Rapidly Mixing Multiple-try Metropolis Algorithms for Model Selection Problems

Abstract

The Multiple-try Metropolis (MTM) algorithm is an extension of the Metropolis-Hastings (MH) algorithm by selecting the proposed state among multiple trials according to some weight function. Although MTM has gained great popularity owing to its faster empirical convergence and mixing than the standard MH algorithm, its theoretical mixing property is rarely studied in the literature due to its complex proposal scheme. We prove that MTM can achieve a mixing time bound smaller than that of MH by a factor of the number of trials under a general setting applicable to high-dimensional model selection problems. Our theoretical results motivate a new class of weight functions and guide the choice of the number of trials, which leads to improved performance than standard MTM algorithms. We support our theoretical results by extensive simulation studies with several Bayesian model selection problems: variable selection, stochastic block models, and spatial clustering models.

1 Introduction

Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method has become a powerful and standard tool for Bayesian posterior computation. In particular, the Metropolis–Hastings (MH) algorithm is widely employed in many statistical and machine learning models to sample from posterior distributions with intractable normalizing constants. A prominent usage example of MH is the vast class of Bayesian model selection problems with discrete-valued high-dimensional parameters, whose posterior probabilities are infeasible to evaluate because the size of model space potentially grows (super-)exponentially with the number of parameters. Examples of Bayesian model selection problems and their applications are ubiquitous, including Bayesian variable selection (BVS) [33, and references therein], stochastic block model (SBM) [17, 26], Bayesian structure learning [23, 13], change-point detection model [4, 9], spatial clustering models [20, 22], and many others.

Despite the popularity of MCMC algorithms, their convergence rate analysis is often challenging. Mixing time is a key concept of interest when analyzing the convergence of MCMC, which defines the number of iterations needed to converge to a stationary distribution within a small total variation distance [19]. We say a chain is *rapidly mixing* if the mixing time grows at most polynomially in some complexity parameters. Mixing time bound has been studied extensively for problems such as card shuffling [3], random walks on groups [2], graph colorings [18], and the Ising models [12], across the fields of probability, physics, and computer science [30]. Although there is a rich literature on discrete-state-space mixing time analysis in many areas, the focus has been primarily on approximate counting and random generation, but only recently has research on the MCMC convergence in the context of statistical model selection begun to emerge. [35] proved rapid mixing of an MH algorithm in a high-dimensional BVS problem, and [29] improved the bound with some modification. Rapid mixing results of MH algorithms are established for Bayesian community detection problem with SBM [41], and for learning equivalence class in a high-dimensional Bayesian structure learning [39]. Recently, locally informed MH algorithms have been developed to incorporate local information

about the target distribution. [36] proposed a locally balanced proposal and proved their optimality in terms of Peskun ordering [28] for discrete space models without providing mixing time rate analysis. [40] also proposed an informed MCMC and proved a dimension-free mixing time bound but only for a BVS problem [40].

The multiple-try Metropolis (MTM) algorithm is an extension of the MH algorithm, which uses a weight function to choose the proposed state among randomly sampled trials from a proposal kernel and therefore easily enables parallelization. The variety of weight functions and the number of trials enrich the algorithm class but result in a much more complex transition probability matrix than standard MH algorithms, hampering the theoretical development on the mixing time of MTM. As a result, there is a lack of theoretical guidance for practitioners on the choices of weight functions and number of trials in MTM and also the choice between MTM and other MCMC algorithms. Only very recently, [34] considered the MTM independence sampler (MTM-IS), a simple special case of MTM where the proposal kernel does not depend on the current state. They provided the convergence rate analysis of MTM-IS that shows it is less efficient than the simpler approach of repeated Metropolised independent sampling at the same computational cost, but did not discuss the choices of weight functions and number of trials. As acknowledged in [34], MTM is significantly different from MTM-IS, and its convergence rate is more challenging to analyze. In this paper, we establish the mixing time bound of MTM for general model selection problems. Our main contributions are the following:

1) We show that MTM with existing popular choices of weight functions can have mixing issues and then propose a new class of weight functions.

2) With the new weight functions, we prove that the mixing time bound of the MTM algorithm is smaller than that of the MH algorithm by a factor of the number of trials in a general model selection setting.

3) We provide theoretical justification for the counterintuitive phenomenon that an increase in the number of trials N may not always lead to a proportionate improvement in mixing, and suggest a theoretically guided algorithm to choose N for practical use.

4) We validate our theoretical findings via extensive simulation studies with various model selection problems: Bayesian variable selection, stochastic block models, and spatial clustering models.

