

Introduction to Monte Carlo

Introduction

- ▶ Long and rich history since computers were invented
- ▶ Contributed to the success of Bayesian Statistics
 - ▶ and is still very popular with practioners in many applications
- ▶ Important in many other topics:
 - ▶ optimisation (simulated annealing), computational physics, statistical mechanics, ...

Good historical account in Wikipedia:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monte_Carlo_method

Introduction to Monte Carlo

- ▶ What is Monte Carlo?
 - ▶ Sampling from complex high dimensional distributions to compute integrals
 - ▶ use simulation to take advantage of computational power available.
- ▶ There are also other deterministic approximation methods:
 - ▶ difficult to tune or implement in higher dimensions
 - ▶ not very flexible in terms of setup and underlying approximations

Outline

- ▶ Perfect Monte Carlo
 - ▶ understanding basic principles and variance
- ▶ Other topics on variance reduction
 - ▶ control variates, Rao-Blackwellisation
- ▶ Discussion

Purpose of Monte Carlo

- ▶ Consider an arbitrary distribution on \mathcal{X} with a density π w.r.t to dx , such that

$$\pi(dx) = \frac{\gamma(x)}{Z} dx$$

and is Z **unknown**.

- ▶ We want to compute
 - ▶ expectations:

$$\pi(\varphi) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[\varphi(X)] = \langle \pi, \varphi \rangle = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \varphi(x) \pi(dx)$$

here $\varphi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ is a function of interest - examples:

$\varphi = x^n$, $\varphi = 1_A, \dots$

- ▶ normalising const: $Z = \int \gamma(x) dx$
- ▶ mode(s): $x^* = \arg \max \gamma$

Bayesian Inference

- ▶ Bayesian inference

- ▶ Parameter X is a random variable and Y is some dataset
- ▶ Bayes rule: **posterior** \propto likelihood \times prior

$$p(x|y) \propto \underbrace{p(y|x)p(x)}_{\gamma(x)}$$

Here *evidence*

$$Z = p(y) = \int p(y|x)p(x)dx$$

is very useful to compare models, but is **unknown**

Perfect Monte Carlo

- ▶ **IF** we can obtain i.i.d. samples $X^i \sim \pi$, $i = 1, \dots, N$
- ▶ One can use perfect Monte Carlo

$$\hat{\pi}(\varphi) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \varphi(x) \hat{\pi}(dx) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \varphi(X^i). \quad (1)$$

with

$$\hat{\pi}(dx) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{X^i}(dx)$$

- ▶ In a way one can view samples forming an atomic approximation of π

$$\hat{\pi} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{X^i}$$

Perfect Monte Carlo principles

- ▶ Perfect MC: Obtain **i.i.d.** samples $X^i \sim \pi$ and use **sample average**

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

- ▶ Principles:

- ▶ Unbiasedness: $\mathbb{E}^N [\hat{\pi}(\varphi)] = \pi(\varphi)$
- ▶ SLLN: $\hat{\pi}(\varphi) \rightarrow_{N \rightarrow \infty} \pi(\varphi)$
- ▶ CLT: $\sqrt{N}(\hat{\pi}(\varphi) - \pi(\varphi)) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0, \rho^2), \quad \rho^2 = \pi \left((\varphi - \pi(\varphi))^2 \right)$

Unbiasedness

- ▶ Because we sample i.i.d., $X^i \sim \pi$, $\hat{\pi}(\varphi)$ is an unbiased estimator:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \varphi(X^i) \right] = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{E}_{\pi} [\varphi(X^i)] = N \mathbb{E}_{\pi} [\varphi(X)]$$

- ▶ Example 1:

$$\frac{1}{N} \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\sum_i 1_{X^i < c} \right] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{E}_{\pi} [1_{X^i < c}] = p(X^i < c)$$

Unbiasedness and variance

- ▶ **Example 2:** for $N > 1$ use $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X^i$ to estimate $\mathbb{E}_{\pi}[X]$
- ▶ In fact a single sample from π is an unbiased estimate for $\mathbb{E}_{\pi}[X]$
- ▶ But we require many samples and high N
 - ▶ **variance of estimator** decreases with rate $1/N$

Perfect Monte Carlo variance

- ▶ Variance (non-asymptotic) is given by

$$\text{Var} [\hat{\pi}(\varphi)] = \frac{1}{N} \text{Var} [\varphi(X^i)] = \frac{1}{N} \left(\int_{\mathcal{X}} \varphi^2(x) \pi(dx) - \pi(\varphi)^2 \right)$$

- ▶ Note **rate** of decrease w.r.t N is not dependent on size of \mathcal{X}
- ▶ Dimensionality still important as integrals and π can depend implicitly on dimension and properties of φ

Issues with perfect Monte Carlo

- ▶ Very often direct sampling **not possible**
- ▶ Even if this is possible relative variance can still be very high:
 - ▶ when $\varphi = 1_A$ where A is a tail with very low probability ($p(X^i < c)$ is very low in Example 1 above)
- ▶ Curse of dimensionality:
 - ▶ for a required precision we might need exponential computational cost in the dimension
- ▶ Crucial question:
 - ▶ for a given problem how many samples do I need?

