# Rejection Sampling, Accept-Reject Method

Mark M. Fredrickson (mfredric@umich.edu)

Computational Methods in Statistics and Data Science (Stats 406)

**Rejection Sampling** 

#### Conditioning

When generating Laplace RVs we used conditioning by noting if

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}e^{-|x|}$$

then

$$X \mid X > 0 \sim Exp(1)$$
.

The reverse could also be useful, if we had a **a source of Laplace RVs** we could use it to **generate Exp(1)**.

Let's illustrate this by first getting the quantile function and then using the inversion method to make rlaplace.

$$f(x)$$
 to  $F(x)$ 

As we did before, let's split up  $f(x) = (1/2)e^{-|x|}$  when x < 0 and  $x \ge 0$ :

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}e^{x} & : x < 0\\ \frac{1}{2}e^{-x} & x \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

Then we have a piece-wise CDF. For x < 0,

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{x} e^{t} dt \right) = \frac{1}{2} e^{x}$$

For  $x \ge 0$  we can decompose F(x) as:

$$F(x) = F(0) + P(0 \le X \le x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_0^x e^{-t} dt \right) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} e^{-x}$$

$$F(x)$$
 to  $Q(u)$ 

The quantile function will also be piece-wise with the change at:

$$F(0) = 1/2 \Rightarrow Q(1/2) = 0$$

Solving the CDF leads to

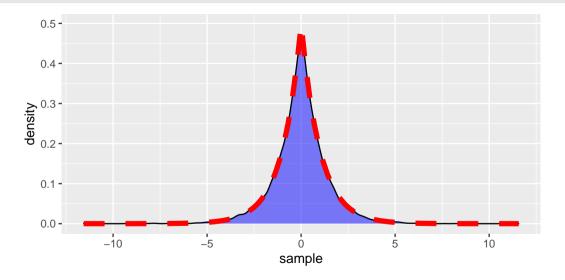
$$F(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}e^{x} & : x < 0 \\ 1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-x} & : x \ge 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow Q(u) = \begin{cases} \log(2u) : 0 \le u < \frac{1}{2} \\ \log\left(\frac{1}{2 - 2u}\right) : \frac{1}{2} \le u \le 1 \end{cases}$$

4

#### R implementation

```
Q(u) = \begin{cases} \log(2u) : 0 \le u < \frac{1}{2} \\ \log\left(\frac{1}{2-2u}\right) : \frac{1}{2} \le u \le 1 \end{cases} > rlaplace <- function(n) {  + \quad u <- \text{runif(n)} \\ + \quad \text{ifelse(u < 1/2, log(2 * u), log(1 / (2 - 2 * u)))} \\ + \}
```

## **Density plot**



# Rejection Sampling for Exp(1)

```
Suppose we have rlaplace but not rexp. We saw that if X \sim \text{Laplace}(0), then
X \mid X > 0 \sim \text{Exp}(1). Let's do that:
> x < - rlaplace(1000)
> x_positive <- keep(x, x > 0)
> mean(x_positive) # should be close to 1
[1] 0.9407
> t.test(x_positive, conf.level = 0.999)$conf.int
[1] 0.8021 1.0793
attr(, "conf.level")
[1] 0.999
```

#### Variance of the Estimator

The method worked fairly well, but had to throw away about 50% of RVs:

> length(x\_positive)

[1] 485

Recall the variance of a the sample mean is:

$$\operatorname{Var}\left(\bar{X}\right) = \frac{1}{n}\operatorname{Var}\left(X\right)$$

by throwing away samples, we have increased the variance (relative to having a way to keep all the samples).

## Rejection Sampling in General

The idea of **rejection sampling** can be used when our **target RV** can be expressed as a subset of another **candidate RV**.

#### Examples:

- Conditioning on the variable itself,  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ ,  $Y = X \mid X$  is odd
- Truncated distributions, e.g.  $X \sim N(0,1)$ ,  $Y = X \mid a < X < b$
- Uniform points on the unit circle:  $U_1,\,U_2\sim U(-1,1)$  (independent),  $(V_1,\,V_2)=(U_1,\,U_2)\mid U_1^2+U_2^2\leq 1$

Procedure: generate from candidate, only keep results that meet criteria.