2 Preliminary

2.1 Notation

For a positive integer $m \in \mathbb{N}$, let $[m] = \{1, \ldots, m\}$ and $\lfloor m \rfloor$ be the largest integer no greater than m. Let $| \cdot |$ denote the cardinality of a set. Let $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_p$ denote a finite state space where $|\mathcal{X}|$ grows in a complexity parameter $p \in \mathbb{N}$. Define $\mathbf{P}$ as a transition probability of an irreducible, aperiodic and reversible Markov chain. We call a probability distribution π on $\mathcal{X}$ a stationary or target distribution of a chain $\mathbf{P}$ if it satisfies $\sum_{z \in \mathcal{X}} \pi(z) \mathbf{P}(z, x) = \pi(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$. In Bayesian inference, π is the posterior distribution. Let $\mathcal{N} \colon \mathcal{X} \to 2^{\mathcal{X}}$ be a set-valued map called a neighborhood relation, which maps a state to a set of states. We say the neighborhood relation $\mathcal{N}$ is symmetric if $x' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ iff $x \in \mathcal{N}(x')$ for all $x \neq x'$. We define the random walk proposal kernel as $\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}(x, y) = \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{N}(x)}(y)/|\mathcal{N}(x)|$ where $\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{N}(x)}$ denotes the indicator function of $\mathcal{N}(x)$. We denote a graph by (V, E) where V is the vertex set and $E \subset V \times V$ is the set of edges. We say $\delta(x, y) = (v_0, \ldots, v_m)$ is a E-path (with length m) from x to y if $e_i = (v_{i-1}, v_i) \in E$ for $i \in [m]$, $v_0 = x, v_m = y$, and all vertices are distinct.

2.2 Multiple-try Metropolis algorithm

We present the MTM algorithm [21] in Algorithm 1. In MTM with random walk proposal kernel $\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}$, N trial states are sampled from the proposal kernel $\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}(x, \cdot)$, and then the proposed state y is selected among the trials using the weight function

$$w(y \,|\, x) = \pi(y)\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}(y, x)\lambda(y, x), \tag{1}$$

where $\lambda(y, x)$ can be any symmetric function that is positive whenever $\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}(y, x) > 0$. Note that Algorithm 1 becomes the MH algorithm when the number of trials N is one.

Algorithm 1: Multiple-try Metropolis (MTM) algorithm with proposal kernel $\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}$

Input: An initial state x_0, a neighborhood relation $\mathcal{N}$, the number of trials N, a weight function w defined in (1), the number of Markov chain iterations T

1 **for** $t = 0, \ldots, T-1$ **do**

2   Step 1. Draw $y_1, \ldots, y_N$ uniformly at random from $\mathcal{N}(x_t)$, and compute $w(y_j \,|\, x_t)$ for $j = 1 \ldots, N$.

3   Step 2. Select $j \in [N]$ with probability proportional to $w(y_j \,|\, x_t)$ and define $y = y_j$.

4   Step 3. Sample $x_1^\star, \ldots, x_{N-1}^\star$ uniformly at random from $\mathcal{N}(y)$ and define

$$\alpha = \min\left\{ 1, \frac{w(y \,|\, x_t) + \sum_{l=1, l \neq j}^{N} w(y_l \,|\, x_t)}{w(x_t \,|\, y) + \sum_{l=1}^{N-1} w(x_l^\star \,|\, y)} \right\}. \tag{2}$$

5   Step 4. With probability α, accept y and let $x_{t+1} = y$, otherwise let $x_{t+1} = x_t$.

Output: A set of Markov chain samples $\{x_t\}_{t=1}^{T}$

There have been efforts to generalize Algorithm 1 [10, 8]. The work of [27] extends the weight function class by proposing a general form of acceptance probability to achieve the reversibility of a chain when the weight function does not belong to (1). While one can easily find a weight function satisfying (1), there is little research on the most appropriate form of weight functions. [21] investigated some particular class of weight functions and claimed the performance is insensitive to the choice of weight functions within this class; $w(y \,|\, x) = \pi(y)$ (when $\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}$ is symmetric) and $w(y \,|\, x) = \pi(y)/\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}(x, y)$ are popular choices in this class [5, 25].

Another important component of the MTM method is the number of trials N. It has been reported with empirical evidence that an increase in the number of trials N does not necessarily result in a corresponding improvement in mixing [24]. They illustrate a counterintuitive phenomenon that the acceptance probability for a proposal move to higher probability regions can be extremely low. As a solution, they suggest randomly selecting the number of trials N at each iteration. Despite the anecdotal observation that certain choices of N make the algorithm less efficient, the principled way to choose N is rarely discussed in the literature.

