Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning



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$$y_1 = z_1 \left(\frac{-2\ln z_1}{r^2}\right)^{1/2} \tag{11.10}$$

$$y_2 = z_2 \left(\frac{-2\ln z_2}{r^2}\right)^{1/2} \tag{11.11}$$

Exercise 11.4 where $r^2 = z_1^2 + z_2^2$. Then the joint distribution of y_1 and y_2 is given by

$$p(y_1, y_2) = p(z_1, z_2) \left| \frac{\partial(z_1, z_2)}{\partial(y_1, y_2)} \right|$$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-y_1^2/2) \right] \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-y_2^2/2) \right]$$
(11.12)

and so y_1 and y_2 are independent and each has a Gaussian distribution with zero mean and unit variance.

If y has a Gaussian distribution with zero mean and unit variance, then $\sigma y + \mu$ will have a Gaussian distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 . To generate vector-valued variables having a multivariate Gaussian distribution with mean μ and covariance Σ , we can make use of the *Cholesky decomposition*, which takes the form $\Sigma = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^{\mathrm{T}}$ (Press *et al.*, 1992). Then, if \mathbf{z} is a vector valued random variable whose components are independent and Gaussian distributed with zero mean and unit variance, then $\mathbf{y} = \mu + \mathbf{L}\mathbf{z}$ will have mean μ and covariance Σ .

Obviously, the transformation technique depends for its success on the ability to calculate and then invert the indefinite integral of the required distribution. Such operations will only be feasible for a limited number of simple distributions, and so we must turn to alternative approaches in search of a more general strategy. Here we consider two techniques called *rejection sampling* and *importance sampling*. Although mainly limited to univariate distributions and thus not directly applicable to complex problems in many dimensions, they do form important components in more general strategies.

11.1.2 Rejection sampling

The rejection sampling framework allows us to sample from relatively complex distributions, subject to certain constraints. We begin by considering univariate distributions and discuss the extension to multiple dimensions subsequently.

Suppose we wish to sample from a distribution $p(\mathbf{z})$ that is not one of the simple, standard distributions considered so far, and that sampling directly from $p(\mathbf{z})$ is difficult. Furthermore suppose, as is often the case, that we are easily able to evaluate $p(\mathbf{z})$ for any given value of \mathbf{z} , up to some normalizing constant Z, so that

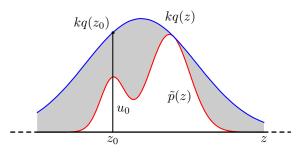
$$p(z) = \frac{1}{Z_p}\widetilde{p}(z) \tag{11.13}$$

where $\widetilde{p}(z)$ can readily be evaluated, but Z_p is unknown.

In order to apply rejection sampling, we need some simpler distribution q(z), sometimes called a *proposal distribution*, from which we can readily draw samples.

Exercise 11.5

Figure 11.4 In the rejection sampling method, samples are drawn from a simple distribution q(z) and rejected if they fall in the grey area between the unnormalized distribution $\widetilde{p}(z)$ and the scaled distribution kq(z). The resulting samples are distributed according to p(z), which is the normalized version of $\widetilde{p}(z)$.



We next introduce a constant k whose value is chosen such that $kq(z) \geqslant \widetilde{p}(z)$ for all values of z. The function kq(z) is called the comparison function and is illustrated for a univariate distribution in Figure 11.4. Each step of the rejection sampler involves generating two random numbers. First, we generate a number z_0 from the distribution q(z). Next, we generate a number u_0 from the uniform distribution over $[0, kq(z_0)]$. This pair of random numbers has uniform distribution under the curve of the function kq(z). Finally, if $u_0 > \widetilde{p}(z_0)$ then the sample is rejected, otherwise u_0 is retained. Thus the pair is rejected if it lies in the grey shaded region in Figure 11.4. The remaining pairs then have uniform distribution under the curve of $\widetilde{p}(z)$, and hence the corresponding z values are distributed according to p(z), as desired.

The original values of z are generated from the distribution q(z), and these samples are then accepted with probability $\widetilde{p}(z)/kq(z)$, and so the probability that a sample will be accepted is given by

$$p(\text{accept}) = \int \{\widetilde{p}(z)/kq(z)\} q(z) dz$$
$$= \frac{1}{k} \int \widetilde{p}(z) dz.$$
(11.14)

Thus the fraction of points that are rejected by this method depends on the ratio of the area under the unnormalized distribution $\widetilde{p}(z)$ to the area under the curve kq(z). We therefore see that the constant k should be as small as possible subject to the limitation that kq(z) must be nowhere less than $\widetilde{p}(z)$.

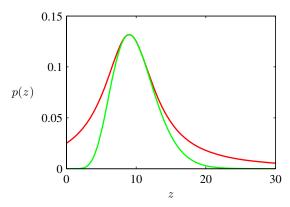
As an illustration of the use of rejection sampling, consider the task of sampling from the gamma distribution

$$Gam(z|a,b) = \frac{b^a z^{a-1} \exp(-bz)}{\Gamma(a)}$$
(11.15)

which, for a>1, has a bell-shaped form, as shown in Figure 11.5. A suitable proposal distribution is therefore the Cauchy (11.8) because this too is bell-shaped and because we can use the transformation method, discussed earlier, to sample from it. We need to generalize the Cauchy slightly to ensure that it nowhere has a smaller value than the gamma distribution. This can be achieved by transforming a uniform random variable y using $z=b\tan y+c$, which gives random numbers distributed according to.

Exercise 11.6

Figure 11.5 Plot showing the gamma distribution given by (11.15) as the green curve, with a scaled Cauchy proposal distribution shown by the red curve. Samples from the gamma distribution can be obtained by sampling from the Cauchy and then applying the rejection sampling criterion.



$$q(z) = \frac{k}{1 + (z - c)^2 / b^2}. (11.16)$$

The minimum reject rate is obtained by setting c=a-1, $b^2=2a-1$ and choosing the constant k to be as small as possible while still satisfying the requirement $kq(z) \geqslant \widetilde{p}(z)$. The resulting comparison function is also illustrated in Figure 11.5.

11.1.3 Adaptive rejection sampling

In many instances where we might wish to apply rejection sampling, it proves difficult to determine a suitable analytic form for the envelope distribution q(z). An alternative approach is to construct the envelope function on the fly based on measured values of the distribution p(z) (Gilks and Wild, 1992). Construction of an envelope function is particularly straightforward for cases in which p(z) is log concave, in other words when $\ln p(z)$ has derivatives that are nonincreasing functions of z. The construction of a suitable envelope function is illustrated graphically in Figure 11.6.

The function $\ln p(z)$ and its gradient are evaluated at some initial set of grid points, and the intersections of the resulting tangent lines are used to construct the envelope function. Next a sample value is drawn from the envelope distribution. This is straightforward because the log of the envelope distribution is a succession

Exercise 11.9

Figure 11.6 In the case of distributions that are log concave, an envelope function for use in rejection sampling can be constructed using the tangent lines computed at a set of grid points. If a sample point is rejected, it is added to the set of grid points and used to refine the envelope distribution.

