Introduction to Monte Carlo Methods Lecture Notes

Chapter 5 The Gibbs Sampler and Applications

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1. The Gibbs Sampler

The target distribution is $\pi(\mathbf{x}) = \pi(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_d), \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Following the notation in Chapter 4 ($\S5.3$), define

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}^{(t)} &= (x_1^{(t)}, x_2^{(t)}, \cdots, x_d^{(t)}), \\ \mathbf{x}_i^{(t)}(y) &= (x_1^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{i-1}^{(t)}, y, x_{i+1}^{(t)}, \cdots, x_d^{(t)}), \\ \mathbf{x}_{[-i]}^{(t)} &= (x_1^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{i-1}^{(t)}, x_{i+1}^{(t)}, \cdots, x_d^{(t)}). \end{aligned}$$

1.1. Algorithms

The Gibbs sampler iteratively samples from the conditional distribution $\pi(\cdot |\mathbf{x}_{[-i]})$ for a chosen coordinate $i \in \{1, \ldots, d\}$. There are two ways to pick a coordinate, corresponding to random-scan versus systematic-scan Gibbs sampler:

Algorithm 1 (Random-scan Gibbs sampler). Pick an initial value $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$.

For t = 1, ..., n:

- 1. Randomly select a coordinate *i* from $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$; 2. Draw *y* from the conditional distribution $\pi(x_i | \mathbf{x}_{[-i]}^{(t)})$. Let $\mathbf{x}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{x}_i^{(t)}(y)$ (i.e. $x_i^{(t+1)} = y$, $\mathbf{x}_{[-i]}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{x}_{[-i]}^{(t)}$).

Algorithm 2 (Systematic-scan Gibbs sampler). Pick an initial value $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$.

For $t = 1, \ldots, n$: Given the current sample $\mathbf{x}^{(t)} = (x_1^{(t)}, \cdots, x_d^{(t)})$,

for
$$i = 1, 2, \cdots, d$$
,
draw $x_i^{(t+1)} \sim \pi(x_i | x_1^{(t+1)}, \cdots, x_{i-1}^{(t+1)}, x_{i+1}^{(t)}, \cdots, x_d^{(t)})$.

By default, we use systematic-scan (Algorithm 2) unless noted otherwise. Given samples $\{\mathbf{x}^{(t)} : t = 1, ..., n\}$ generated by the Gibbs sampler, we estimate $\mathbb{E}_{\pi}h(\mathbf{x})$, the expectation of $h(\mathbf{x})$ with respect to π , by the sample average:

$$\bar{h} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} h(\mathbf{x}^{(t)}).$$
(1)

Similar to the MH algorithm, we often throw away samples generated during the burn-in period, say the first 1000 iterations, and calculate h from post burn-in samples.

To design a Gibbs sampler for a joint distribution $\pi(\mathbf{x})$, the key is to derive conditional distributions $[x_i | \mathbf{x}_{[-i]}]$ for all *i*. We will demonstrate how to find such conditional distributions in a few examples.

Example 1. Design a Gibbs sampler to simulate from a bivariate Normal distribution:

$$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2) \sim \mathcal{N}_2\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0\\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho\\ \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix}\right),$$

i.e. the pdf of the target distribution is

$$\pi(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{x_1^2 - 2\rho x_1 x_2 + x_2^2}{2(1-\rho^2)}\right\}.$$

Use the samples to estimate $\mathbb{E}(X_1X_2)$ and the correlation coefficient $\operatorname{cor}(X_1, X_2)$.