2.3 Analysis on mixing time via geometric tools

A theoretical foundation for employing MCMC methods to sample from a posterior distribution on a finite state space is the well-known convergence theorem, which states that an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with a stationary distribution converges to the stationary distribution regardless of the initial distribution [19, Theorem 4.9]. However, since it is impossible to simulate a chain infinitely long, our main interest is to analyze how well the chain approximates the target distribution after a certain number of steps. To this end, we introduce ϵ-mixing time $t_{\mathrm{mix}}(\epsilon) = \max_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \min\left\{ t \in \mathbb{N} \colon \|\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{lazy}}^t(x, \cdot) - \pi\|_{\mathrm{TV}} \leq \epsilon \right\}$, where $\|\cdot\|_{\mathrm{TV}}$ is the total variation distance, ϵ is a small constant, and $\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{lazy}} = (\mathbf{P} + \boldsymbol{I})/2$ denotes the lazy version of $\mathbf{P}$. In words, t_{mix} quantifies the necessary number of steps for the chain to have a small distance from the stationary distribution. Among several techniques for characterizing the mixing property [7, 31, 19, 15], a path method is employed to derive our main result [11, 32]. Intuitively, the mixing time depends on how well the states "communicate", especially among those which have high values of π. In contrast to samplers defined on a continuous state space with a Euclidean topology, posterior landscape and modality on a finite state space are more difficult to envision since it highly depends on how one defines the neighborhood relation. Given a transition kernel $\mathbf{P}$, we define the neighborhood of a state x by $\mathcal{N}(x) = \{x' \in \mathcal{X} : \mathbf{P}(x, x') > 0\}$, the set of reachable states by one-step transition from x, an we say x is a mode if $\pi(x) > \max_{x' \in \mathcal{N}(x)} \pi(x')$. This specification of the neighborhood enables us to define a graph $(\mathcal{X}, E)$ where $E = \{(x, x') \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} : x' \in \mathcal{N}(x)\}$ is an (undirected since we assume reversibility of $\mathbf{P}$) edge set. For each $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$, we choose only one E-path $\delta(x, y)$, and define a path ensemble by a collection of the paths $\Delta = \{\delta(x, y) : (x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}\}$. A path ensemble is a configuration of path network that helps quantify the quality of the communication within the state space $\mathcal{X}$. The following proposition, which serves as a base of our main result, gives a mixing time bound by means of a path ensemble.

Proposition 1 ([32])**.** *For any path ensemble Δ,*

$$t_{\mathrm{mix}}(\epsilon) \leq 2\rho(\Delta)\ell(\Delta) \left[\log(1/\epsilon) + \log \left\{ \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \pi(x) \right\}^{-1} \right],$$

where $\ell(\Delta) = \max_{x,y} |\delta(x,y)|$ and

$$\rho(\Delta) = \max_{(u,v) \in E} \frac{1}{\pi(u)\mathbf{P}(u,v)} \sum_{\substack{x,y \in \mathcal{X} \\ (u,v) \in \delta(x,y)}} \pi(x)\pi(y) \qquad (3)$$

For completeness, we provide a proof of Proposition 1 with a detailed discussion in Appendix A.1. The quantity $\rho(\Delta)$ is called the *congestion parameter*, and $\ell(\Delta)$ is the length of the longest path in Δ. To interpret $\rho(\Delta)$ and $\ell(\Delta)$, some terminologies from the transportation network in graph theory are often useful. Consider $\pi(u)\mathbf{P}(u,v)$ as the capacity of an edge (u,v), and $\pi(x)\pi(y)$ as the unit flow of a path $\delta(x,y)$. Then $\rho(\Delta)$ quantifies the maximum loading of an edge under the configuration Δ. If one edge with a small capacity is traversed by a huge number of paths with a high unit flow, it results in a constriction. Consider $\ell(\Delta)$ as the diameter of the configuration Δ. If the diameter is extremely large, it causes inefficient communication, especially among the states lying on the margin of the configuration. If it is possible to design the path system in a way that no edge is overloaded by paths and no two states are too far apart, then the chain can have a good mixing behavior. One of the key steps in the proof of the main result is identifying the path ensemble Δ^* (see Appendix A.3) which makes the mixing bound in (6) tight.

3 Main result

In this section, we prove the complexity of mixing time of the MTM algorithm for general model selection problems on a finite model space $\mathcal{X}$, where we assume that there is only one state with the highest posterior mass, denoted by x^*. Throughout the section, we may assume that $|\mathcal{X}|$ grows with the complexity parameter p (e.g., the number of variables in BVS), and the posterior distribution π and other related objects are implicitly parameterized by p.

3.1 A mixing time bound with a new class of weight functions

While extending the class of weight functions has been a main focus in the literature [27, 25], the choice of weight function is rarely discussed. We introduce a class of weight functions by using a function $h\colon \mathbb{R}_{>0} \to \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ that satisfies $h(u) = uh(1/u)$ for all $u > 0$; such a function h is called a *balancing function* [36]. The class of balancing functions is very broad since we can define a balancing function from an arbitrary positive function $h_0(u)$ for $u \geq 1$ by applying the balancing rule to the value of $h_0(u)$ for $0 < u < 1$. Typical choices of balancing functions include $\sqrt{u}$, $\min\{1, u\}$, $\max\{1, u\}$, $u/(u+1)$, and $u + 1$. The following proposition states that Algorithm 1 with the proposed balancing weight function induces a reversible Markov chain with π as its stationary distribution.