#### **Example: Truncated Normal Distribution**

A truncated distribution takes a given distribution and limits the support.

For example,  $X \sim N(0,1)$  and  $Y = X \mid 0 \le X \le 1$ . We can sample by drawing from X and only keeping those that fall in (0,1).

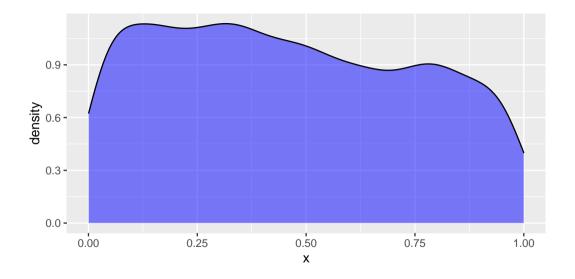
```
> x <- rnorm(10000)
> y <- keep(x, 0 < x & x < 1)
```

> length(y) # number of samples kept

[1] 3390

> mean(y) # use the samples to estimate E(Y)

[1] 0.4621



## Computing $\pi$

Consider the following method for approximating the value of  $\pi$ :

- Initialize a = 0
- Generate  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  (independent) from U(0,1)

• If 
$$\sqrt{U_1^2 + U_2^2} \le 1$$
 then  $a = a + 1$ 

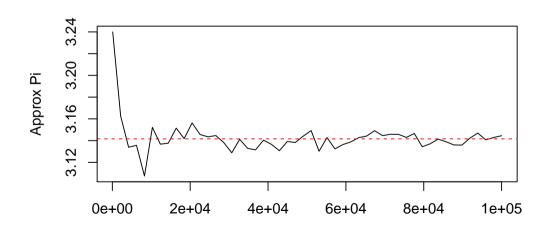
- Repeat k times.
- ullet Approximate  $\pi$  as

$$\pi = \frac{4a}{k}$$

## Calculating in R

```
> approx_pi <- function(k) {
+    u1 <- runif(k)
+    u2 <- runif(k)
+    sqs <- sqrt(u1^2 + u2^2)
+    return(4 * sum(sqs <= 1) / k)
+ }</pre>
```

## **Approximation vs.** k

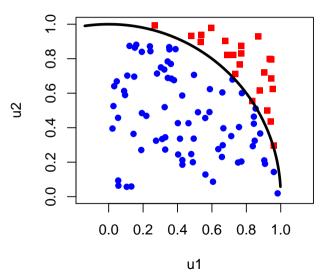


## Why does it work?

Recall: the circle centered at (0,0) and with radius 1, has area  $\pi$ .

We "throw darts" at the upper quadrant of the circle and see how many hit the circle.

This proportion should be about  $\pi/4$ 



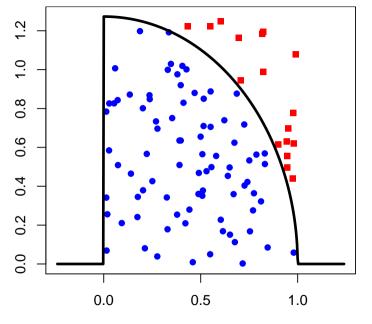
# Accept-Reject Method

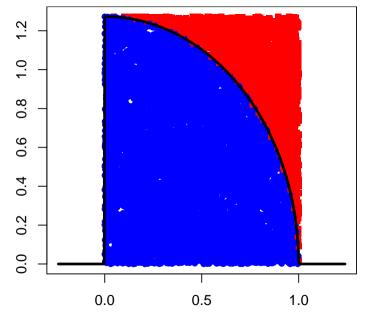
## Another interpretation of Approximating $\pi$

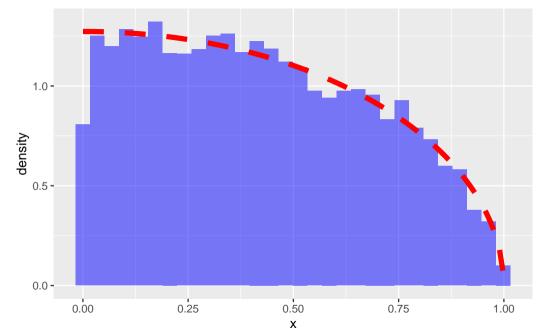
Notice that the following is a valid **probability density function**:

$$f(x) = \frac{4}{\pi}\sqrt{1-x^2}, 0 \le x \le 1$$

This curve is just a scaled version of the unit circle.