Find the conditional distribution $[x_1 \mid x_2]$ as follows: Regarding x_2 as a constant,

$$\pi(x_1 \mid x_2) \propto \pi(x_1, x_2) \propto \exp\left[-\frac{x_1^2 - 2\rho x_2 x_1}{2(1-\rho^2)}\right],\tag{2}$$

where any multiplicative factor that only depends on x_2 is regarded as a constant and absorbed into the proportion sign. Now complete squares:

$$x_1^2 - 2\rho x_2 x_1 = (x_1 - \rho x_2)^2 - (\rho x_2)^2,$$

and plug it into (2),

$$\pi(x_1 \mid x_2) \propto \exp\left[-\frac{(x_1 - \rho x_2)^2}{2(1 - \rho^2)}\right],$$

which is an unnormalized density for $\mathcal{N}(\rho x_2, 1 - \rho^2)$. Thus,

$$x_1 \mid x_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\rho x_2, 1 - \rho^2).$$

Similarly, $x_2 \mid x_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\rho x_1, 1 - \rho^2)$.

Gibbs sampler (one iteration): Given $\mathbf{x}^{(t)} = (x_1^{(t)}, x_2^{(t)}),$

$$x_1^{(t+1)} | x_2^{(t)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\rho x_2^{(t)}, 1 - \rho^2).$$
(3)

$$x_2^{(t+1)}|x_1^{(t+1)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\rho x_1^{(t+1)}, 1 - \rho^2).$$
(4)



```
#R code: Gibbs sampler for Example 5 (bivariate normal)
rho=0.8;
n=6000;
X=matrix(0,n,2);
X[1,]=c(10,10);
for(t in 2:n)
{
   X[t,1]=rnorm(1,rho*X[t-1,2],sqrt(1-rho<sup>2</sup>));
   X[t,2]=rnorm(1,rho*X[t,1],sqrt(1-rho<sup>2</sup>));
}
#estimate E(X1X2)
B=1001;
                #post burn-in
h=X[,1]*X[,2];
acf(h)
h_hat=mean(h[B:n])
#estimate cor(X1,X2)
r=cor(X[B:n,1],X[B:n,2])
```

Using the post burn-in samples $t \ge B$, the estimates of $\mathbb{E}(X_1X_2)$ and $\operatorname{cor}(X_1, X_2)$ were:

> h_hat
[1] 0.7448093
> r
[1] 0.7851272

The samples generated in the first 100 iterations and the autocorrelation plot for $h^{(t)} = x_1^{(t)} x_2^{(t)}$ are shown below:



For this Gibbs sampler, we can use induction to work out the distribution of $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$ for any $t \ge 1$, assuming we initialize the algorithm at $(x_1^{(0)}, x_2^{(0)})$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1^{(t)} \\ x_2^{(t)} \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}_2 \left(\begin{pmatrix} \rho^{2t-1} x_2^{(0)} \\ \rho^{2t} x_2^{(0)} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1-\rho^{4t-2} & \rho-\rho^{4t-1} \\ \rho-\rho^{4t-1} & 1-\rho^{4t} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$
$$\xrightarrow{t \to \infty} \mathcal{N}_2 \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho \\ \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right).$$
(5)

In particular, (5) shows that the limiting distribution is indeed $\pi(\mathbf{x})$.

Example 2. Consider a joint distribution between a discrete and a continuous random variables:

$$\pi(x,y) \propto \binom{n}{x} y^{x+\alpha-1} (1-y)^{n-x+\beta-1}$$

for $x = 0, 1, \dots, n$ and $y \in [0, 1]$. The two conditional distributions are derived as follows:

$$\pi(x|y) \propto \binom{n}{x} y^x (1-y)^{n-x} \Rightarrow x|y \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n,y).$$

$$\pi(y|x) \propto y^{x+\alpha-1} (1-y)^{n-x+\beta-1} \Rightarrow y|x \sim \operatorname{Beta}(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)$$

The pdf of the Beta(α, β) distribution ($\alpha > 0, \beta > 0$) is

$$f(y|\alpha,\beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}y^{\alpha-1}(1-y)^{\beta-1} \qquad y \in [0,1].$$

If $Y \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$, then $\mathbb{E}(Y) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$.