Proposition 2. *Suppose that a weight function is defined as*

$$w(y \mid x) = h\left(\frac{\pi(y)\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}(y,x)}{\pi(x)\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}(x,y)} \right), \qquad (4)$$

where h is a balancing function. Then, a Markov chain $\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{MTM}}$ induced by Algorithm 1 has a stationary distribution π.

The proof is deferred to Appendix A.2. Compared with the popular choice of weight function in the existing MTM literature such as $w(y \mid x) = \pi(y)$, the weight function we propose in (2) can be viewed as a transformed and scaled version with respect to the posterior probability at current state, e.g., $w(y \mid x) = \sqrt{\pi(y)/\pi(x)}$ if $h(u) = \sqrt{u}$ and a symmetric proposal kernel is used. Before providing a rigorous theorem on the mixing time bound of MTM under our new choice of $w(y \mid x)$, we give an intuitive explanation for why the existing unscaled weight function may have poor mixing properties. First, it is reasonable to assume that the true generating model, x^*, will have the largest posterior mass when the posterior contraction or the model selection consistency holds asymptotically.

167 Indeed, such results have been established for a variety of model selection problems [35, 39, 41].
168 On the other hand, model spaces are often endowed with a natural neighborhood relation such that
169 the degree of "model fit" (measured by goodness of fit and penalization on model size) between
170 neighboring models tends to have small difference. This implies that a small modification of a
171 model may lead to a marginal change in the posterior probability. For example, in a Bayesian
172 variable selection problem with p number of variables, the model space can be represented as a
173 set of binary vectors $\gamma \in \{0, 1\}^p$ where $\gamma_j = 1$ (resp. $\gamma_j = 0$) indicates j-th variable is included
174 (resp. excluded) in the model. Let us assume that γ^* is the true data generating model and has the
175 highest posterior, and define a Hamming distance $d_{\mathrm{H}}(\gamma, \gamma') = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \mathbb{1}\{\gamma_j \neq \gamma'_j\}$ for $\gamma, \gamma' \in \{0, 1\}^p$.
176 One often defines the neighborhood of γ as the set of states with

177 a small Hamming distance to γ [16, 35, 40], and models in the
178 neighborhood tend to have similar posterior probabilities. A state
179 with a large Hamming distance from γ^* usually has small posterior
180 probability because its structure is too different from the true data
181 generating model. Figure 1 depicts such relationship between poste-
182 rior probabilities and structural similarities among the models. Given
183 that γ is the current state, Step 2 of Algorithm 1 tends to propose a
184 neighboring state γ' with a higher posterior probability, so γ' tends
185 to be closer to γ^* in Hamming distance, i.e. $d_{\mathrm{H}}(\gamma', \gamma^*) < d_{\mathrm{H}}(\gamma, \gamma^*)$.
186 On average, the Hamming distance between a neighboring state of
187 γ' and γ^* will be smaller than that between a neighboring state of
188 γ with γ^*. Therefore, the expected value of posterior probability
189 of a neighboring state of γ' (in the denominator part in (2)) will
190 be smaller than that of a neighboring state of γ (in the numerator
191 part in (2)). If we resort to the weight function $w(\gamma' | \gamma) = \pi(\gamma')$,
192 this can cause a significantly low acceptance probability, especially
193 when the number of trials is large (due to the law of large num-
194 bers, the acceptance ratio converges to the ratio of average posterior
195 probabilities of the two neighborhoods); see also Appendix A.4 for
196 a concrete example. Our suggested weight function class in (4),
197 however, is able to mitigate this counterintuitive phenomenon by
198 "scaling" the weight function with respect to the current state. We
199 shall demonstrate the effectiveness of the class of weight functions
200 (4) in the simulation studies.

Figure 1: An illustration of the reason that the weight function $w(y \,|\, x) = \pi(y)$ may fail. Each vertical bar represents the posterior mass on the corresponding state, and thin lines connect neighboring states. The expected value of posterior probability of the neighborhood of γ' (red) is greater than that of γ (blue).

201 In order for the MTM procedure to efficiently sample states from a high posterior region, it is sensible
202 to assign a larger weight to those states with a higher posterior probability in the proposal, i.e. Step 2
203 of Algorithm 1. To this end, we only require h to be non-decreasing. Now we introduce the main
204 result, which states that the mixing time bound can be improved linearly in the number of trials N for
205 our locally balanced weighting scheme.