#### Interpretation

- We started by drawing  $U_1$  and  $U_2$ , and then keeping  $U_2$  if  $U_1^2 + U_2^2 \leq 1$ .
- This is equivalent to picking  $U_2$ , and keeping  $U_1$  if

$$\frac{4}{\pi}U_2 \leq \frac{4}{\pi}\sqrt{1-U_1^2} = f(U_1)$$

or written another way:

$$U_2 \leq \frac{\pi}{4} \frac{f(U_1)}{g(U_1)}, \quad g(x) = 1 \text{ (pdf of } U_1)$$

• This process generated samples from X (the variable with density f(x))!

#### **Accept-Reject in General**

Suppose we want to sample from density (or mass) function:

We know f(x), but can't easily sample from it directly (e.g., Normal distribution).

But what if we had another density g(y) such that

$$c imes rac{g(x)}{f(x)} \geq 1$$

for some c > 0 and for all x such that f(x) > 0.

In other words we need cg(x) to lie above f(x) for any x where f(x) is positive.

# Accept-reject for f(x)

For the example we just did the target density was

$$f(x) = \frac{4}{\pi} \sqrt{1 - x^2}, 0 \le x \le 1$$

The candidate density was the uniform distribution  $g(x) = 1, 0 \le x \le 1$ 

The constant was

$$c=rac{4}{\pi}$$

This ensures that:

$$cg(x) = \frac{4}{\pi} \ge \frac{4}{\pi} \sqrt{1 - x^2} = f(x)$$

(NB: c is not unique. We could have pick any  $c \ge 4/\pi$ .)

#### **Example: Uniform and Beta**

Suppose we want to sample from the Beta(2,2) distribution which is:

$$f(x) = 6x(1-x), \quad 0 \le x \le 1$$

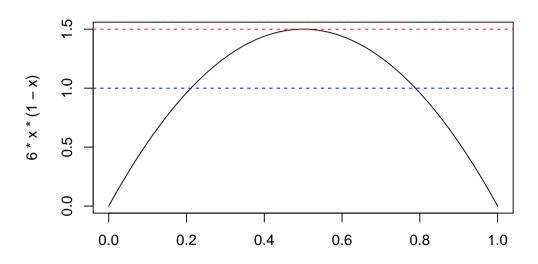
but we only have the standard uniform g(x) = 1.

Observe that f(x) achieves its max at x = 0.5, the maximum value is f(0.5) = 6/4.

Therefore we have

$$\frac{6}{4}\frac{g(x)}{f(x)} \ge 1$$

for any point in [0,1].



Χ

#### **Accept-Reject Algorithm**

- Draw a Y from g(y)
- Draw  $U \sim U(0,1)$
- If

$$U<\frac{f(Y)}{cg(Y)}$$

then accept X = Y

ullet Otherwise, reject Y as a candidate and repeat.

## Example: Beta/Uniform

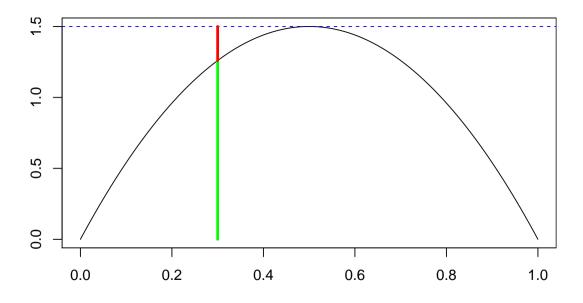
Say we generate Y = 0.3.