If two independent random variables $X_1 \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, 1)$ and $X_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(\beta, 1)$, then

$$\frac{X_1}{X_1 + X_2} \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta).$$

Example 3 (Gibbs sampler for 1-D Ising Model). The joint distribution for the 1-D Ising model (§3.1, Ch 4) with temperature T > 0 is given by

$$\pi(\mathbf{x}) \propto \exp\left(\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} x_i x_{i+1}\right), \quad x_i \in \{1, -1\}.$$

To develop a Gibbs sampler for this problem, we find the conditional distribution $[x_i \mid x_{[-i]}]$ for each i = 1, ..., d:

$$\pi(x_{i} \mid x_{[-i]}) \propto \pi(x_{1}, \dots, x_{i}, \dots, x_{d})$$

$$\propto \exp\left\{\frac{1}{T} (x_{1}x_{2} + \dots + x_{i-1}x_{i} + x_{i}x_{i+1} + \dots + x_{d-1}x_{d})\right\}$$

$$\propto \exp\left\{\frac{x_{i}}{T} (x_{i-1} + x_{i+1})\right\}, \quad x_{i} \in \{1, -1\}.$$
(6)

Since $x_i \in \{1, -1\}$, put

$$Z_{i} = \exp\left\{\frac{1}{T}\left(x_{i-1} + x_{i+1}\right)\right\} + \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{T}\left(x_{i-1} + x_{i+1}\right)\right\}.$$

We have

$$\pi(x_i \mid x_{[-i]}) = \frac{1}{Z_i} \exp\left\{\frac{x_i}{T} \left(x_{i-1} + x_{i+1}\right)\right\} \quad \text{for } x_i \in \{1, -1\}.$$

For i = 1 or d, plug in $x_0 = x_{d+1} = 0$.

Note that $\pi(x_i \mid x_{[-i]}) = \mathbb{P}(X_i = x_i \mid x_{[-i]}), x_i \in \{1, -1\}$, is simply a binary discrete distribution. Let $\theta_1 = \pi(x_i = 1 \mid x_{[-i]}), \theta_2 = \pi(x_i = -1 \mid x_{[-i]})$ and put theta $= (\theta_1, \theta_2)$. To sample from $[x_i \mid x_{[-i]}]$:

x[i]=sample(c(1,-1),size=1,replace=TRUE,prob=theta);

where the vector **x** stores the current sample. In fact, we do not need to normalize $\pi(x_i \mid x_{[-i]})$ in the above code. Instead, we may set θ_1 and θ_2 by (6):

$$\theta_1 = \exp\left\{\frac{1}{T}(x_{i-1} + x_{i+1})\right\}, \qquad \theta_2 = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{T}(x_{i-1} + x_{i+1})\right\},$$

since the sample function will normalize theta anyway.

1.2. Stationary distribution and detail balance

As a special case of the MH algorithm, the detail balance condition is satisfied for the Gibbs sampler, which implies that π is a stationary distribution.

It is also easy to verify the detail balance condition directly. To do this, we regard each conditional sampling step as a one-step transition of the underlying Markov chain. Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$ and $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}_i(y)$. Then the one-step transition kernel $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \pi(y|\mathbf{x}_{[-i]})$. Our goal is to show that $\pi(\mathbf{x})K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \pi(\mathbf{y})K(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$.

Proof.

$$\pi(\mathbf{x})K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \pi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(y|\mathbf{x}_{[-i]}) = \frac{\pi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\mathbf{y})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_{[-i]})}.$$
$$\pi(\mathbf{y})K(\mathbf{y},\mathbf{x}) = \pi(\mathbf{y}) \cdot \pi(x|\mathbf{x}_{[-i]}) = \frac{\pi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\mathbf{y})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_{[-i]})}.$$

	L	
	L	

2. Examples of the Gibbs Sampler

2.1. The slice sampler

Suppose we want to simulate from $\pi(\mathbf{x}) \propto q(\mathbf{x})$, where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$. The slice sampler simulates from a uniform distribution over the region under the surface of $q(\mathbf{x})$ by the Gibbs sampler, based on the following result:

Lemma 1. Suppose a pdf $\pi(\mathbf{x}) \propto q(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Denote the region under the surface of $q(\mathbf{x})$ by

$$\mathcal{S} = \{(\mathbf{x}, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} : y \le q(\mathbf{x})\}$$

If $(\mathbf{X}, Y) \sim \text{Unif}(S)$, then the marginal distribution of \mathbf{X} is π , i.e. $\mathbf{X} \sim \pi$.



Proof. Let $|\mathcal{S}|$ denote the volume of \mathcal{S} :

$$|\mathcal{S}| = \int q(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}.$$
 (7)

Since $(\mathbf{X}, Y) \sim \text{Unif}(S)$, their joint pdf is

$$f_{\mathbf{X},Y}(\mathbf{x},y) = 1/|\mathcal{S}|, \quad (\mathbf{x},y) \in \mathcal{S}.$$

If $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$, the range of Y is $(0, q(\mathbf{x}))$. Then the marginal density at \mathbf{x} is

$$p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) = \int_0^{q(\mathbf{x})} f_{\mathbf{X},Y}(\mathbf{x},y) dy = \int_0^{q(\mathbf{x})} \frac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} dy = \frac{q(\mathbf{x})}{|\mathcal{S}|} = \pi(\mathbf{x}).$$

The last equality in the above is due to the fact that |S| is the normalizing constant for $q(\mathbf{x})$ as in (7).

The slice sampler uses a Gibbs sampler to simulate from Unif(S) by iterating between $[Y \mid \mathbf{X}]$ and $[\mathbf{X} \mid Y]$. Then, according to Lemma 1, the marginal distribution of \mathbf{X} is the target distribution $\pi(\mathbf{x})$. It is easy to see that

$$Y \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \sim \text{Unif}(0, q(\mathbf{x})).$$

Let $\mathcal{X}(y) = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d : q(\mathbf{x}) \ge y\}$ be the set of \mathbf{x} with $q(\mathbf{x}) \ge y$, i.e. a super-level set of $q(\mathbf{x})$. Then as shown in the following figure,

$$\mathbf{X} \mid Y = y \sim \text{Unif}(\mathcal{X}(y)).$$



Consequently, one iteration of the slice sampler consists of two conditional sampling steps: Given $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$,

- 1. Draw $y^{(t+1)} \sim \text{Unif}[0, q(\mathbf{x}^{(t)})]$ (vertical blue dashed line); 2. Draw $\mathbf{x}^{(t+1)}$ uniformly from region $\mathcal{X}^{(t+1)} = {\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d : q(\mathbf{x}) \ge y^{(t+1)}}$ (horizontal red dashed line).

Then when t is large, $(\mathbf{x}^{(t)}, y^{(t)}) \sim \text{Unif}(\mathcal{S})$ and $\mathbf{x}^{(t)} \sim \pi$, achieving the goal of sampling from π .

Example 4 (t_d -distribution). Use slice sampler to simulate from t-distribution with d degree of freedom:

$$\pi(x) \propto (1 + x^2/d)^{-(d+1)/2} := q(x), \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Suppose the sample at iteration t is x_t . The two steps to generate x_{t+1} are:

- 1. Draw $y_{t+1} \sim \text{Unif}[0, q(x_t)]$, where $q(x_t) = (1 + x_t^2/d)^{-(d+1)/2}$.
- 2. Draw x_{t+1} uniformly from the interval

$$\mathcal{X}_{t+1} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : q(x) \ge y_{t+1} \} = [-b(y_{t+1}), b(y_{t+1})],$$

where $b(y) = \sqrt{d(y^{-2/(d+1)} - 1)}$. Note that $\pm b(y)$ are the two roots of the quadratic equation q(x) = y.