206 **Theorem 1.** *Let* $\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{MTM}}$ *denote a Markov chain induced by Algorithm 1 with a weight function (4)*
207 *with some non-decreasing balancing function h. Define*

$$\mathcal{S}(x) = \{x' \in \mathcal{N}(x) \colon \pi(x')/\pi(x) > p^{t_1}\}, \tag{5}$$

208 *for some constant t_1 and $s_0 = \max_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |\mathcal{S}(x)|$. Suppose that the following conditions hold with*
209 *$p \geq 2$ and $t_2, t_3, t_4 \geq 0$ being some constants that satisfy $t_1 < t_2$, $t_3 \leq t_4 < t_2$.*

210   *(i) There exists $x' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ such that $\pi(x')/\pi(x) \geq p^{t_2}$ for every $x \neq x^*$.*

211   *(ii) For any $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $p^{t_3} \leq |\mathcal{N}(x)| \leq p^{t_4}$.*

212   *(iii) $N = o\left(\min\left\{\frac{h(p^{t_2+t_3-t_4})}{h(p^{t_1+t_4-t_3})}, \frac{p^{t_3}}{s_0}\right\}\right)$*

213 *Then, we have the ϵ-mixing time of $\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{MTM}}$*

$$t_{\mathrm{mix}}(\epsilon) = O\left(\frac{1}{N}(p^{-t_4} - p^{-t_2})^{-1}\ell(\Delta^*) \log\left(\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \pi(x)\right)^{-1}\right), \tag{6}$$

214 *where Δ^* is a path ensemble defined in Appendix A.3.*

The proof is deferred to Appendix A.3. Condition (i) requires the posterior distribution to be unimodal with the peak at the model x^*. We emphasize that the unimodality is with respect to the neighborhood relation $\mathcal{N}$ and is usually satisfied with some appropriate choice of large enough neighborhood. For example, for Bayesian variable selection, it is shown in [35] that their proposed posterior may be multimodal if a neighborhood is defined as a set of models within 1-Hamming distance, whereas the 2-Hamming distance neighborhood satisfies Condition (i) with $t_2 = 2$. Similarly, the problem setting of community detection in [41] and that of structure learning in [39] satisfy (i) with some positive constant t_2. Next, Condition (ii) states that the neighborhood size $|\mathcal{N}(x)|$ should neither be too huge nor vary much from state to state. The purpose of this condition is to control the ratio $\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}(y, x)/\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}(x, y)$ in (4) so that the posterior ratio $\pi(y)/\pi(x)$ dominates the term. Last but not least, Condition (iii) implies that the number of trials N should not be arbitrarily large. This is consistent with the empirical observation of [24] that additional trials do not always result in better mixing. Condition (iii) also implies that $s_0 = o(p^{t_3})$ since $N \geq 1$. This seems to be a strong condition, since the number of neighboring states with a relatively large posterior probability with respect to the current state can be very large if we consider a state with the smallest posterior that is surrounded by states with greater posterior. Yet, it is a common practice to restrict the support of the prior to rule out unrealistic models by imposing some high-dimensional regularity assumptions, such as sparsity. For example, [35] introduced the parameter of the maximum number of important covariates in variable selection, and [39] considered the maximum in-degree and out-degree in structure learning to restrict the model space. In the same context, [41] suggested the use of a feasible set for the initial partition in the community detection problem. In this regard, we may consider $\mathcal{X}$ as the restricted space so that s_0 can be controlled. Most importantly, Condition (iii) provides a key idea on how to select the number of trial N, which will be discussed in Section 3.2.

Remark 1 (Problem-specific applications). Theorem 1 can be used to prove rapid mixing of the MTM algorithm for Bayesian variable selection [35] and structure learning [39] with an order N improvement of the mixing bound, given that the choice of N satisfies the condition (iii).

Remark 2 (Computational benefits). Since MTM with N trials requires calculating $2N - 1$ weight functions at each iteration, improving the mixing time bound by the factor of N leads to the same overall computational complexity as the single-try MH algorithm until the convergence of Markov chain. However, compared to the single-try MH with N times longer sequential iterations, calculation of N weight functions can be efficiently done in parallel. Further, for some model selection problems, calculating multiple weight functions can often be converted into a serial of matrix multiplication problems, and optimized linear algebra libraries such as BLAS [6] can be used to exploit multiple execution units and pipe-lining. Table 1 in our simulation study results shows that MTM with moderate choice of N significantly reduces the computation time until the convergence of Markov chain.

3.2 Choice of the number of trials

Motivated by Condition (iii) in Theorem 1, we propose an algorithm to choose the number of trials N. For conciseness, we shall only focus on illustrating the case when we have balancing function $h(u) = \sqrt{u}$ and symmetric proposals (known $t_3 = t_4$) so that Condition (iii) becomes $N = o\left(\min\{p^{(t_2-t_1)/2}, p^{t_3}/s_0\}\right)$, although the algorithm can be easily generalized to other choices of h and non-symmetric proposals.

Algorithm 2: The choice of the number of trials, when $h(u) = \sqrt{u}$ and known $t_3 = t_4$

Input: An initial state x_0, neighborhood $\mathcal{N}$, constant $\psi \in (0, 1)$

1 Step 1. Calculate $\log_p(\pi(y_j)/\pi(x_0))$ for all $y_j \in \mathcal{N}(x_0)$, $j = 1, \ldots, |\mathcal{N}(x_0)|$.

2 Step 2. Run k-means algorithm with k=2 on log-ratios $\{\log_p(\pi(y_j)/\pi(x_0))\}$ to obtain a partition, $\mathcal{C}_1$ (set of small log-ratios) and $\mathcal{C}_2$ (set of big log-ratios).

