

## Monte Carlo

Monte Carlo methods aim to solve numerical integration problems

Why do we care?

Because Bayes!

$$\text{Posterior distribution: } \Pr(\bar{\theta} | \bar{y}) = \frac{\Pr(\bar{y} | \bar{\theta}) \Pr(\bar{\theta})}{\Pr(\bar{y})}$$

↑ parameters  
data

Bayesian point estimate:

$$E(\bar{\theta} | \bar{y}) = \int \bar{\theta} \Pr(\bar{\theta} | \bar{y}) d\bar{\theta}$$

↑  
posterior mean

This  $\bar{\theta}$  could be  $\bar{\theta} = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_{1000})$

## Classical Monte Carlo

$$\text{Objective: } E(h(x)) = \int h(x) f(x) dx$$

e.g.  $h(x) = x^2$       ↓  
with prob. density  $f(x)$

Use law of large numbers by generating  $x_1, \dots, x_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f(x)$

$$\hat{h}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h(x_i) \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{a.s.} E(h(x))$$

, ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Var}(\bar{h}_n) &= \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h(x_i)\right) = \\
 &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\text{Var}(h(x_i))}_{\text{Var}(h(x_1))} = [\text{iid}] = \frac{1}{n^2} \times n \text{Var}(h(x_1)) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \text{Var}(h(x_1)) \approx \frac{1}{n} \underbrace{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n [h(x_i) - \bar{h}_n]^2}_{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}}}
 \end{aligned}$$

can be computed  
from the samples

95% confidence interval for  $E(h(x))$

$$\text{is } \bar{h}_n \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{\text{Var}(h(x))}{n}} \quad \text{as } \text{Var}(h(x)) \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\text{Slowly}} 0$$

Examples of  $h(x)$ :  $h(x) = x$ ,  $h(x) = x^2$

$$E(h(x)) = E(I_{\{x > 2.3\}}) = \begin{cases} 1, & x > 2.3 \\ 0, & x \leq 2.3 \end{cases}$$

$$= \Pr(x > 2.3)$$

Example :  $X \sim \text{Beta}(2, 2)$   
 $E(X)$  - first moment

Objective:  $E(X^2)$  - second moment

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$$

$$E(X^2) = \text{Var}(X) + [E(X)]^2$$

$$= 0.3 - \text{suppose we don't know this.}$$

because wikipedia is down  
in R session:

$$\bar{x} = \text{rbeta}(1000, 2, 2)$$

$$\bar{y} = \bar{x}^2$$

$$\text{mean}(\bar{y})$$

$$\text{var}(\bar{y})$$

## Importance Sampling

Objective:  $\underline{\underline{E_f(h(x))}}$ , where  $X \sim f(x)$

But suppose generating samples from  $f(x)$  is hard. However, generating samples from a distribution with density  $g(x)$  is easy.

$$\begin{aligned} E_f[h(x)] &= \int h(x) f(x) dx = \\ &= \int h(x) f(x) \frac{g(x)}{g(x)} dx = \int \left[ h(x) \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] g(x) dx \\ &= \underline{\underline{E_g \left[ h(x) \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right]}} \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum \left[ \frac{h(y_i) f(y_i)}{g(y_i)} \right] \end{aligned}$$

where  $y_1, \dots, y_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} g(x)$

Markov chain theory

$$\text{Markov property: } \Pr(X_{n+1} = j \mid X_n = i, \dots, \cancel{X_0 = i_0}) = \\ = \Pr(X_{n+1} = j \mid X_n = i)$$

Example:

$$X_0 = 1$$

$$X_1 = 2$$

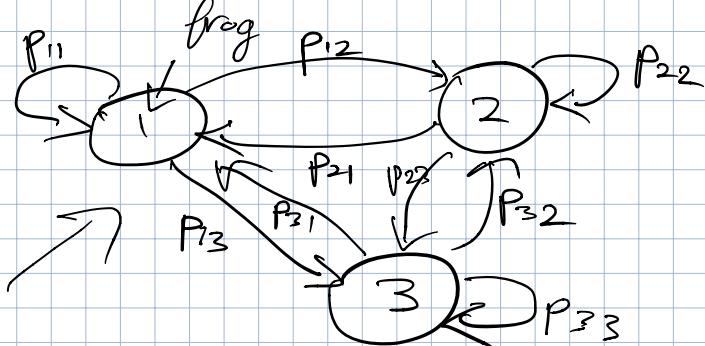
$$X_2 = 2$$

$$X_3 = 2$$

$$X_4 = 3$$

$$X_5 = 1$$

$$X_6 = 1$$



$$\Pr(X_7 = 3 \mid X_6 = 1, \cancel{X_5 = 1}, \dots, \cancel{X_1 = 1})$$

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} & p_{13} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} & p_{23} \\ p_{31} & p_{32} & p_{33} \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} p_{11} + p_{12} + p_{13} = 1 \\ \dots = 1 \\ = 1 \end{array}$$