2.2. Blocked Gibbs sampler

Partition $\{1, \ldots, d\}$ into two blocks, A and $B: A \cup B = \{1, \ldots, d\}$ and $A \cap B = \emptyset$. For $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_d)$, let $x_A = (x_j : j \in A)$ and $x_B = (x_j : j \in B)$ denote two subvectors with components in the sets A and B, respectively. A two-block Gibbs sampler iteratively sample from $[x_A \mid x_B]$ and $[x_B \mid x_A]$ in each iteration of Algorithm 2: Given the current sample $(x_A^{(t)}, x_B^{(t)})$,

draw
$$x_A^{(t+1)} \sim \pi(x_A | x_B^{(t)}),$$

draw $x_B^{(t+1)} \sim \pi(x_B | x_A^{(t+1)}).$

Consider the Ising model on a graph G = (V, E), where $V = \{1, \ldots, d\}$ is the vertex set and $E \subset V \times V$ is the edge set of the graph G: There is an edge between two vertices i, j if and only if $(i, j) \in E$. Given G, define a Boltzmann distribution for (X_1, \ldots, X_d) at temperature T > 0:

$$\pi(x_1,\ldots,x_d) \propto \exp\left\{\frac{1}{T}\sum_{(i,j)\in E} x_i x_j\right\}, \quad x_i \in \{1,-1\}.$$
(8)

Definition 1. For three random vectors X, Y, Z, we say X is *conditionally independent* of Z given Y, denoted by $X \perp \!\!\!\perp Z \mid Y$, if

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in A \mid Y, Z) = \mathbb{P}(X \in A \mid Y)$$

for any set A in the sample space of X. That is, the conditional distribution of $[X \mid Y, Z]$ does not depend on Z.

If (X, Y, Z) follows a joint distribution, then $X \perp \!\!\!\perp Z \mid Y \Leftrightarrow Z \perp \!\!\!\perp X \mid Y$. The joint distribution (8) implies the following conditional independence statements among X_1, \ldots, X_d :

Theorem 1. Let N_i denote the set of neighbors of vertex *i* in the graph *G*, *i.e.* $N_i = \{j \in V : \text{there is an edge between } i \text{ and } j\}$. If $k \notin N_i$ and $k \neq i$, then

$$X_i \perp \!\!\!\perp X_k \mid \{X_j : j \in N_i\}.$$

Proof. It follows from (8) that the conditional density of X_i given $X_{[-i]}$ is

$$\pi(x_i \mid x_{[-i]}) \propto \exp\left(\frac{x_i}{T} \sum_{j \in N_i} x_j\right)$$
$$= \pi(x_i \mid x_j, j \in N_i),$$

which only depends on $x_j, j \in N_i$.

This theorem shows that the graph G (the neighborhoods of vertices) encodes conditional independence statements among the random variables.

A few common examples of graphs G:

- Chain, $E = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), \dots, (d 1, d)\}$: 1-D Ising model (Example 3).
- Complete graph, $E = \{(i, j) : i < j\}$, i.e. there is an edge between every pair of nodes i, j. For example, a complete graph over four nodes (d = 4):



• Star topology, $E = \{(1, i) : i = 2, ..., d\}$: X_1 is the hub node (vertex) and is the only neighbor of all other nodes $X_2, ..., X_d$.



Example 5. If G has a star topology, we can develop a two-block Gibbs sampler to sample from (8) by letting $A = \{1\}$ and $B = \{2, \ldots, d\}$. The two conditional sampling steps in one iteration of the Gibbs sampler are:

1. Sample from $[x_A \mid x_B] = [x_1 \mid x_2, \dots, x_d]$: Since

$$\pi(x_1 \mid x_2, \dots, x_d) \propto \exp\left[\frac{1}{T}(x_2 + \dots + x_d)x_1\right],$$

for $x_1 \in \{1, -1\}$, after normalization we have

$$\pi(x_1 \mid x_2, \dots, x_d) = \frac{\exp\left[\frac{1}{T}(x_2 + \dots + x_d)x_1\right]}{\exp\left[\frac{1}{T}(x_2 + \dots + x_d)\right] + \exp\left[-\frac{1}{T}(x_2 + \dots + x_d)\right]}$$
$$x_1 \in \{1, -1\}.$$

2. Sample from $[x_B \mid x_A] = [x_2, \dots, x_d \mid x_1]$: We start from

$$\pi(x_2,\ldots,x_d \mid x_1) \propto \exp\left[\frac{1}{T}x_1(x_2+\ldots+x_d)\right] = \prod_{j=2}^d \exp\left(\frac{x_1x_j}{T}\right),$$

which shows that X_2, \ldots, X_d are independent given $X_1 = x_1$ (9) and

$$\pi(x_j \mid x_1) \propto \exp\left(\frac{x_1 x_j}{T}\right), \quad x_j \in \{1, -1\}, \quad j = 2, \dots, d.$$

Thus, we draw x_j from $[x_j \mid x_1]$ for all j = 2, ..., d independently according to:

$$\pi(x_j \mid x_1) = \frac{\exp\left(\frac{1}{T}x_1x_j\right)}{\exp\left(\frac{x_1}{T}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{x_1}{T}\right)}, \qquad x_j \in \{1, -1\}.$$

3. Missing Data Problems

Suppose we have data

$$\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_n \stackrel{\mathrm{iid}}{\sim} f(\mathbf{y} \mid \theta),$$

where each data point $\mathbf{y}_i = (y_{i1}, y_{i2}, \cdots, y_{ip}) \in \mathbb{R}^p$. Put them into a data matrix $Y = (y_{ij})_{n \times p}$. However, some data points contain missing elements, shown as '?' in the following table, such as y_{2p} and y_{n1} .

	1	2	 p
\mathbf{y}_1			
\mathbf{y}_2		?	?
\mathbf{y}_n	?	?	

^{?:} missing value (e.g. $y_{22}, y_{2p}, \cdots, y_{n2}$) Y_{obs} : observed elements of Y (observed data). Y_{mis} : missing elements of Y (missing data). $Y = (Y_{obs}, Y_{mis})$: complete data.

Denote by Y_{obs} the observed elements of Y and Y_{mis} the missing elements of Y. We call Y_{obs} the observed data, Y_{mis} the missing data, and $Y = (Y_{obs}, Y_{mis})$ the complete data. Our goal is to estimate the model parameter θ based on the observed data Y_{obs} .

3.1. Two-block Gibbs sampler

Bayesian inference for missing data problems (1) estimates θ and (2) predicts missing data Y_{mis} based on the joint posterior distribution of (θ, Y_{mis}) :

$$p(\theta, Y_{mis}|Y_{obs}) \propto p(\theta)p(Y_{obs}, Y_{mis} \mid \theta),$$

where $p(\theta)$ is the prior for θ and

$$p(Y_{obs}, Y_{mis} \mid \theta) = p(Y \mid \theta) = \prod_{i} f(\mathbf{y}_i \mid \theta)$$

is the complete-date likelihood.

Usually there are no closed-form formulas for posterior mean or quantiles of the posterior distribution of θ :

$$p(\theta \mid Y_{obs}) \propto p(\theta)p(Y_{obs} \mid \theta)$$

= $p(\theta) \int p(Y_{obs}, Y_{mis} \mid \theta) dY_{mis},$

which involves marginalization over the missing data Y_{mis} . We need to draw samples of (θ, Y_{mis}) from the joint posterior distribution $[\theta, Y_{mis} | Y_{obs}]$ to perform Bayesian inference. To do that, we develop a two-block Gibbs sampler, one iteration of which contains two conditional sampling steps:

1. Given
$$\theta^{(t)}$$
, draw $Y_{mis}^{(t+1)} \sim p(Y_{mis} \mid Y_{obs}, \theta^{(t)});$

2. Given $Y_{mis}^{(t+1)}$, draw $\theta^{(t+1)} \sim p(\theta \mid Y_{obs}, Y_{mis}^{(t+1)}) = p(\theta \mid Y^{(t+1)})$, where $Y^{(t+1)} = (Y_{obs}, Y_{mis}^{(t+1)})$ is a complete data matrix with missing values imputed as $Y_{mis}^{(t+1)}$.