3 Step 3. Let $\hat{t}_2 = \min \mathcal{C}_2$ †, $\hat{t}_1 = \max \mathcal{C}_1$ and $\hat{s}_0 = |\mathcal{C}_2|$.

4 **while** $p^{(\hat{t}_2-\hat{t}_1)/2} < p^{t_3}/\hat{s}_0$ **do**

5 $\quad$ Update $\mathcal{C}_1 \leftarrow \mathcal{C}_1 \backslash \{\hat{t}_1\}$, $\hat{t}_1 \leftarrow \max \mathcal{C}_1$ and $\hat{s}_0 \leftarrow \hat{s}_0 + 1$.

Output: The number of trials $N = \lfloor (p^{t_3}/\hat{s}_0)^\psi \rfloor$

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† If $\hat{t}_2 < t_4$, redefine $\mathcal{C}_1$, $\mathcal{C}_2$ such that $\hat{t}_1 = \max \mathcal{C}_1 \leq t_4 < \min \mathcal{C}_2 = \hat{t}_2$. If no such $\mathcal{C}_2$ exists, set $\hat{t}_2 = t_4$, $\hat{s}_0 = 1$ and $\hat{t}_1 = \max \mathcal{C}_1$.

Algorithm 2 is depicted in fig. 2. In Step 1, log-probability ratio is calculated for all neighboring states of the initial state x_0. In Step 2, 2-means clustering algorithm identifies two subsets: the bad moves $\mathcal{C}_1$ and good moves $\mathcal{C}_2$. In Step 3, we set $\hat{t}_2 = \min \mathcal{C}_2$ which is motivated from Condition (i) of Theorem 1 where t_2 is a lower bound of log-probability ratios between the current state x and a good move x'. Although we considered any $x \in \mathcal{X}\backslash\{x^*\}$ in Condition (i), analyzing the initial state x_0 is not only computationally simple, but also gives a good guess

Figure 2: An illustration of Algorithm 2

of t_2 since as chain proceeds to the highest posterior state x^*, the number of good moves and the magnitude of posterior ratios generally decreases, for example in the Bayesian variable selection problem [40]. After t_2 is fixed, we first set $\hat{t}_1 = \max \mathcal{C}_1$, $\hat{s}_0 = |C_2|$ and gradually decrease t_1 (such that s_0 increases by one) until the "crossing" $p^{(\hat{t}_2 - \hat{t}_1)/2} > p^{t_3}/\hat{s}_0$ happens. The choice of $p^{t_3}/\hat{s}_0$ immediately after the crossing point approximates the worst-case scenario of $\min\{p^{(t_2-t_1)/2}, p^{t_3}/s_0\}$, hence providing a conservative estimate of N.

4 Simulation studies and discussion

In this section, we present the results for two Bayesian model selection problems, BVS and SBM. We defer the result for spatial clustering models to Appendix B.1 due to the page limit. Throughout the simulation studies, we use symmetric proposal kernels. We run single-try MH and MTM with different choices of $N \in \{5, 10, 50, 100, 500, 1000, 2000, 5000\}$ and four different choices of weight functions, one with (unscaled) ordinary weight function $w_{\text{ord}}(y \,|\, x) = \pi(y)$, and three with the proposed balancing functions $w_{\text{sqrt}}(y \,|\, x) = \sqrt{\pi(y)/\pi(x)}$, $w_{\min}(y \,|\, x) = \min\{1, \pi(y)/\pi(x)\}$, and $w_{\max}(y \,|\, x) = \max\{1, \pi(y)/\pi(x)\}$. We consider the scenarios where the data generating model x^* receives the highest posterior probability to verify our main theoretical results. Similarly to [40], two performance measures are considered: 1) $H = \min\{t : x_t = x^*\}$: the number of iterations until the Markov chain $(x_0, x_1, \ldots)$ hits x^*, 2) T_H: the wall time taken until the chain hits x^*.

4.1 Bayesian variable selection (BVS)

Under a high-dimensional linear model where the number of predictors p is much larger than the sample size n, BVS seeks to find the best subset of predictors using the sparsity-inducing prior. Consider the following sparsity-inducing prior of [35]:

$$\text{Linear model:} \quad \boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{X}_\gamma \boldsymbol{\beta}_\gamma + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}, \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathsf{N}\left(\boldsymbol{0}, \phi^{-1} I_n\right)$$

$$\text{Prior on } \boldsymbol{\beta}_\gamma \text{ and } \phi: \quad \boldsymbol{\beta}_\gamma \mid \phi, \gamma \sim \mathsf{N}\left(\boldsymbol{0}, \mathscr{G}\phi^{-1}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_\gamma^\top \boldsymbol{X}_\gamma\right)^{-1}\right), \quad \pi(\phi) \propto 1/\phi$$

