

Stat 535 C - Statistical Computing & Monte Carlo Methods

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1.1– Outline

- Classical “exact” simulation methods.
- Accept/Reject.
- Variations over the Accept/Reject algorithm

2.1– Summary of Last Lecture

- Let $\pi(x)$ be a probability density.
- Monte Carlo approximation is given by

$$\hat{\pi}_N(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{X^{(i)}}(x) \text{ where } X^{(i)} \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \pi.$$

- For any $\varphi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$E_{\hat{\pi}_N}(\varphi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \varphi(X^{(i)}) \simeq E_{\pi}(\varphi)$$

and more precisely

$$E_X[E_{\hat{\pi}_N}(\varphi)] = E_{\pi}(\varphi) \text{ and } \text{var}_X(E_{\hat{\pi}_N}(\varphi)) = \frac{\text{var}_{\pi}(\varphi)}{N}.$$

2.1– Summary of Last Lecture

- If we could sample from any distribution π easily, then everything would be easy.
- Unfortunately, there is no generic algorithm to sample exactly from any π .
- Today, we discuss simple methods which are the building blocks of more complex algorithms; i.e. MCMC and SMC.

3.1– Sampling from Uniform Random Variables

- All algorithms discussed here rely on the availability of a generator of uniform random variables in $[0, 1]$.
- It is impossible to get such numbers and we only get pseudo-random numbers which look like they are i.i.d. $\mathcal{U}[0, 1]$.
- There are a few standard very good generators available. We will not give any detail as their constructions are based on techniques very different from the ones we address here.

3.2– Sampling from A Discrete Distribution

- Consider $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and

$$\pi(X = 1) = \frac{1}{6}, \quad \pi(X = 2) = \frac{2}{6}, \quad \pi(X = 3) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

- Define the cdf of X for $x \in [0, 3]$ as

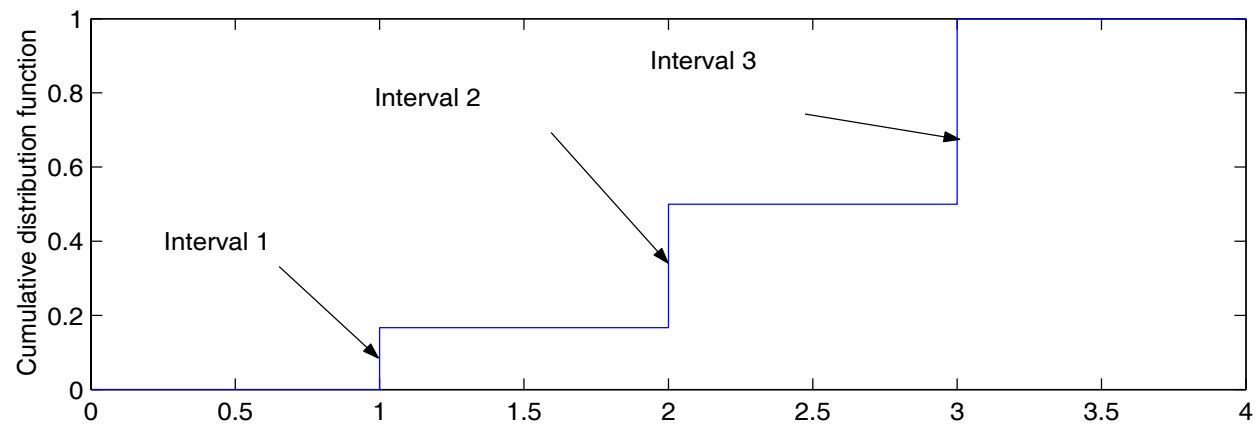
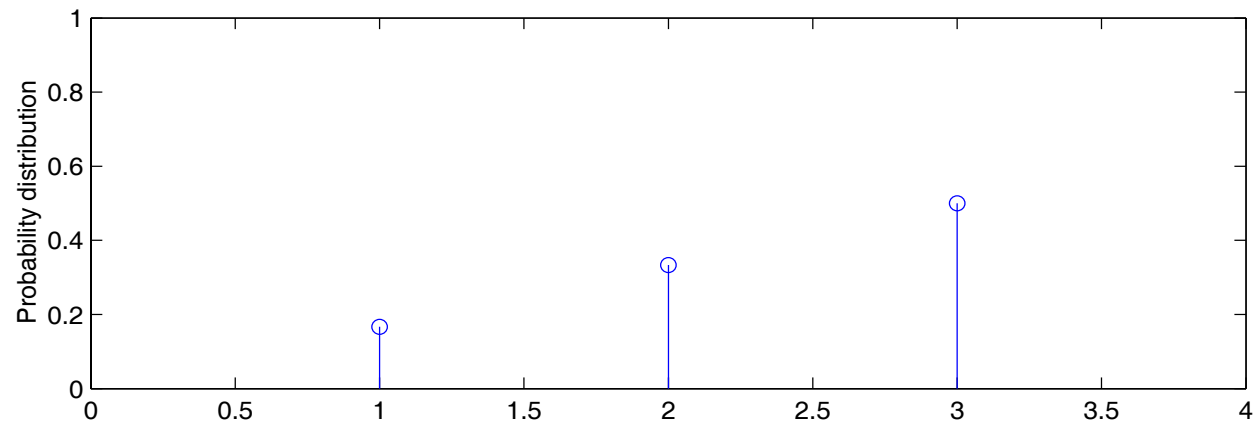
$$F_X(x) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \pi(X = i) \mathbb{I}(i \leq x)$$

