Sampling Methods

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September 11, 2023

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Topics

1. Monte Carlo Simulation

General Form

Applications

Bias and Variance of Monte Carlo

2. Sampling from common probability distributions

PRNG

Inverse CDF Sampling

Inverse CDF Sampling

Sampling from Normal Distribution

Rejection Sampling

The Discovery That Transformed Pi

Monte Carlo Simulation

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$$\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)}[f(x)] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(x_i)$$
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where $x_i \sim p(x)$.

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4

We can estimate the value of pi using Monte Carlo methods by considering a unit square with a quarter circle inscribed within it.

- Let p(x) be defined over the unit square using the uniform distribution in two dimensions, i.e., p(x) = U(x) = 1 for x ∈ [0,1]².
- Let f(x) be the indicator function defined as follows:

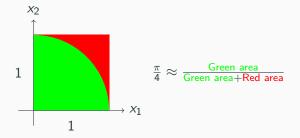
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \mathsf{Green}(1), & \text{if } x \text{ falls inside the quarter circle,} \\ \mathsf{Red}(0), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

• Or, we can write f(x) to be the following:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x_1^2 + x_2^2 \le 1, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

• Or, using the indicator function, we can write f(x) to be the following:

$$f(x) = \mathbb{I}(x_1^2 + x_2^2 \le 1)$$



 ${\tt Notebook: mc_sampling_intro.ipynb}$

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- Let $p(y|\theta,x)$ be the likelihood function. Say, for example, $p(y|\theta,x) = \mathcal{N}(x^T\theta,1)$.
- Then, the prior predictive distribution is given by:

$$p(y|x) = \int p(y|\theta, x)p(\theta)d\theta \tag{3}$$

$$p(y|x) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(y|\theta_i, x)$$
 (4)

where $\theta_i \sim p(\theta)$.

 $Notebook: \verb|mc-linreg-predictive.ipynb|\\$

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[Ref: MML book 9.3.5]

We consider the following generative process:

$$oldsymbol{ heta} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(oldsymbol{m}_0, oldsymbol{S}_0
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The marginal likelihood is given by

$$p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}) = \int p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
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$$\begin{split} p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}) &= \int p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{\theta} \\ &= \int \mathcal{N} \left(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\theta}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I} \right) \mathcal{N} \left(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{m}_0, \boldsymbol{S}_0 \right) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{\theta} \\ &= \mathcal{N} \left(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{m}_0, \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{S}_0 \boldsymbol{X}^\top + \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I} \right) \end{split}$$

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$$I = p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \theta_i)$$
 (8)

where $\theta_i \sim p(\theta)$.

Estimating Marginal Likelihood in Linear Regression

Generally, we work with log probabilities instead:

$$\log I = \log p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}) \approx \log \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i) \right)$$
(9)

The log-sum-exp trick helps us compute this efficiently.

Log-Sum-Exp Trick

[Ref: https:

//gregorygundersen.com/blog/2020/02/09/log-sum-exp/]

The log-sum-exp trick is a technique to compute $\log \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{a_i}\right)$ more efficiently.

$$\log\left(\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}e^{a_i}\right) = \log\left(e^{\max(a_i)}\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}e^{a_i - \max(a_i)}\right)$$
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$$= \max(a_i) + \log\left(\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{a_i - \max(a_i)}\right)$$
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Log-Sum-Exp Trick in Linear Regression

Applying the log-sum-exp trick to linear regression:

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$$= \log \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{\log p(\mathcal{Y}|\mathcal{X}, \theta_i)} \right)$$
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$$= \max(\log p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i)) + \log \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{\log p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i) - \max(\log p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i))} \right)$$
(15)

Efficient Computation

The log-sum-exp trick allows us to compute $\log I$ more efficiently by:

- Subtracting the maximum value of log $p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \theta_i)$ to avoid numerical issues with exponentiation.
- Adding the maximum value back after the sum of exponentials.

This technique helps prevent overflow and underflow issues when dealing with large or small values in the exponentials.

Estimating Marginal Likelihood in Linear Regression

Notebook: mc-linreg-evidence.ipynb

Unbiased Estimator?

Is Monte Carlo Sampling a biased or unbiased estimator?