$$\text{Sparsity prior:} \quad \pi(\gamma) \propto p^{-\kappa|\gamma|} \mathbb{1}\left[|\gamma| \leq s_{max}\right]$$

where $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the response vector, $\boldsymbol{X}_\gamma$ is the submatrix of design matrix $\boldsymbol{X}$ formed of all columns with $\gamma_j = 1$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}_\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^{|\gamma|}$ is the subvector of $\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ with nonzero coefficients, where $|\gamma| = \sum_{j=1}^p \gamma_j$. The hyperparameters $\mathscr{G}$, κ and $s_{\max}$ control the weight of prior effect [37], sparsity strength and the maximum model size, respectively. We consider the following random walk proposal kernel:

$$\mathbf{K}_{\text{RW}}(\gamma, \gamma') = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p}\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{N}_1(\gamma)}(\gamma') \text{ (single flip)} & \text{if } |\gamma| < s_{\max}, \\ \frac{1}{2p}\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{N}_1(\gamma)}(\gamma') + \frac{1}{2|\gamma|(p-|\gamma|)}\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{N}_2(\gamma)}(\gamma') \text{ (single or double flip)} & \text{if } |\gamma| = s_{\max}. \end{cases}$$

where $\mathcal{N}_1(\gamma) = \{\gamma' : d_{\text{H}}(\gamma, \gamma') = 1\}$ and $\mathcal{N}_2(\gamma) = \{\gamma' = (\gamma \cup \{j\})\backslash\{\ell\} : j \notin \gamma, \ell \in \gamma\}$.

With $n = 1000$ and $p = 5000$, we consider different settings of design matrix where each row $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ follows $\boldsymbol{x}_i \overset{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathsf{N}(0, I_p)$ (independent) or $\boldsymbol{x}_i \overset{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathsf{N}(0, \Sigma)$, $\Sigma_{jj'} = \exp(-|j - j'|)$ (dependent). The response vector $\boldsymbol{y}$ is generated from $\boldsymbol{y} \sim \mathsf{N}(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, I_n)$, with $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ having 10 nonzero entries at the

first 10 coordinates: $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{1:10} = \mathrm{SNR}\sqrt{\log p/n}(2, -3, 2, 2, -3, 3, -2, 3, -2, 3)$ where $\mathrm{SNR} \in \{2, 4\}$ is a signal-to-noise ratio. Under four different settings, we simulated 50 replicate datasets. Per each replicated data, algorithms are randomly initialized with state γ_0 such that $\gamma_0 \cap \gamma^* = \emptyset$ and $d_{\mathrm{H}}(\gamma_0, \gamma^*) = 20$ which implies $H = 20$ is the minimum required hit iteration. All hyperparameter setups, the number of MCMC iterations, and other details are deferred to Appendix B.2.

Figure 3: BVS simulation results for independent design and SNR = 4. (Left) Trace plots of unnormalized log-posterior probability using single-try MH and MTM ($N = 10$) with square root weighting function. (Right) Boxplot of H, the number of iterations until hit, against different choice of weight function and N based on 50 replicates.

Results under independent design with SNR=4 are summarized in fig. 3. The trace plot shows that single-try MH reaches the true state γ^* at around 20,000 iterations, whereas the MTM with $N = 10$ reaches the true state γ^* at around 2,000 iterations, smaller by a factor of 10. The boxplot confirms our findings that larger number of trials N is not always desirable, especially when using the ordinary weight function w_{ord}. The proposed weight functions using three different balancing functions perform much better than w_{ord} for large N. Especially, the performance of w_{min} seems to be robust to the choice of large N in the high SNR case. This can be explained by the fact that the denominator in (2) is often larger in high SNR data, and the choice of $\min\{1, \pi(y)/\pi(x)\}$ limits its growth; see also Section 3.1. The choice of N suggested from Algorithm 2 with $\psi = 0.9$ is overall reasonable, which has a median of 349 over 50 datasets. The detailed results for other settings are available at Appendix B.2.

4.2 Stochastic block model (SBM)

SBM [17] is a popular generative model of graph which assumes a block structure of edge connection probabilities to describe community structure. We consider Bayesian SBM [26] by assigning prior on edge probabilities and prior on partition $(z_i) = \mathbf{z} \in \{1, \ldots, K\}^p$ with fixed number of clusters K, where z_i indicates membership label of i-th node. Here each model is represented as a partition $\mathbf{z}$, and the main interest is to find $\mathbf{z}$ that best describes the observed graph. We follow the prior of [41]:

$$\text{Edge appearance:} \quad A_{ij} \mid Q, \mathbf{z} \overset{\mathrm{ind}}{\sim} \mathsf{Bernoulli}(Q_{z_i z_j}), 1 \leq i < j \leq p$$

$$\text{Prior on blockwise probabilities:} \quad Q_{uv} \overset{\mathrm{iid}}{\sim} \mathsf{Beta}(\kappa_1, \kappa_2), 1 \leq u \leq v \leq K$$

$$\text{Prior on partition:} \quad \pi(\mathbf{z}) \propto \mathbb{1}(\mathbf{z} \in S_\alpha)$$