• 
$$f(0.3) = 1.26$$

• 
$$g(0.3) = 1$$

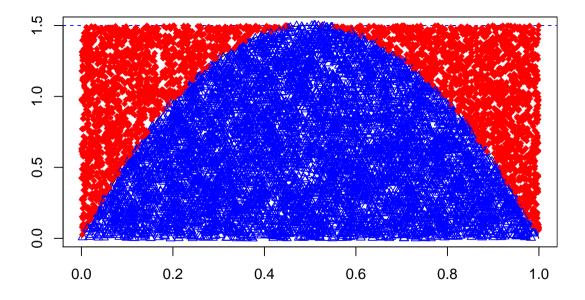
• We will accept if

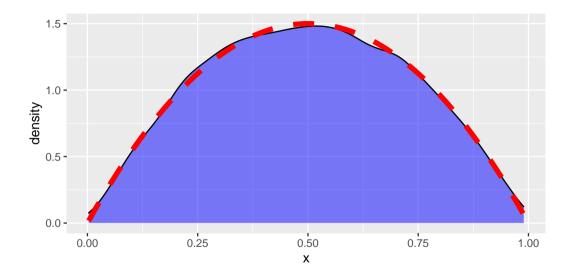
$$U < \frac{1.26}{(6/4) \times 1} = 0.84$$



#### **R** implementation

```
> k < -10000
> ys <- runif(k)
> fys <- 6 * ys * (1 - ys)
> gys <- 1
> ratios <- fys / (gys * (6/4))
> us <- runif(k)</pre>
> accept <- us < ratios
> accepted <- ys[accept]</pre>
> rejected <- ys[!accept] ; mean(!accept)</pre>
[1] 0.3377
```





#### Proving the general case

When proving an algorithm generates X we need to show same cumulative distribution function (recall, we did this for inversion method, transformations, etc.).

Let V be the random variable produced by the AR algorithm, we need to show that

$$P(V \le x) = P(X \le x)$$

for any x in the support of X.

#### What kind variable is V?

We know the distribution of Y and U, but what can we say about V?

Notice that V is set to Y, when  $U \leq f(Y)/(cg(Y))$ , a conditional distribution:

$$V = Y \mid U \leq \frac{f(Y)}{c \, g(Y)}$$

For events A and B, recall the definition of conditional probability:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A,B)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(V \le x) = P\left(Y \le x \mid U \le \frac{f(Y)}{c g(Y)}\right) = \frac{P\left(Y \le x, U \le \frac{f(Y)}{c g(Y)}\right)}{P\left(U \le \frac{f(Y)}{c g(Y)}\right)}$$

We'll take the numerator and denominator separately.

In both cases, think of writing P(...) = E(I(...), e.g.:

$$P\left(Y \le x, U \le \frac{f(Y)}{c g(Y)}\right) = E\left(I\left(Y \le x, U \le \frac{f(Y)}{c g(Y)}\right)\right)$$

#### **Numerator**

Notice (a) by independence, the joint density is  $1 \times g(y)$  and (b) I(A, B) = I(A)I(B).

$$P\left(Y \le x, U \le \frac{f(Y)}{c g(Y)}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{1} I(y \le x) I(u \le f(y)/(cg(y))g(y) du dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} I(y \le x)g(y) \left[\int_{0}^{1} I(u \le f(y)/(cg(y)) du\right] dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{x} g(y) \left[\int_{0}^{f(y)/(cg(y))} 1 du\right] dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{x} g(y) \frac{f(y)}{cg(y)} dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{c} \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(y) dy = \frac{1}{c} P(X \le x)$$

#### **Denominator**

$$P\left(U \le \frac{f(Y)}{c g(Y)}\right) = E\left(I\left(U \le \frac{f(Y)}{c g(Y)}\right)\right)$$

By similar logic,

$$P\left(U \le \frac{f(Y)}{c g(Y)}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y) \left[ \int_{0}^{f(y)/(cg(y))} 1 \, du \right] \, dy$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y) \frac{f(y)}{cg(y)} \, dy$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{c} f(y) \, dy = \frac{1}{c}$$

Taking the ratio, the (1/c) cancels, so  $P(V \le x) = P(X \le x)$ .