We know:

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)}[f(x)] = \int f(x)p(x)dx = \phi$$
 (16)

Let $x_i \in 1, ..., N$ be i.i.d samples:

$$\hat{\phi} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(x_i)$$

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\phi}) = \int \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(x_i) p(x_i) dx = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \int f(x_i) p(x_i) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}(f(x_i)) = \phi$$

Thus, it is an unbiased estimator!

Sampling converges slowly

The expected square error of the Monte Carlo estimate is given by:

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\hat{\phi} - \mathbb{E}(\hat{\phi})\right)^{2} = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(f(x_{i}) - \phi)\right]^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\sum_{j=1}^{N}\mathbb{E}(f(x_{i})f(x_{j})) - \phi\mathbb{E}(f(x_{i})) - \mathbb{E}(f(x_{j}))\phi + \phi^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(\left(\sum_{i\neq j}\phi^{2} - 2\phi^{2} + \phi^{2}\right) + \mathbb{E}(f^{2}) - \phi^{2}\right) = \frac{1}{N}\mathbb{V}(f)$$

$$\therefore \mathbb{E}\left(\hat{\phi} - \mathbb{E}(\hat{\phi})\right)^{2} = \mathcal{O}(N^{-1})$$

Thus, the expected error drops as $\mathcal{O}(N^{-\frac{1}{2}})$.

Sampling from common probability

distributions

```
[Ref: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linear_congruential_generator]
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$$x_{n+1} = (ax_n + c) \mod m \tag{17}$$

- where, a, c, m are constants and x_0 is the seed
- x_{n+1} is the next random number between 0 and m-1

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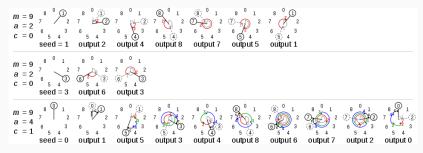
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- where, a, c, m are constants and x_0 is the seed
- x_{n+1} is the next random number between 0 and m-1
- $\frac{x_{n+1}}{m}$ is the next random number between 0 and 1

From Wikipedia page on LCG



 $Notebook:\ random-uniform.ipynb$

ullet Assume we have $X \sim \textit{U}(0,1)$

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- Then, $Y = a + (b a)X \sim U(a, b)$

[Inspired by content from Ben Lambert and Phillip Hennig]

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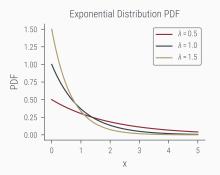
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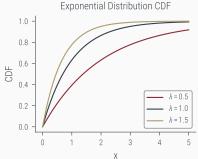
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- CDF: $F(x) = 1 e^{-\lambda x}$. Prove!





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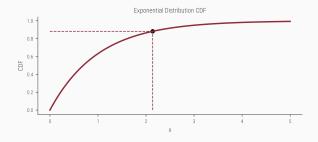
$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} p(x)dx \tag{18}$$

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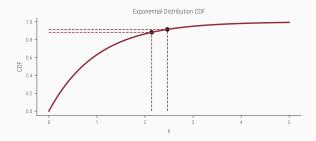
$$F(x) = \left[-e^{-\lambda x} \right]_{-\infty}^{x} \tag{20}$$

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x} \tag{21}$$

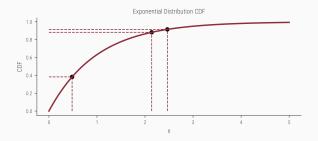
- Let us consider the CDF (F(x)) of the exponential distribution $(\lambda = 1)$ and try to generate samples from it.
- We generate a random number $u \sim U(0,1)$.
- We then find the value of x such that F(x) = u.



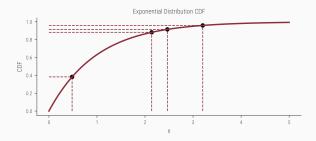
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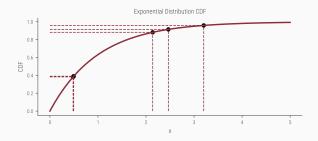
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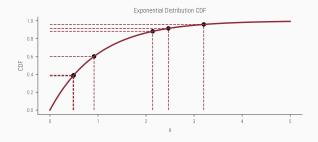
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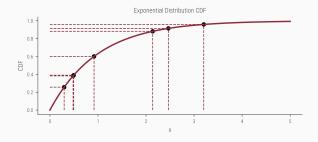
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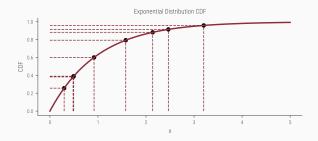
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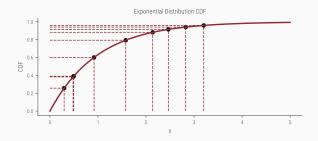
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- $\bullet \ \ x = -\log(1-u)$

 $Notebook:\ inverse-cdf.ipynb$