and its inverse for $u \in [0, 1]$

$$F_X^{-1}(u) = \inf \{x \in \mathcal{X}; F_X(x) \geq u\}$$

3.2– Sampling from A Discrete Distribution

The distribution and cdf of a discrete random variable



3.2– Sampling from A Discrete Distribution

- To sample from this discrete distribution, sample $U \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 1]$.
- Find $X = F_X^{-1}(U)$.
- The probability of U falling in the vertical interval i is precisely equal to the probability $\pi(X = i)$.

3.3– Sampling from a continuous distribution: Inverse Method

- Assume the distribution has a density, then the cdf takes the form

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \pi(u) I(u \leq x) du = \int_{-\infty}^x \pi(u) du.$$

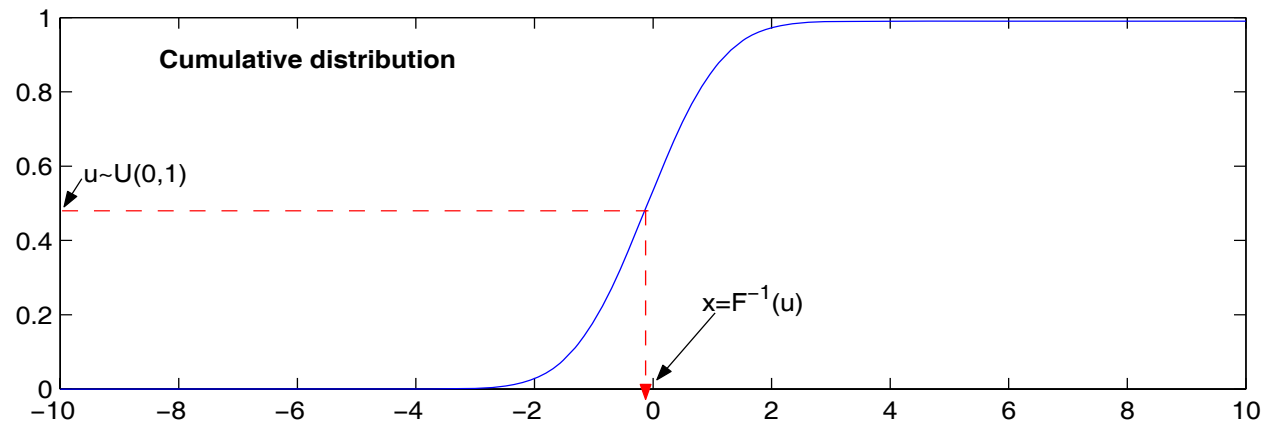
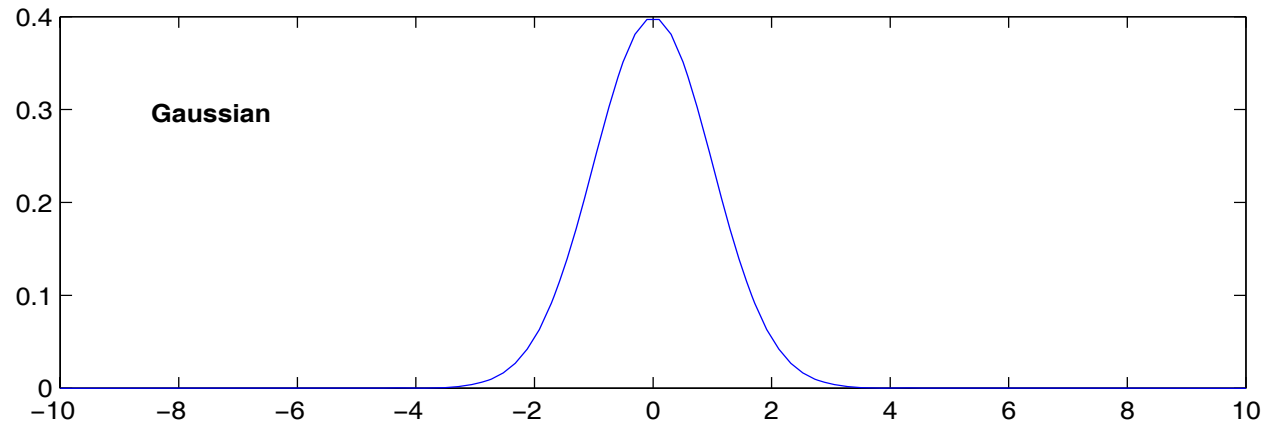
- We would like to use the same algorithm; i.e.

$$U \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 1] \text{ and set } X = F_X^{-1}(U).$$

- Question: Do we have $X \sim \pi$?

3.3– Sampling from a continuous distribution: Inverse Method

The distribution and cdf of a normal distribution



3.3– Sampling from a continuous distribution: Inverse Method

- Proof of validity:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr (X \leq x) &= \Pr (F_X^{-1} (U) \leq x) \\ &= \Pr (U \leq F_X (x)) \text{ since } F_X \text{ is non decreasing} \\ &= \int_0^1 \mathbb{I} (u \leq F_X (x)) du \text{ since } U \sim \mathcal{U} [0, 1] \\ &= F_X (x)\end{aligned}$$

- The cdf of X produced by the algorithm above is precisely the cdf of π !

3.4– Inverse Method: Example

- Consider the exponential of parameter 1 then

$$\pi(x) = \exp(-x) \mathbb{I}_{[0, \infty)}$$

thus the cdf of X is

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \pi(u) du = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 1 - \exp(-x) & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

- Thus the inverse cdf is

$$1 - \exp(-x) = u \Leftrightarrow x = -\log(1 - u) = F_X^{-1}(u).$$

- Inverse method: $U \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 1]$ then $X = -\log(1 - U) \sim \pi$
and $X = -\log(U) \sim \pi$.

3.4– Inverse Method: Example

- Simple method to sample univariate distributions.
- This method is only limited to simple cases where the inverse cdf admits a closed form or can be tabulated.
- In practice, it is really very limited.