The restricted space $S_\alpha = \left\{\mathbf{z} : \sum_{i=1}^p \mathbb{1}(z_i = u) \in \left[\frac{p}{\alpha K}, \frac{\alpha p}{K}\right] \text{ for all } u = 1, \ldots, K\right\}$ for some $\alpha > 0$ excludes partitions whose block sizes differ too much. The graph is generated from the homogeneous SBM [14, 41], where $Q_{uv} = a$ if $u = v$ and $Q_{uv} = b$ otherwise. Both results assume the true partition $\mathbf{z}^*$ is balanced; i.e. the block sizes are all the same which ensures $\mathbf{z}^* \in S_\alpha$. The Chernoff-Hellinger divergence (CH) [1], defined as $\mathrm{CH} := p(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2/(K \log p)$ for $a, b \asymp \log p/p$, can be interpreted as a signal-to-noise ratio, and must be greater than 1 to ensure strong consistency [38, 1, 41]. We consider the following proposal kernel where $\tilde{d}_{\mathrm{H}}$ is a permutation-invariant Hamming distance [38]:

$$\mathbf{K}_{\mathrm{RW}}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{z}') = 1/(p(K-1))\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z})}(\mathbf{z}'), \quad \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}) = \{\mathbf{z}' : \tilde{d}_{\mathrm{H}}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{z}') = 1\} \quad \text{(single flip)}$$

With the number of nodes $p = 1000$, we consider two different settings of the blocks (clusters) $K \in \{2, 5\}$ with true partition $\mathbf{z}^*$ being balanced. In each setting of K, we generated graph from the homogeneous SBM and where edge connection probabilities are set such that CH ≈ 2 (weak signal) and CH ≈ 10 (high signal). Under the four different settings of (K, CH) pair, we simulated 50 replicate datasets. For each replicated data, algorithms are randomly initialized with state $\mathbf{z}_0$ such that $\tilde{d}_{\text{H}}(\mathbf{z}_0, \mathbf{z}^*) = 400$ which implies $H = 400$ is the minimum required hit iteration. All hyperparameter setups, the number of MCMC iterations, and other details are deferred to Appendix B.3.

Figure 4: (Left) A graph generated from SBM with $p = 100, K = 2, a = 0.32$, and $b = 0.02$ so that CH ≈ 2. Node shape (square, circle) denotes the true partition. Node color (blue, yellow) represents the initial state $\mathbf{z}_0$ satisfying $\tilde{d}_{\text{H}}(\mathbf{z}_0, \mathbf{z}^*) = 40$. (Right) Boxplot of H against different weight functions and N based on 50 replicates when $p = 1000, K = 2$, and CH ≈ 2.

Results for $K = 2$ and CH ≈ 2 are summarized in fig. 4. Left shows an example of SBM data and initialization when $p = 100$. The boxplot of H is similar to that of fig. 3: the ordinary weight function quickly deteriorates as N increases, but other weight functions of form (4) mostly converge with larger choice of N, although some Markov chains fail to converge due to the low CH . Especially, now the performance of $w_{\max}$ or w_{sqrt} is better than $w_{\min}$ when N is large in the low SNR case. This can be explained by the fact that in low SNR data, there are few neighboring states that has high probability ratio. It is important to catch such states to increase the acceptance ratio (2), and the min weight function cannot do this efficiently because of it is truncated at 1. The choice of N suggested from Algorithm 2 with $\psi = 0.9$ has median of 15 over 50 datasets. The detailed simulation results for other settings are available at Appendix B.3.

Finally, Table 1 provides the summary of T_H for the previous two examples, which shows clear computational benefit of MTM over the single-try MH due to the parallelism. As N increases, computation becomes more demanding compared to the decreasing rate of H, so the optimal choice of N with respect to T_H is often less than the minimizer of H.

Table 1: Summary of T_H, median wall time (in seconds) until the Markov chain hit the highest posterior state, for the previous two examples using the square root weight function over 50 replicates.

N		1	5	10	50	100	500	1000	2000	5000
T_H	BVS, indep, SNR= 4	1.30	0.81	0.46	0.11	0.07	**0.04**	0.05	0.09	0.30
	SBM, $K = 2$, CH ≈ 2	0.82	0.40	**0.35**	0.48	0.75	1.49	2.15	3.78	9.30

Discussion and future work In the paper, we prove that the mixing time bound of the MTM algorithm is smaller than that of the MH algorithm by a factor of the number of trials. Motivated by the observation that popular choices of weight function can cause mixing problems, we propose a new class of weight functions for which a mixing time bound is proven. We also suggest a theoretically guided choice of N for practical use. Future research may investigate the mixing time of other generalizations of MTM such as the case with correlated weight functions. It will also be of interest to extend MTM and analyze its mixing time to better handle the potential multimodality in the target distribution, by combining it with techniques such as annealing or tempering [8].

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