## Introduction to Monte Carlo and MCMC

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## Introduction

- Can we use randomness to analyze or solve deterministic situations?
- We know that (in many cases) large sets of random samples will begin to approximate some kind of deterministic behavior.
- For example, flipping a fair coin enough times will approximate a 50-50 distribution of heads to tails.



■ The idea for Monte Carlo methods was invented by Stanislaw Ulam, named after the Monte Carlo Casino and his uncle's gambling addiction.

Stanislaw Ulam (1909-1984)



### What does Monte Carlo do?

It uses random sampling in an effort to solve a variety of deterministic problems, including:

- Creating a desired probability distribution
- Approximating unknown values
- Calculating (multidimensional) integrals
- In computing, random number selection is only pseudo-random.
- We assume that these pseudo-random generators are de facto truly random, and behave identically.
- We can 'set seed' of the pseudo-random generator



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### Generating Random Numbers with Desired Distribution:

- Inversion Method
- Acceptance-Rejection Method

### **Inversion Method:**

- For density function f(x), calculate the cumulative distribution function  $F(x) = \int f(y)dy$ .
- Take U = F(x), which yields  $x = Q(U) = F^{-1}(U)$ .
- Generate U on uniform Distribution on [0, 1], then calculate x, which will follow the desired distribution.
- This only works if f(x) can be integrated, which is not always the case!



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## **Acceptance-Rejection Method:**

- This method is more feasible in some cases, as it doesn't need integration.
- Generate x and y on uniform distributions [0, a] and [0, b], respectively.
- If  $y_i \le f(x_i)$  for point  $(x_i, y_i)$ , then accept the point, and return  $x_i$ .
- If not, then reject the point.
- If f(x) is integrable, the two methods work similarly.



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### **Example:**

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Take  $f(x) = \frac{1}{4}x + \frac{1}{4}$  for  $x \in [0, 2]$  and 0 otherwise.

### Inversion Method:

- We see that  $F(x) = \int_{0}^{x} f(y) dy = \frac{1}{8}x^{2} + \frac{1}{4}x$ .
- Hence.

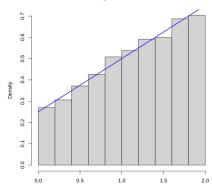
$$U = \frac{1}{8}x^2 + \frac{1}{4}x = 8U + 1 = (x+1)^2 = x = \sqrt{8U+1} - 1$$

• Generate U on uniform distribution on [0,1], and x will follow the distribution of f(x).



```
set.seed(316)
u <- runif(10000, min=0, max=1)
rand_vals <- -1 + sqrt(8*u+1)
# rand vals
hist(rand_vals, prob=T, breaks=10)
dens <- function(x)\{1/4*x+1/4\}
lines(rand_vals, dens(rand_vals), col="blue", lwd=2)
```

#### Histogram of rand\_vals



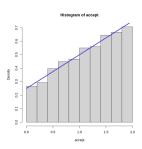


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## **Acceptance-Rejection Method:**

We generate random values x on [0,2] and random values of yon [0,3/4] (since  $f(x) \leq 3/4$ ). If  $y_i \leq f(x_i)$ , accept the point and return  $x_i$ ; else reject the point.

```
set.seed(316)
x <- runif(10000, min=0, max=2)
v <- runif(10000, min=0, max=3/4)
dens <- function(x)\{1/4*x+1/4\}
accept <- ifelse(y<=dens(x),x, NA)
# accept
hist(accept, prob=T, breaks=10)
dens <- function(x)\{1/4*x+1/4\}
lines(accept, dens(accept), col="blue", lwd=2)
```