```
[From Wikipedia page on Inverse Transform Sampling]
https:
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Generating samples from $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ using Box-Muller Transform

[From Wikipedia page on Box-Muller Transform]

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- Then, $Z_0 = R \cos \Theta$ and $Z_1 = R \sin \Theta$ are independent random variables.
- Z_0 and Z_1 are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d) $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ random variables.

 $Notebook: \ sampling-normal.ipynb$

Generating samples from $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$

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Generating samples from $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$

- Let $Z_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ be independent random variables.
- Then, $X = \mu + \sigma Z_0$ is a random variable with $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$ distribution.

Generating samples from Multivariate $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$

Drawing values from the distribution in https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Multivariate_normal_distribution

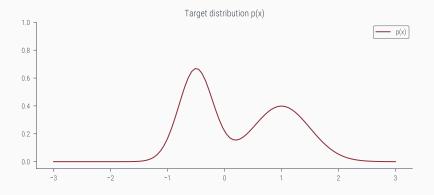
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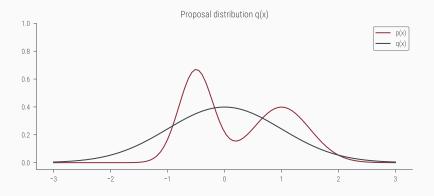
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- Let q(x) be a proposal distribution from which we can sample.

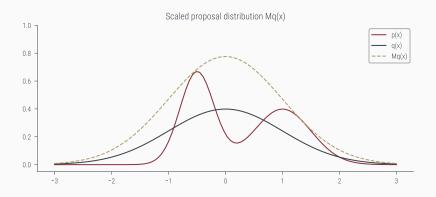
- Let p(x) be the target distribution from which we want to sample.
- Let q(x) be a proposal distribution from which we can sample.
- Let M be a constant such that $M \ge \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \forall x$.

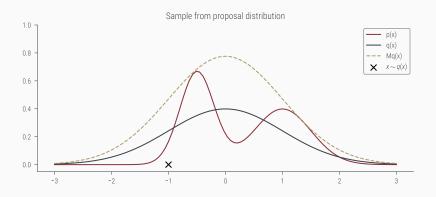
- Let p(x) be the target distribution from which we want to sample.
- Let q(x) be a proposal distribution from which we can sample.
- Let M be a constant such that $M \ge \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \forall x$.
- Then, we can sample from p(x) by sampling from q(x) and accepting the sample with probability $\frac{p(x)}{Mq(x)}$.

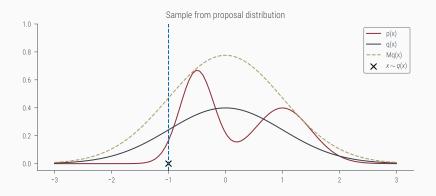
 ${\tt Notebook: rejection-sampling.ipynb}$