3.5– General Transformation Methods

- ‘Idea’: Using the fact that π is related to other distributions easier to sample.
- This is very specific!
- If $X_i \sim \text{Exp}(1)$ then

$$Y = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} X_j \sim \chi_{2\nu}^2,$$

$$Y = \beta \sum_{j=1}^{\alpha} X_j \sim \mathcal{G}(\alpha, \beta),$$

$$Y = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{\alpha} X_j}{\sum_{j=1}^{\alpha+\beta} X_j} \sim \text{Be}(\alpha, \beta).$$

3.6– Box Muller Algorithm to sample Gaussian random variables

- Consider $X_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and $X_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ then its polar coordinates (R, θ) are independent and distributed according to

$$R^2 = X_1^2 + X_2^2 \sim \mathcal{Exp}(1/2),$$

$$\theta \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 2\pi].$$

- It is simple to simulate $R = \sqrt{-2 \log(U_1)}$ and $\theta = 2\pi U_2$ where $U_1, U_2 \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 1]$ then

$$X_1 = R \cos \theta = \sqrt{-2 \log(U_1)} \cos(2\pi U_2),$$

$$X_2 = R \sin \theta = \sqrt{-2 \log(U_1)} \sin(2\pi U_2).$$

- By construction X_1 and X_2 are two independent $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ rvs.

3.7– Simulation by Composition

- Assume we have

$$\pi(x) = \int \bar{\pi}(x, y) dy$$

where it is easy to sample from $\pi(x, y)$ but difficult/impossible to compute $\pi(x)$.

- In this case, it is sufficient to sample $(X, Y) \sim \bar{\pi} \Rightarrow X \sim \pi$.
- One can sample from $\bar{\pi}(x, y) = \bar{\pi}(y) \bar{\pi}(x|y)$ by

$$Y \sim \bar{\pi} \text{ then } X|Y \sim \bar{\pi}(\cdot|Y).$$

3.8– Simulation by Composition for Mixture

- Assume one wants to sample from

$$\pi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^p \pi_i \times \pi_i(x)$$

where $\pi_i > 0$, $\sum_{i=1}^p \pi_i = 1$ and $\pi_i(x) \geq 0$, $\int \pi_i(x) dx = 1$.

- We can introduce $Y \in \{1, \dots, p\}$ and introduce

$$\bar{\pi}(x, y) = \pi_y \times \pi_y(x) \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \int \bar{\pi}(x, y) dy = \pi(x) \\ \int \bar{\pi}(x, y) dx = \bar{\pi}(y) = \pi_y \end{cases}$$

- To sample from $\pi(x)$, then sample $Y \sim \bar{\pi}$ (discrete distribution such that $\Pr(Y = k) = \pi_k$) then

$$X|Y \sim \bar{\pi}(\cdot|Y) = \pi_Y.$$

3.9– Simulation by Composition: Scale Mixture of Gaussians

- A very useful application of the composition method is for scale mixture of Gaussians; i.e.

$$\pi(x) = \int \mathcal{N}(x; 0, 1/y) \bar{\pi}(y) dy.$$

- For various choices of the mixing distributions $\bar{\pi}(y)$, we obtain distributions $\pi(x)$ which are t-student, α -stable, Laplace, logistic.

- Example: If

$$Y \sim \chi_{\nu}^2 \text{ and } X|Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \nu/y)$$

then X is marginally distributed according to a t-Student with ν degrees of freedom.

- Conditional upon Y , X is Gaussian: This structure will be used to develop later efficient MCMC algorithm.

3.10– Accept Reject - The first generic method

- The rejection method allows one to sample according to a distribution π defined on X only known up to a proportionality constant, say $\pi \propto \pi^*$.
- It relies on samples generated from a *proposal* distribution q on X . q might as well be known only up to a normalising constant, say $q \propto q^*$.
- We need q to ‘dominate’ π ; i.e.

$$C = \sup_{x \in \mathsf{X}} \frac{\pi^*(x)}{q^*(x)} < +\infty$$

- This implies $\pi^*(x) > 0 \Rightarrow q^*(x) > 0$ but also that the tails of $q^*(x)$ must be thicker than the tails of $\pi^*(x)$.

