Sampling & Monte Carlo

Mark van der Wilk

Department of Computing Imperial College London

y@markvanderwilk
m.vdwilk@imperial.ac.uk

February 20, 2023

Previously on Probabilistic Inference

We looked at **logistic regression**

- ► Different kind of data (binary classification)
- ► Different assumptions in model

We wanted to

- Make predictions
- ► Find posterior

Both computations were **intractable**.

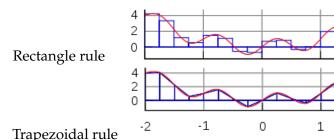
Numerical Quadrature

Intractable computation are caused by **integrals**.

$$p(y^* \mid x^*, \mathbf{y}, X) = \int p(y^* \mid x^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}, X) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
 (1)

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}, X) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y} \mid X, \boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{p(\mathbf{y} \mid X)} = \frac{p(\mathbf{y} \mid X, \boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\int p(\mathbf{y} \mid X, \boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})d\boldsymbol{\theta}}$$
(2)

Can we approximate numerically? Evaluate on a grid.



Logistic Regression Mark van der Wilk

Numerical Quadrature in High Dimensions

We may have many parameters! For linear / logistic regression:

- \bullet $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^D$
- ▶ Even more if we use basis functions!
- ► It is very common to have > 100 parameters

For *D* dimensions, there are P^D total points in the grid. For P = 10, D = 100, that is more than the number of atoms in the universe.

- ► **Rate** of convergence depends on dimension (e.g. $O(P_{\text{total}}^{-\frac{1}{D}})$ for rectangle rule)
- ► Need exponential number of points with dimension to reduce error by a factor of 2, you need $P_2/P_1 = 2^D$

Curse of Dimensionality

Monte Carlo Approximation

Most Bayesian computations are in fact **expectations** E.g. prediction for logistic regression

$$p(y^* \mid x^*, \mathbf{y}, X) = \int p(y^* \mid x^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}, X) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
 (3)

$$= \mathbb{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}, X)}[p(y^* \mid x^*, \boldsymbol{\theta})]. \tag{4}$$

In general,

$$I = \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x})}[g(\mathbf{x})] \tag{5}$$

$$\implies I \approx \hat{I} = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} g(\mathbf{x}^{(s)}), \quad \text{with } \mathbf{x}^{(s)} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p(\mathbf{x}). \quad (6)$$

Monte Carlo Properties

Monte Carlo estimator

► mean is equal to the quantity we want to estimate (unbiased)

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x}^{(1)},\mathbf{x}^{(2)},\dots)}[\hat{I}] = \int \prod_{t=1}^{S} p(\mathbf{x}^{(t)}) \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} g(\mathbf{x}^{(s)}) d\{\mathbf{x}^{(u)}\}_{u=1}^{S} = I$$
 (7)

(Bring sum outside, distributions for $s \neq t$ integrate to 1)

variance decreases independent of dimension

$$\mathbb{V}_{p(\mathbf{x}^{(1)},\mathbf{x}^{(2)},\dots)}[\hat{I}] = \frac{1}{S^2} \sum_{c=1}^{S} \mathbb{V}_{p(\mathbf{x})}[g(\mathbf{x})] = \frac{C}{S}$$
 (8)

i.e. error decreases as $O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{S}})$.

How to generate samples

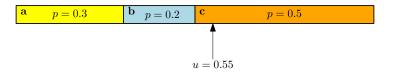
When specifying a Monte Carlo approximation, you need a procedure for **generating samples** from your distribution of interest $p(\mathbf{x})$.

- ► Some distributions are easy to sample from (e.g. Uniform, Standard Gaussian). You may assume that such samples are available in the exam.
- Often though, no direct procedure for sampling p(x)

Different procedures are have different sampling properties. Distributions can be

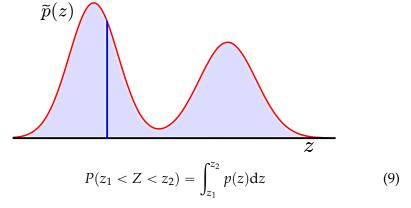
- ▶ easy to sample, hard to evaluate (GANs, VAEs),
- easy to evaluate, hard to sample.

Sampling Discrete Variables



- $u \sim \mathcal{U}[0,1]$, where \mathcal{U} is the uniform distribution
- $u = 0.55 \Rightarrow x = c$

Continuous Variables

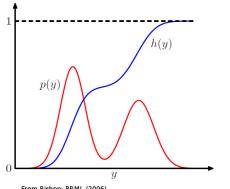


11

Geometric intuition: sample uniformly from the area under the curve

Sampling Continuous Values

Let's convert samples from $\mathcal{U}[0,1]$ to samples from densities



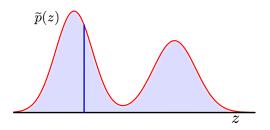
Objective: Sample from p(y).