Tail estimation example using Perfect Monte Carlo

- ▶ Consider a continuous distribution P with density $p(x)$
- ▶ We are interested in computing $p^* = P(X \leq c) \approx 10^{-9}$
- ▶ Naive Monte Carlo setting:
 - ▶ For $i = 1 : N$ sample i.i.d. $x^i \sim p(\cdot)$, then compute

$$\widehat{p}^* = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N 1_{x \leq c}(x^i)$$

- ▶ \widehat{p}^* consistent, CLT $\sqrt{N}(\widehat{p}^* - p^*) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0, \text{Var}_P[1_{x \leq c}])$,

Tail estimation example using Perfect Monte Carlo

- ▶ Variance of estimator $\sigma_{\hat{p}^*}^2 = \frac{\mathbb{V}ar_p[1_{x \leq c}]}{N} = \frac{p^* - p^{*2}}{N}$,
- ▶ Relative error:

$$RE = \sqrt{\mathbb{V}ar \left[\frac{\hat{p}^*}{p^*} \right]} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{p^* N}}$$

- ▶ So would like at least $N \sim 10^{11}$ to get decent estimators -
Prohibitively long simulation times

Control variates

- ▶ When estimating $\mathbb{E}_{\pi}[\varphi(X)]$ there are ways to reduce the variance
 - ▶ control variates or antithetic variables
 - ▶ conditioning or Rao Blackwellisation
 - ▶ Importance Sampling
 - ▶

Control variates

- ▶ Let $\hat{\varphi}$ be an unbiased estimate for $\mathbb{E}_{\pi}[\varphi(X)]$.
- ▶ For any Y such that $\mathbb{E}_{\pi}[Y] = 0$ and a constant β , then $\hat{\varphi} + \beta Y$ is also an unbiased estimator

$$\mathbb{E}_{\pi}[\hat{\varphi} + \beta Y] = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[\hat{\varphi}] + \beta \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[Y] = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[\varphi(Y)]$$

and

$$\text{Var}_{\pi}[\hat{\varphi} + \beta Y] = \text{Var}_{\pi}[\hat{\varphi}] + \beta^2 \text{Var}_{\pi}[Y] + 2\beta \text{Cov}_{\pi}[\hat{\varphi}, Y]$$

Control variates

- ▶ In theory one can minimise variance w.r.t to β ,

$$\beta = -\frac{\text{Cov}_{\pi}[\hat{\varphi}, Y]}{\text{Var}_{\pi}[Y]}$$

to actually get a zero variance estimator!

- ▶ In practice it is difficult to achieve this, i.e. to find such β , Y
 - ▶ but can choose Y and tune β numerically and get good variance reduction
- ▶ Similar ideas appear in antithetic variates or Multi-level Monte Carlo

Rao Blackwell conditioning

- ▶ Consider a bivariate distribution $\tilde{\pi}(x, y) = \pi(x|y)p(y)$, i.e.

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

and assume **one can simulate** $\pi(x|y)$ and $p(y)$.

- ▶ Then $\mathbb{E}[\varphi(X)|Y]$ is an **unbiased** estimator for $\mathbb{E}_{\pi}[\varphi(X)]$

$$\mathbb{E}_{\pi}[\varphi(X)] = \mathbb{E}_p[\mathbb{E}[\varphi(X)|Y]]$$

- ▶ In addition, we have the variance conditioning identity

$$\text{Var}_{\pi}[\varphi(X)] \geq \text{Var}_p[\mathbb{E}[\varphi(X)|Y]]$$

Rao Blackwell conditioning

- ▶ Conclusion:
 - ▶ conditioning can improve on the variance.
- ▶ Procedure:
 - ▶ use perfect Monte Carlo from $p(y)$ and then sample from $\pi(x|y)$
 - ▶ Obtain [i.i.d.](#) samples: $Y^i \sim p$ $X^i \sim \pi(\cdot|Y^i)$
 - ▶ Y^i acts as an auxiliary variable

Discussion

- ▶ Very often perfect Monte Carlo is possible only for simple cases
 - ▶ standard distributions for which random number generation is possible
- ▶ Even when it is possible to get direct samples from π , some test functions φ can result to estimates with very high Monte Carlo variance
 - ▶ e.g. Example 1 above for $\varphi = 1_A$
- ▶ Variance of estimators are a measure of efficiency
 - ▶ in some cases indirect sampling can be better

Other approaches for Monte Carlo sampling

- ▶ There are indirect ways for approximating $\pi(\varphi)$
- ▶ Basic approaches:
 - ▶ rejection sampling
 - ▶ importance sampling
- ▶ More advanced
 - ▶ Markov Chains - MCMC
 - ▶ particle systems & methods - Sequential Monte Carlo (SMC)
 - ▶ and various combinations of all the above