3.11– Accept Reject - Illustration

Consider $C' \geq C$. Then the accept/reject procedure proceeds as follows:

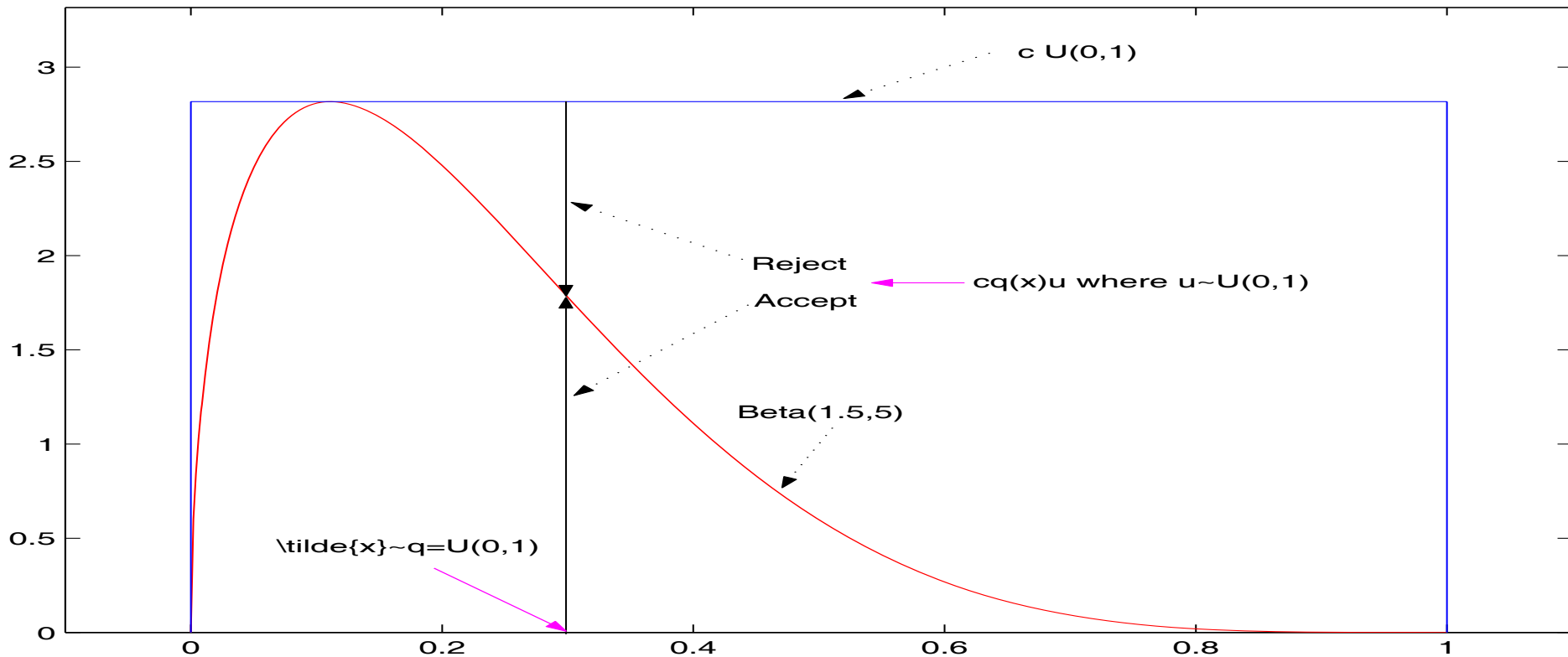
Accept/Reject procedure

1. Sample $Y \sim q$ and $U \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.
2. If $U < \frac{\pi^*(Y)}{C'q^*(Y)}$ then return Y ; otherwise return to step 1.

3.11– Accept Reject - Illustration

The idea behind the rejection method for $\pi(x) = \pi^*(x) = \mathcal{B}e(x; 1.5, 5)$,

$$q(x) = q^*(x) = \mathcal{U}_{[0,1]}(x), C' = C.$$



3.12– Accept Reject - Proof of Validity

• We now prove that $\Pr (Y \leq x | Y \text{ accepted}) = \Pr (X \leq x)$.