## Finding unknown deterministic value using random sampling:

- Now, we turn to finding a deterministic value using Monte Carlo random sampling.
- For this, we need the estimator to be *consistent*: i.e.  $T_N$ converges to  $\theta$  in probability:

$$P[|T_N - \theta| \ge \epsilon] \to 0, \forall \epsilon > 0$$



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- To determine the number of Monte Carlo samples needed to get a desired level of accuracy, we have the Chebyshev and Hoeffding inequalities.
- Chebyshev Inequality:

$$P[|T_N - \theta| \ge \epsilon] \le \frac{Var(T_N)}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{N\epsilon^2} \le \frac{1}{4N\epsilon^2}$$

Hoeffding Inequality:

$$P[|T_N - \theta| \ge \epsilon] \le 2e^{-\frac{2N\epsilon^2}{(b-a)^2}}$$
 when  $T_N \in [a, b]$ .

Hoeffding needs fewer samples that Chebyshev, so it is typically used.



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- To get 2 decimal precision with probability 0.975 or higher, we have  $\epsilon = \frac{0.01}{2} = 0.005$ ,  $\delta = 0.025$ .
- Chebyshev takes  $\frac{1}{4N*0.005^2} \le 0.025 => N \ge 400,000$ .
- Hoeffding takes  $2e^{-\frac{2N*0.005^2}{(1-0)^2}} < 0.025 => N > 87,641.$
- We use N = 87,641 samples for Monte Carlo estimation.



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```
repet <- 87641
output <- function(n){
  replicate(n, sample(x=1:6, size=8, replace=TRUE))
}
set.seed(316)
x <- output(repet)
Cond <- function(x){
  ifelse(sum(x==1)>=3 & sum(x==6)<=1,TRUE,FALSE)
}
z <- apply(x,2,Cond)
mean(z)</pre>
```

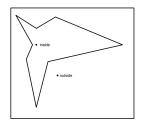
0.100603598772264

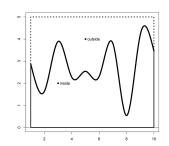


## Monte Carlo Integration

- It is possible to estimate an area or integral using Monte Carlo methods.
- We know that calculating an integral is equivalent to calculating an expected value.
- As such, we can use a strategy similar to the acceptance-rejection method to estimate integrals.
- For this, the estimate must be unbiased  $(E(T_N) = \theta)$ .







- $\blacksquare$  To estimate an area, again generate random values of xand y on  $[a_1, a_2]$  and  $[b_1, b_2]$ , respectively.
- If point  $(x_i, y_i)$  is inside the area, accept it; else reject it.





In that case, you can calculate the area as the proportion of accepted points to total points multiplied by the large area:

$$Area = p_{accept} * (a_2 - a_1)(b_2 - b_1)$$

Although not as efficient as the rectangular method for estimating 1-D integrals, Monte Carlo is excellent for calculating multi-dimensional integrals which would be computationally impossible with traditional methods.



## Markov Chain Monte Carlo

- Now that we have established how Monte Carlo methods. work, we turn our attention to Markov Chains.
- In particular, while in Monte Carlo we assumed that each point was independent of the others, in Markov Chains that is not the case.
- Instead, we incorporate a discrete time component into the random sampling process of Monte Carlo.





- Markov Chains fulfil the **Markov Property**:
- For a sequence of values  $(X_1, X_2, ..., X_N)$ , the stochastic outcome of  $X_t$  depends on and only on the value of  $X_{t-1}$ .
- The distribution of  $X_t$  is described using the transition probability  $p_x(y) = P[X_t = y | X_{t-1} = x].$
- The transition probabilities can be summarized in a transition matrix, which allows the invariant probability to be solved using linear algebra.
- **Brownian motion** is an example of Markov Chains!



The transition matrix takes the form:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & C & T \\
C & (4/5 & 1/5) \\
T & (3/4 & 1/4)
\end{array}$$



■ As an initial guess, we say that 50% of vehicles are trucks.

**MCMC** 