This two-block Gibbs sampler is illustrated by the following diagram:



For many commonly used models, both conditional sampling steps are easy to implement, as shown by the following examples.

3.2. Discrete data example

Example 6. Suppose $x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Discrete}(\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3)$:

$$\mathbb{P}(x_i = k) = \theta_k, \ k = 1, 2, 3.$$

As shown in the following table, the data is coarsened, in which x_1, x_2, x_3 are only partially classified: $x_1 \in \{2, 3\}, x_2 \in \{1, 3\}$ and $x_3 \in \{1, 2\}$, while the other data points are fully classified: $x_4 = 1, \ldots, x_n = 2$.

	1	2	3	
x_1		?	?	
x_2	?		?	?: possible categories for an observation:
x_3	?	?		r in
x_4	\checkmark			\checkmark : observed category for an observation.
:				
x_n		\checkmark		
10		,		

Prior: $\theta \sim Dir(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3), \quad (\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \theta_3 = 1)$

$$p(\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3) \propto \theta_1^{\alpha_1 - 1} \theta_2^{\alpha_2 - 1} \theta_3^{\alpha_3 - 1}$$

Missing data in x_1, x_2, x_3 , and $Y_{obs} = (x_1 \neq 1, x_2 \neq 2, x_3 \neq 3, x_4, \dots, x_n)$.

$$p(\theta, x_1, x_2, x_3 | x_4, \cdots, x_n) \propto p(\theta) p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \cdots, x_n | \theta)$$

$$\propto \left(\prod_{j=1}^3 \theta_j^{\alpha_j - 1}\right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^3 p(x_i | \theta)\right) \left(\prod_{j=1}^3 \theta_j^{C_j^{(obs)}}\right)$$

$$\propto \left(\prod_{j=1}^3 \theta_j^{C_j^{(obs)} + \alpha_j - 1}\right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^3 p(x_i | \theta)\right),$$

where $C_j^{obs} = \sum_{i=4}^n I(x_i = j)$: observed counts for the *j*th category from x_4 to x_n .

1. Given $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3)$, $\mathbb{P}(x_1 = j | \theta) \varpropto \theta_j$ for j = 1, 2, 3,

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(x_1 = j | x_1 \neq 1, \theta) = \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_2 + \theta_3}, \ j = 2, 3.$$

Similarly,

$$\mathbb{P}(x_2 = j | x_2 \neq 2, \theta) = \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_1 + \theta_3}, \ j = 1, 3.$$
$$\mathbb{P}(x_3 = j | x_3 \neq 3, \theta) = \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_1 + \theta_2}, \ j = 1, 2.$$

Draw x_1, x_2, x_3 independently according to the above conditional probabilities.

2. Given (x_1, x_2, x_3) , $C_j^{(mis)} = \sum_{i=1}^3 I(x_i = j)$, then $p(\theta|x_1, \dots, x_n) \propto \prod_{j=1}^3 \theta_j^{C_j^{(Obs)} + C_j^{(mis)} + \alpha_j - 1}$. Draw θ from $\theta | \mathbf{x} \sim Dir(C_1^{(obs)} + C_1^{(mis)} + \alpha_1, C_2^{(obs)} + C_2^{(mis)} + \alpha_2, C_3^{(obs)} + C_3^{(mis)} + \alpha_3)$, where $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is complete data.