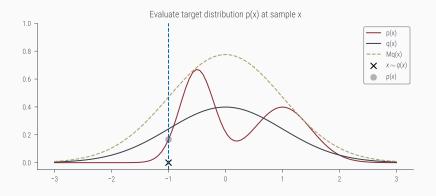


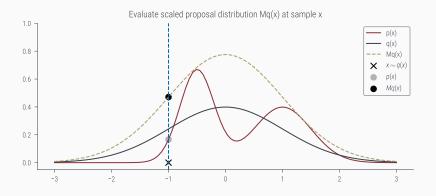


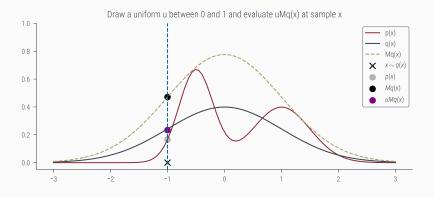




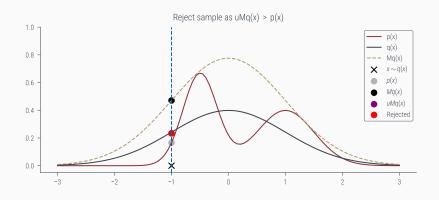




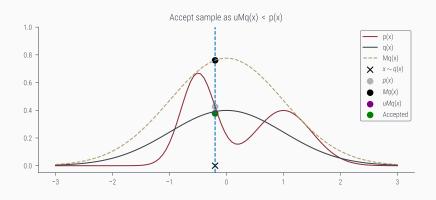




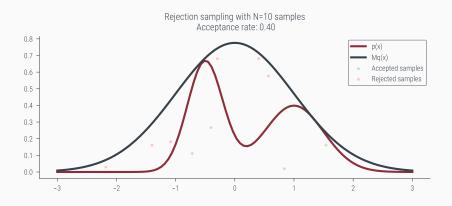
Rejection Sampling (Rejected Sample)



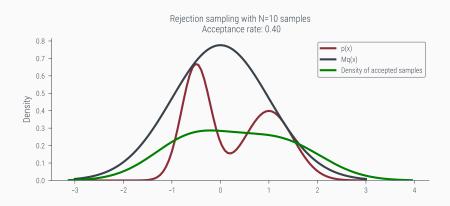
Rejection Sampling (Accepted Sample)



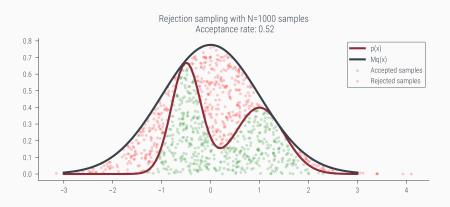
Rejection Sampling (10 samples)



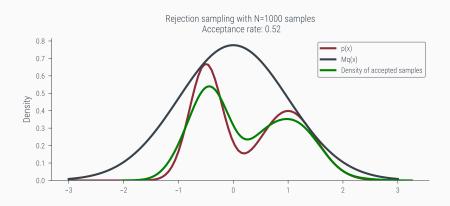
Rejection Sampling (10 samples) (KDE)



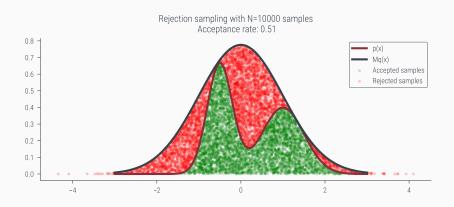
Rejection Sampling (1000 samples)



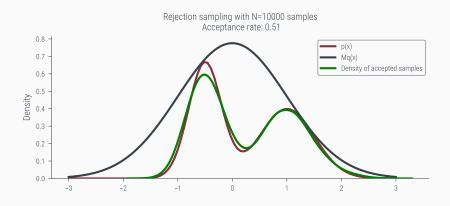
Rejection Sampling (1000 samples) (KDE)



Rejection Sampling (10000 samples)



Rejection Sampling (10000 samples) (KDE)



Proof of Rejection Sampling

Acceptance Probability $\alpha(x)$

$$\alpha(x) = \frac{p(x)}{Mq(x)} \tag{22}$$

Bayes Rule for Acceptance

$$P(Sample|Accept) = \frac{P(Accept|Sample)P(Sample)}{P(Accept)}$$
 (23)

P(Sample)

We draw samples from q(x), so P(Sample) = q(x).

Proof of Rejection Sampling

Further,
$$P(Accept|Sample) = \alpha(x) = \frac{p(x)}{Mq(x)}$$
.

Finally, $P(Accept) = \int P(Accept|Sample)P(Sample)dSample = \int \alpha(x)q(x)dx = \frac{1}{M}\int p(x)dx = \frac{1}{M}$.

P(Accept)

$$P(Accept) = \frac{1}{M} \tag{24}$$

Thus,
$$P(Sample|Accept) = \frac{p(x)}{Mq(x)} \times \frac{q(x)}{1/M} = p(x)$$
.

Thus, we have shown that the samples we accept are distributed according to p(x).

Rejection Sampling Completed Example

Note: Figures not on github.

Challenges with Rejection Sampling

- Rejection sampling is inefficient when the target distribution is very different from the proposal distribution.
- In this case, we will reject a lot of samples.
- This is a problem when sampling from high-dimensional distributions.
- Acceptance probability $\alpha(x)$ is very low.