$P = \{p_{ij}\}$  - transition probability matrix

$$p_{ij} = \Pr(X_{n+1} = j \mid X_n = i) = [\text{homogeneous}] = \\ = \Pr(X_1 = j \mid X_0 = i) \text{ for all } n.$$

$$\Pr(X_0 = i) = \sigma_i, \quad \overline{\sigma} = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3)$$

$$\text{e.g., } \left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$$

$\overline{\sigma}, P$  - defines a Markov chain

$$\Pr(X_n = i \mid X_0 = i) = P_{ii}^{(n)} - n\text{-step}$$

transition probability

$P^{(n)} = \{p_{ij}^{(n)}\}$  - n-step transition prob.  
matrix

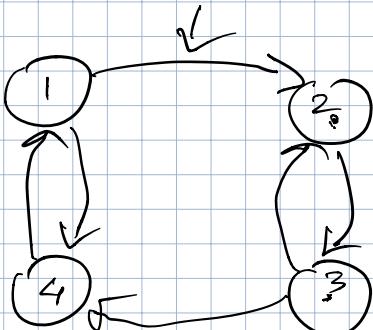
$P^{(n)} = P^n$  ← matrix raised  
into power n

$\underbrace{P \cdot P \cdot \dots \cdot P}_{n \text{ times}}$

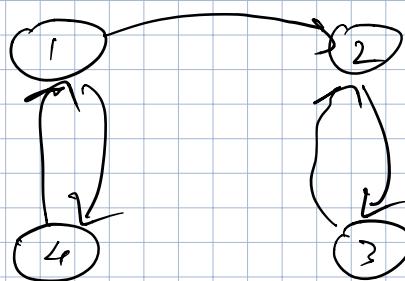
$\Pr(X_n = i) = \vartheta_i^{(n)}$ ,  $\vartheta^{(n)} = (\vartheta_1^{(n)}, \dots, \vartheta_s^{(n)})$   
 $\vartheta^{(n)} = \vartheta \cdot P^n$  # of states

Def. Markov chain is called irreducible if you can from anywhere to anywhere in a finite number of steps.

Irreducible:



non-irreducible



impossible to get from 3 to 1

Example:



$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1-p & p \\ q & 1-q \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} 1 < p < 0 \\ 1 < q < 0 \end{array} \quad \text{irreducible}$$

Stationary and long term behavior

$$\bar{\pi}^{(0)} = \bar{\pi} - \text{initial distribution}$$

$$\bar{\pi}^{(1)} = (\pi_1^{(1)}, \dots, \pi_s^{(1)}), \quad \pi_i^{(1)} = \Pr(X_1=i)$$

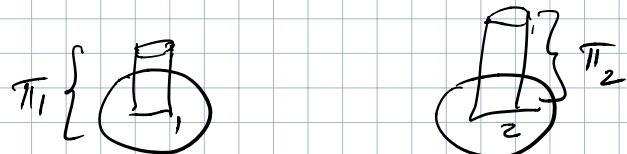
$$\bar{\pi}^{(1)} = \bar{\pi} \cdot P$$

$$\bar{\pi}^{(2)} = \bar{\pi}^{(1)} \cdot P = \bar{\pi} \cdot P^2 \dots$$

What if we have a special vector

$$\bar{\pi}^T = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_s) \quad \pi_1 + \dots + \pi_s = 1$$

$$\bar{\pi}^T = \bar{\pi}^T \cdot P$$



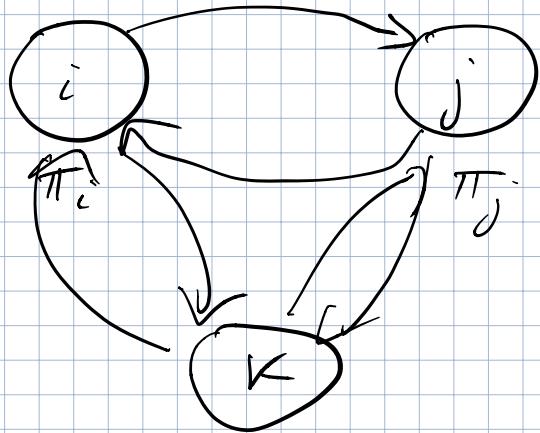
Reversible Markov chains  
detailed balance

If we have a vector  $\bar{\pi}^T = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_s)$

and we can show that

detailed balance  $\Rightarrow \pi_i p_{ij} = \pi_j p_{ji}$  for all pairs  $(i, j)$

then  $\bar{\pi}$  - stationary distribution



$$\sum_{c=1}^S \pi_c p_{cj} = \sum_{c=1}^S \pi_c p_{ic} = \pi_j \underbrace{\sum_{c=1}^S p_{jc}}_{=1.0}$$

$$\boxed{\pi_j = \sum_{c=1}^S \pi_c p_{cj}} \Leftrightarrow \bar{\pi}^\top = \bar{\pi}^\top P$$

detailed balance  $\Rightarrow$  global balance