- $h(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{y} p(z)dz$ (CDF)
- ▶ Draw $u \sim \mathcal{U}[0,1]$
- ▶ Obtain sample from p(y): $y(u) = h^{-1}(u)$
- ▶ Inverse Transform Sampling

From Bishop: PRML (2006)

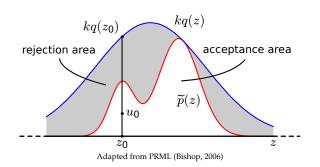
- We cannot always invert the CDF h(y)
- Difficult for high-dimensional distributions

Rejection Sampling: Setting



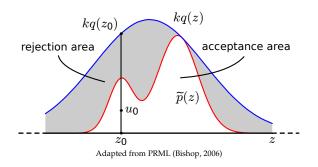
- Assume:
 - Sampling from p(z) is difficult
 - Evaluating $\tilde{p}(z) = Zp(z)$ is easy (and Z may be unknown)
- Find a simpler distribution (proposal distribution) q(z) from which we can easily draw samples (e.g., Gaussian, Uniform)
- ► Find an upper bound $kq(z) \ge \tilde{p}(z)$

Rejection Sampling: Algorithm



- 1. Generate $z_0 \sim q(z)$
- 2. Generate $u_0 \sim \mathcal{U}[0, kq(z_0)]$
- 3. If $u_0 > \tilde{p}(z_0)$, reject the sample. Otherwise, retain z_0

Properties



- Accepted pairs (z, u) are uniformly distributed under the curve of $\tilde{p}(z)$
- Marginal probability density of the *z*-coordiantes of accepted points must be proportional to $\tilde{p}(z)$
- Samples are independent samples from p(z)

Sampling in High Dimensions

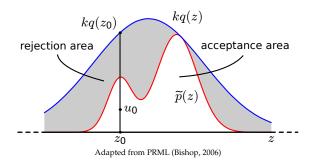
Example:

- $p(x) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_p^2 \mathbf{I}), \quad q(x) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_q^2 \mathbf{I}) \text{ where } \sigma_q = 1.01\sigma_p$
- ▶ What is the value of *k* if $x \in \mathbb{R}^{1000}$?
- $q(0) = 1/(2\pi\sigma_q^2)^{500}$ For $kq \ge p$ we need to set

$$k \geqslant \frac{p(0)}{q(0)} = \frac{(\sigma_q^2)^{500}}{(\sigma_p^2)^{500}} = \exp\left(1000 \ln \frac{\sigma_q}{\sigma_p}\right) = \exp(1000 \ln 1.01) \approx 20,000$$

- Acceptance rate is the ratio of the volume under p to the volume under kq. In our example: 1/k = 1/20,000.
- ► In high dimensions the factor *k* is probably huge ► Low acceptance rate
- ► Finding *k* is tricky

Shortcomings



- ► Finding the upper bound *k* is tricky
- ► In high dimensions the factor *k* is probably huge
- ► Low acceptance rate/high rejection rate of samples

Importance Sampling

Key idea: Do not throw away all rejected samples, but give them lower weight by rewriting the integral as an expectation under a simpler distribution q (proposal distribution):

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

$$= \int f(x)p(x)\frac{q(x)}{q(x)}dx = \int f(x)\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}q(x)dx$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{q}\left[f(x)\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}\right]$$

If we choose q in a way that we can easily sample from it, we can approximate this last expectation by Monte Carlo:

$$\mathbb{E}_{q}\left[f(x)\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}\right] \approx \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} f(x^{(s)}) \frac{p(x^{(s)})}{q(x^{(s)})} = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} w_{s} f(x^{(s)}), \quad x^{(s)} \sim q(x)$$

Properties

- ▶ Unbiased if q > 0 where p > 0 and if we can evaluate p
- Breaks down if we do not have enough samples (puts nearly all weight on a single sample)
 - ▶ Degeneracy (see also Particle Filtering (Thrun et al., 2005))
- Many draws from proposal density q required, especially in high dimensions
- Requires to be able to evaluate true p. Generalization exists for \tilde{p} . This generalization is biased (but consistent).
- ▶ Does not scale to interesting (high-dimensional) problems
- ▶ Different approach to sample from complicated (high-dimensional) distributions

Conclusion

We saw:

- Why rectangle quadrature rules don't work in high dimensions
- ► How Monte Carlo estimators help
- How to draw samples using
 - ► Transformation techniques
 - ► Inverse Transform Sampling
 - Rejection Sampling
- How to improve over Rejection Sampling with Importance Sampling

References

[?]

References I

[1] D. J. C. MacKay. Information Theory, Inference, and Learning Algorithms. Cambridge University Press, 2003.