```
Nsteps <- 10
Mat \leftarrow matrix(c(0.8,0.75,0.2,0.25),2,2)
probs <- matrix(0,2,Nsteps)</pre>
probs[,1]=c(0.5,0.5)
                    # Initial guess of probability
for (k in 2:Nsteps) probs[.k] = t(Mat) %*% probs[.k-1]
probs
                            A matrix: 2 × 10 of type dbl
   0.775 0.78875 0.7894375 0.7894719 0.7894736 0.7894737 0.7894737 0.7894737
```



- As can be seen, the estimate quickly reaches the values (0.78947, 0.21053), which we determine is the solution.
- Checking mathematically, we know the invariant point is (15/19, 4/19), which confirms our results.
- Hence, the Markov chain (for loop with transitions) has accurately estimated the proportion of trucks on the road.



- **Prior:** Our initial guess  $X_1$  of the parameter values (in example, (0.5, 0.5)).
- **Posterior:** Subsequent parameter values following one or more transition steps  $(X_2, ..., X_N)$ .
- In our example, the first-step posterior is (0.775, 0.225), and the final posterior estimate is (0.78947, 0.21053).
- Hence, Markov Chain Monte Carlo can be used to estimate parameters and solve equations which cannot be solved using traditional methods!

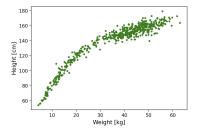


## Data Fitting Using MCMC

- The same processes that allow MCMC to find particular values can also be used to fit to data.
- This works by running the Markov Chain and finding the parameter values with best data fit.
- In this case, we specify the type of function we want to fit, and set some **priors** for the initial guess of the parameter values.



We want to fit a regression model to the height vs. weight data below:



The data was taken from

https://raw.githubusercontent.com/newby-jay/

MATH509-Winter2024-JupyterNotebooks/main/Data/

Howell1.csv.



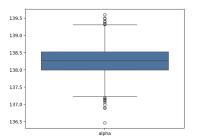
- To fit the data, we first choose a linear regression model for height vs. weight.
- We take the intercept  $\alpha$  to be normally distributed, and take the slope  $\beta$  to be log-normally distributed so it is positive.
- Since the mean height is approximately 138 cm, we set a **prior** that  $\alpha$  is normally distributed with mean 138 and standard deviation 20.

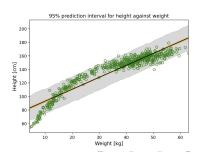
In particular, the prior is:

$$h_i \sim \mathsf{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma)$$
 $\mu_i = \alpha + e^{log(eta)}(x_i - ar{x})$ 
 $\alpha \sim \mathsf{Normal}(138, 20)$ 
 $\log(eta) \sim \mathsf{Normal}(0, 1)$ 
 $\sigma \sim \mathsf{Uniform}(0, 50)$ 



- Running MCMC using PyMC (Python), the estimated parameter value of  $\alpha$  is given in the boxplot below (left).
- The mean regression curve, 95% confidence interval plot of the mean, and 95% confidence interval of the data is given below (right).







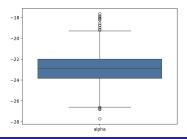


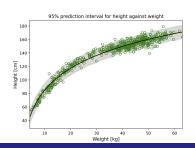
- The linear fit is not very good, as the data is nonlinear.
- To get a better fit, we use a regression model between height and the log-transformed weight.
- The prior is:

$$h_i \sim \mathsf{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma)$$
 $\mu_i = \alpha + e^{\log \beta} \log(w_i)$ 
 $\alpha \sim \mathsf{Normal}(178, 20)$ 
 $\log(\beta) \sim \mathsf{Normal}(0, 1)$ 
 $\sigma \sim \mathsf{Uniform}(0, 50)$ 



- Running MCMC using PyMC (Python), the estimated parameter value of  $\alpha$  is given in the boxplot below (left).
- The mean regression curve, 95% confidence interval plot of the mean, and 95% confidence interval of the data is given below (right).
- The fit is much better!







# Thank You