• We have for any $x \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr (Y \leq x \text{ and } Y \text{ accepted}) &= \int_0^1 \int_{-\infty}^x \mathbb{I} \left(u \leq \frac{\pi^* (y)}{C' q^* (y)} \right) q (y) \times 1 dy du \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{\pi^* (y)}{C' q^* (y)} q (y) dy \\ &= \frac{\int_{-\infty}^x \pi^* (y) dy}{C' \int_{\mathcal{X}} q^* (y) dy}. \end{aligned}$$

• The probability of being accepted is the marginal of $\Pr (Y \leq x \text{ and } Y \text{ accepted})$

$$\Pr (Y \text{ accepted}) = \frac{\int_{\mathcal{X}} \pi^* (y) dy}{C' \int_{\mathcal{X}} q^* (y) dy}.$$

3.12– Accept Reject - Proof of Validity

- Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(Y \leq x | Y \text{ accepted}) &= \frac{\Pr(Y \leq x \text{ and } Y \text{ accepted})}{\Pr(Y \text{ accepted})} \\ &= \frac{\int_{-\infty}^x \pi^*(y) dy}{\int_{\mathcal{X}} \pi^*(y) dy} = \int_{-\infty}^x \pi(y) dy.\end{aligned}$$

- *Example:* We want to sample from $\mathcal{B}e(x; \alpha, \beta) \propto x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}$ using $\mathcal{U}_{[0,1]}$.

One can find

$$\sup_{x \in [0,1]} \frac{x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}}{1}$$

analytically for $\alpha, \beta > 1$! We do not need the normalizing constant of $\mathcal{B}e$.

3.13– Accept Reject - Efficiency

- The acceptance probability $\Pr(Y \text{ accepted})$ is a measure of efficiency.
- The expected number of trials before accepting a candidate is

$$\frac{1}{\Pr(Y \text{ accepted})}.$$

- The number of trials before success is thus an unbiased estimate of

$$\frac{1}{\Pr(Y \text{ accepted})}.$$

- This is important to better understand Metropolis-Hastings.

3.14– Accept Reject as a Sampling through composition

- Almost unknown result (Peterson & Kronmal, 1982): One can rewrite

$$\pi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i \pi_i(x)$$

where $p_i = p(1-p)^{i-1}$ and

$$p = \Pr\left(U \leq \frac{\pi^*(X)}{Cq^*(X)}\right).$$

- Instead of simulating from $\mathcal{Geo}(p)$ directly which is impossible, one simulate an element which admits this probability distribution.

3.15– Alternative Formulation of Accept Reject

- In the standard Rejection algorithm, the candidate is sampled before U . This is not necessary.

- **Proposition** (Beskos et al., 2005): Let $(Y_n, I_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. rvs taking values in $X \times \{0, 1\}$ such that $Y_1 \sim q$ and

$$\Pr(I_1 = 1 | Y_1 = y) = \frac{\pi^*(y)}{Cq^*(y)}$$

Define $\tau = \min \{i \geq 1 : I_i = 1\}$, then $Y_\tau \sim \pi$.

- This result is useful if there are ways of constructing condition for the acceptance or rejection of the current proposed element Y from minimal information about it.

3.16– Accept Reject - Example

- The target π is given by

$$\pi(x) \propto \pi^*(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) m(x)$$

where $m(x) \leq M$ for any $x \in \mathsf{X}$.

- If we use $q(x) = q^*(x) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right)$, then we have

$$\frac{\pi^*(x)}{q^*(x)} \leq C_1 = (2\pi)^{1/2} M \text{ and } \Pr(Y \text{ accepted}) = \frac{\int_{\mathsf{X}} \pi^*(y) dy}{C_1}.$$

- If we use $q^*(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right)$, then we have

$$\frac{\pi^*(x)}{q^*(x)} \leq C_2 = M \text{ and } \Pr(Y \text{ accepted}) = \frac{\int_{\mathsf{X}} \pi^*(y) dy}{C_2 (2\pi)^{1/2}} = \frac{\int_{\mathsf{X}} \pi^*(y) dy}{C_1}$$

- You don't lose anything by not knowing the normalizing constant of q^* .

