x}, x) - \nu \pi(x)] / (1 - \nu)$$

Ergodic Markov Chains: Proof of the Fundamental Theorem

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invariant

$$= [1 - (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}}] \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}} \sum_{\tilde{x}} r_{\bar{n}}(\tilde{x}) [T(\tilde{x}, x) - \nu \pi(x) + \nu \pi(x)] \quad (3.19)$$

$$= [1 - (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}}] \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}} \nu \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}} \sum_{\tilde{x}} r_{\bar{n}}(\tilde{x}) [T(\tilde{x}, x) - \nu \pi(x)]$$

$$= [1 - (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}+1}] \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}} \sum_{\tilde{x}} r_{\bar{n}}(\tilde{x}) [T(\tilde{x}, x) - \nu \pi(x)]$$

$$\begin{aligned} & (1 - (1 - \nu)^n) + (1 - \nu)^n \nu \\ &= 1 - (1 - \nu)^n + (1 - \nu)^n \nu \\ &= 1 - ((1 - \nu)^n - (1 - \nu)^n \nu) \\ &= 1 - ((1 - \nu)^n (1 - \nu)) \\ &= 1 - (1 - \nu)^{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

$$= [1 - (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}+1}] \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^{\bar{n}+1} r_{\bar{n}+1}(x) \quad (3.22)$$

where $r_{\bar{n}+1}(x) = \sum_{\tilde{x}} r_{\bar{n}}(\tilde{x}) [T(\tilde{x}, x) - \nu \pi(x)] / (1 - \nu)$

Ergodic Markov Chains: Proof of the Fundamental Theorem

r_{n+1} is a probability distribution, i.e.

1. $r_{n+1}(x) \geq 0$ and

2. $\sum_x r_{n+1}(x) = 1$

Ergodic Markov Chains: Proof of the Fundamental Theorem

r_{n+1} is a probability distribution, i.e.

1. $r_{n+1}(x) \geq 0$

Why? $r_{n+1}(x) = \sum_y r_n(y) \frac{T(y,x) - \nu\pi(x)}{(1-\nu)}$

$(1-\nu) \geq 0$, as $\nu \leq 1$ (see above)

$T(y,x) - \nu\pi(x) \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{T(y,x)}{\pi(x)} \geq \nu$

(as $\nu = \min_y \min_{x, \pi(x) > 0} \frac{T(y,x)}{\pi(x)}$!)

2. $\sum_x r_{n+1}(x) = 1$

Ergodic Markov Chains: Proof of the Fundamental Theorem

r_{n+1} is a probability distribution, i.e.

1. $r_{n+1}(x) \geq 0$

2. $\sum_x r_{n+1}(x) = 1$

Why?

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_x r_{n+1}(x) &= \sum_x \sum_y r_n(y) \frac{T(y,x) - \nu\pi(x)}{1-\nu} \\ &= \frac{1}{1-\nu} \sum_y r_n(y) \sum_x (T(y,x) - \nu\pi(x)) \\ &= \frac{1}{1-\nu} \sum_y r_n(y) (\sum_x T(y,x) - \sum_x \nu\pi(x)) \\ &= \frac{1}{1-\nu} \sum_y r_n(y) (1 - \nu) \\ &= \sum_y r_n(y) \\ &= 1\end{aligned}$$

Ergodic Markov Chains: Proof of the Fundamental Theorem

Using (3.16), we can now show that (3.14) holds:

$$|\pi(x) - p_n(x)| = |\pi(x) - [1 - (1 - \nu)^n] \pi(x) - (1 - \nu)^n r_n(x)| \quad (3.23)$$

$$= |(1 - \nu)^n \pi(x) - (1 - \nu)^n r_n(x)| \quad (3.24)$$

$$= (1 - \nu)^n |\pi(x) - r_n(x)| \quad (3.25)$$

$$\leq (1 - \nu)^n \quad (3.26)$$

Ergodic Markov Chains: Proof of the Fundamental Theorem

$$p_n(x) = [1 - (1 - \nu)^n] \pi(x) + (1 - \nu)^n r_n(x)$$

We can show (3.15) similarly:

$$|\langle a \rangle - E_n[a]| = \left| \sum_{\tilde{x}} a(\tilde{x}) \pi(\tilde{x}) - \sum_{\tilde{x}} a(\tilde{x}) p_n(\tilde{x}) \right| \quad (3.27)$$

$$= \left| \sum_{\tilde{x}} a(\tilde{x}) [(1 - \nu)^n \pi(\tilde{x}) - (1 - \nu)^n r_n(\tilde{x})] \right| \quad (3.28)$$

$$= (1 - \nu)^n \left| \sum_{\tilde{x}} a(\tilde{x}) \pi(\tilde{x}) - \sum_{\tilde{x}} a(\tilde{x}) r_n(\tilde{x}) \right| \quad (3.29)$$

$$\leq (1 - \nu)^n \max_{x, x'} |a(x) - a(x')| \quad (3.30)$$

This completes the proof.

Fundamental Theorem

- Theorem applies to homogeneous Markov chains
- Cyclic Markov chains
(transition matrices repeat after some period)

$$T_n = T_{n+d}$$

=> homogeneous Markov chain with transition matrix

$$T = T_0 T_1 \dots T_{d-1}$$

- If for a homogeneous chain $v > 0$ does not hold for its T , it could probably hold for some T^k , thus, the theorem holds with rate bounds with the exponent n replaced by n/k
- Theorem: at large times the distribution will be close to the invariant distribution
- The state of an ergodic Markov chain at time m will be nearly independent of the state at time n when $m \gg n$. Starting at any state at n will lead to the invariant distribution at m .
- This motivates to approximate the expectation via the mean of a series of values taken from an ergodic Markov chain with the appropriate invariant distribution.

Markov Chains

- **Computational effort for a good Monte Carlo estimate from the states of a Markov chain depend on**
 - **time to simulate each transition**
 - **time to converge to the equilibrium distribution (giving the states to be discarded before convergence)**
 - **number of transitions needed to move between two independent states from the equilibrium distribution**
- **Bounds in the theorem often not very practical**
 - **Many theoretical analyses have been tried (e.g. via Eigenvalues)**
 - **or empirical testing is required**

Analysis of Markov Chains via Eigenvalues

- **Definition (left eigenvector of a matrix M)**

A left eigenvector of a matrix M is a vector $v \neq 0$ s.t.

$$vM = \lambda v$$

for some possibly complex number λ , the eigenvalue associated with eigenvector v

- **Thus, obviously, the invariant distribution π of a homogeneous Markov chain is an eigenvector of its transition matrix T for eigenvalue 1**

$$\pi T = \pi$$

Analysis of Markov Chains via Eigenvalues

- For most stochastic (transition) matrices T one can find a set of linearly independent eigenvectors.
The eigenvectors are
 1. associated with eigenvalue 1 and with real positive values summing to 1
 2. other eigenvectors associated with eigenvalue 1
 3. eigenvectors with elements summing to 0 associated with eigenvalues of magnitude < 1
- class (1) contain the invariant distributions
- class (2) eigenvectors indicate that the chain is periodic
- Thus, ergodic Markov chains have one eigenvector of class (1) and possibly several of class (3) $1 > |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \dots$
with eigenvectors π, v_2, v_3, \dots

Analysis of Markov Chains via Eigenvalues

- Represent the initial probability $p_0 = \pi + a_2v_2 + a_3v_3 + \dots$
- then the distribution after n steps of the chain is

$$\begin{aligned} p_n &= p_0 T^n = \pi T^n + a_2 v_2 T^n + a_3 v_3 T^n + \dots \\ &= \pi + \lambda_2^n a_2 v_2 + \lambda_3^n a_3 v_3 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, with increasing n, p_n will converge to π with the asymptotic rate of convergence given by the magnitude of the second-largest eigenvalue λ_2
- As the eigenvalues of a reversible Markov chain are real, we have a bound on the time for convergence (independent of the initial distribution)

$$\max_x \frac{p_n(x) - \pi(x)}{\pi(x)} \leq \frac{\lambda_2}{\min_x \pi(x)}$$

- If $T(x,x) \geq \frac{1}{2}$ for all x, all eigenvalues are non-negative and λ_2 is the largest eigenvalue less than one