Iterate between steps 1 and 2 to generate $(\theta^{(t)}, x_{1,2,3}^{(t)})$ for $t = 1, \ldots, m$. Bayesian estimates: $\hat{\theta}_B \approx \frac{1}{m} \sum_t \theta^{(t)}$ and histogram of $\theta_j^{(t)}$.

3.3. Gaussian data example

Example 7. $y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}_2(\mu, \Sigma), \ y_i = (y_{i1}, \ y_{i2}).$

$$\mu = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix}, \underbrace{\Sigma}_{\text{known}} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \\ \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

	Y_1	Y_2
y_1	?	\checkmark
y_2	\checkmark	?
y_3	\checkmark	\checkmark
y_4	\checkmark	\checkmark
:	:	÷
y_n	\checkmark	√

Improper flat prior: $p(\mu) \propto 1$.

Missing data $Y_{mis} = (y_{11}, y_{22})$ and observed data $Y_{obs} = (y_{12}, y_{21}, y_3, \dots, y_n)$. Data augmentation for this problem:

1. Given μ , sample y_{11} and y_{22} , $[y_{11}|y_{12}, \mu, \Sigma] \sim$? Recall $y_1 = (y_{11}, y_{12})$.

$$p(y_{11}|y_{12},\mu,\Sigma) \propto p(y_{11},y_{12}|\mu,\Sigma) \propto \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(y_1-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(y_1-\mu)\right]$$

= $\exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}\left[\frac{(y_{11}-\mu_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} - \frac{2\rho(y_{11}-\mu_1)(y_{12}-\mu_2)}{\sigma_1\sigma_2} + \frac{(y_{12}-\mu_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2}\right]\right\}$
 $\propto \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)\sigma_1^2}\left[(y_{11}-\mu_1)^2 - \frac{2\rho\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}(y_{12}-\mu_2)(y_{11}-\mu_1)\right]\right\}$
= $\exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)\sigma_1^2}\left[y_{11}-\mu_1 - \frac{\rho\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}(y_{12}-\mu_2)\right]^2 + C\right\}.$

 $\therefore y_{11}|y_{12}, \mu, \Sigma \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu_1 + \frac{\rho\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}(y_{12} - \mu_2), (1 - \rho^2)\sigma_1^2\right).$ Similarly, $y_{22}|y_{21}, \mu, \Sigma \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu_2 + \frac{\rho\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}(y_{21} - \mu_1), (1 - \rho^2)\sigma_2^2\right).$

Given μ , draw y_{11} and y_{22} independently from the two normal distributions.

2. Given y_{11} and y_{22} , sample μ ?

$$p(\mu|y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_n, \Sigma) \propto p(y_1, \cdots, y_n | \mu, \Sigma)$$

= $|2\pi\Sigma|^{-\frac{n}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(y_i - \mu)\right]$
 $\propto \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(y_i - \mu)\right].$

Let $\bar{y} = \sum_i y_i / n$.

$$\begin{split} &\sum_{i} (\mu - y_{i})^{T} \Sigma^{-1} (\mu - y_{i}) \\ &= \sum_{i} (\mu - \bar{y} + \bar{y} - y_{i})^{T} \Sigma^{-1} (\mu - \bar{y} + \bar{y} - y_{i}) \\ &= \sum_{i} \left[(\mu - \bar{y})^{T} \Sigma^{-1} (\mu - \bar{y}) + 2(\mu - \bar{y})^{T} \Sigma^{-1} (\bar{y} - y_{i}) + (\bar{y} - y_{i})^{T} \Sigma^{-1} (\bar{y} - y_{i}) \right] \\ &= n(\mu - \bar{y})^{T} \Sigma^{-1} (\mu - \bar{y}) + C. \end{split}$$

Therefore, $\mu | y_1, \cdots, y_n \sim \mathcal{N}_2(\bar{y}, \frac{1}{n}\Sigma)$. Iterate between steps 1 and 2.