3.17– Accept Reject - Application to Bayesian Estimation

- Consider a Bayesian model: prior $\pi(\theta)$ and likelihood $f(x|\theta)$.
- The posterior distribution is given by

$$\pi(\theta|x) = \frac{\pi(\theta) f(x|\theta)}{\int_{\Theta} \pi(\theta) f(x|\theta) d\theta} \propto \pi^*(\theta|x) \text{ where } \pi^*(\theta|x) = \pi(\theta) f(x|\theta).$$

- We can use the prior distribution as a candidate distribution $q(\theta) = q^*(\theta) = \pi(\theta)$ as long as

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \frac{\pi^*(\theta|x)}{q^*(\theta)} = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} f(x|\theta) \leq C.$$

- In many applications, the likelihood is bounded so one can use the rejection procedure and it is accepted with proba $\int_{\Theta} \pi(\theta) f(x|\theta) d\theta / C$. End of the course???

3.18– The Rejection method does not work well in high-dimension

- Consider the case where $\mathbb{X} = \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\pi(\theta) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i^2}{2}\right)$$

and

$$q_\sigma(\theta) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{n/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- We have for any $\sigma > 1$

$$\frac{\pi(\theta)}{q_\sigma(\theta)} = \sigma^n \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\right)\right) \leq \sigma^n \text{ for any } \theta$$

and

$$\Pr(Y \text{ accepted}) = \frac{1}{\sigma^n}$$

- Despite having a very good proposal then the acceptance probability decreases exponentially fast with the dimension of the problem.

3.19– Advantages and Drawbacks of the Rejection method

Advantages.

- Rather universal, and compared to the inverse cdf method requires less algebraic properties.
- Neither normalisation constant of π nor that of q are needed.

Drawbacks.

- How to construct the proposal $q(x)$ automatically?
- Typically the performance of the method decrease exponentially with the dimension of the problem.

3.20– Envelope Rejection method

- Squeeze principle: Assume we have

$$q_L^*(x) \leq \pi^*(x) \leq Cq^*(x)$$

then we can modify the algorithm as follows.

Envelope Accept/Reject procedure

1. Sample $Y \sim q$ and $U \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.
2. If $U \leq \frac{q_L^*(Y)}{C'q^*(Y)}$ then return Y ;
3. Otherwise, accept X if $U < \frac{\pi^*(Y)}{C'q^*(Y)}$, otherwise return to step 1.

3.21– Adaptive Rejection Sampling

- Consider the class of univariate log-concave densities; i.e. we have

$$\frac{\partial^2 \log \pi(x)}{\partial x^2} < 0.$$

- The idea is to construct automatically an piecewise linear upper (and lower) bound for the target.

3.21– Adaptive Rejection Sampling

Here a nice graph should appear but it does not for whatever reason.

See Fig. 2.5, page 57 in Monte Carlo Statistical Methods.

3.21– Adaptive Rejection Sampling

- Initialize $n = 0$ and \mathcal{S}_0

At iteration $n \geq 1$

1. Generate $Y \sim q_n$.
2. If $U \leq \frac{\pi(Y)}{C' q_n(Y)}$ then return Y ; otherwise set $\mathcal{S}_{n+1} = \mathcal{S}_n \cup \{Y\}$.

3.22– Adaptive Rejection Sampling: Example

- Consider n data (x_i, Y_i)

$$Y_i | x_i \sim \text{Poisson}(a + bx_i).$$

and we set the prior

$$\pi(a, b) = \mathcal{N}(a; 0, \sigma^2) \mathcal{N}(b; 0, \tau^2)$$

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} \log \pi(a | x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}, b) &= a \sum y_i - e^a \sum e^{x_i b} - a^2 / 2\sigma^2 \\ \Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \log \pi(a | x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}, b)}{\partial a^2} &= -e^a \sum e^{x_i b} - \sigma^{-2} < 0. \end{aligned}$$

- Thus $\pi(a | x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}, b)$ is log-concave, similarly $\pi(b | x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}, a)$ is log-concave.

3.23– Summary

- There exists standard techniques to sample from classical distributions.
- Rejection is useful for small non-standard distributions but collapses for most “interesting” problems.
- These algorithms will be building blocks of more complex Monte Carlo algorithms.