### **Example: Truncated Normal**

We've used rejection sampling algorithm for the Truncated Normal before:

$$Y = Z \mid 0 \le Z \le 1, Z \sim N(0, 1)$$

To use AR, we need the density function. To get this, start with the CDF:

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \le y) = P(Z \le y \mid 0 \le Z \le 1) = \frac{P(Z \le y, 0 \le Z \le 1)}{P(0 \le Z \le 1)}$$
$$= \frac{1}{P(Z \le 1) - P(Z \le 0)} \int_0^y \phi(x) \, dx$$

where  $\phi$  is the PDF of the standard Normal distribution.

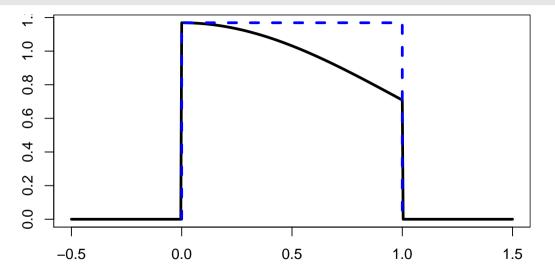
By definition, the PDF is the derivative of the CDF, so for  $0 \le y \le 1$ ,

$$f(y) = \frac{\phi(y)}{P(Z \le 1) - P(Z \le 0)}$$

## Implementing in R

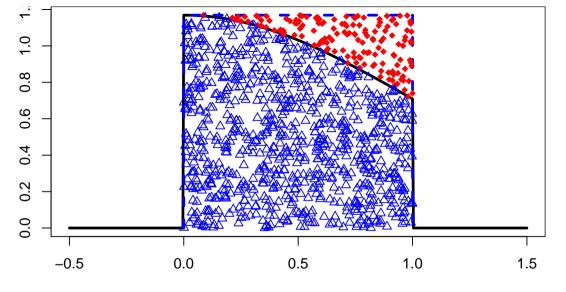
```
> (scaling_const <- pnorm(1) - pnorm(0))</pre>
[1] 0.3413
Then we compute the density function as:
> truncated <- function(x) {</pre>
   ifelse(x >= 0 \& x <= 1,
            dnorm(x) / scaling_const,
            0)
```

# Picking a candidate density: Uniform



## **Implementing**

```
> ys <- runif(1000)
> const <- truncated(0)</pre>
> ratios <- truncated(ys) / (const * 1) # g(y) = 1
> us <- runif(1000)
> accept_uniform <- us < ratios
> accepted_uniform <- ys[accept_uniform]</pre>
> rejected_uniform <- ys[!accept_uniform]</pre>
Estimating E(X):
> mean(accepted_uniform)
[1] 0.4684
```



We rejected 15.1% of the candidate draws. Can we do better?

# Fitting a closer candidate distribution

Consider the density:

$$g(y) = \frac{2}{3}(2-y), \quad 0 \le y \le 1$$

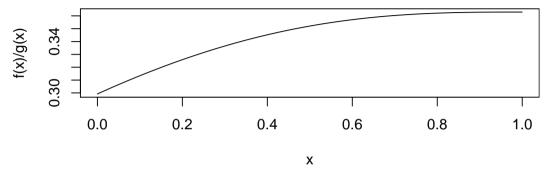
with quantile function

$$Q_y(p)=2-\sqrt{4-3p}$$

Need to find a c such that

$$c \times \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} \ge 1 \Rightarrow c \ge \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}, 0 \le x \le 1$$

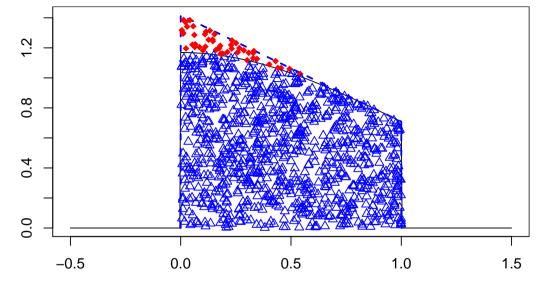
Notice that the **ratio** f(x)/g(x) **is increasing**:



Then the maximum ratio is at x = 1.

$$c = f(1)/g(1) = 0.363 \Rightarrow \frac{cg(x)}{f(x)} \ge 1, 0 \le x \le 1$$

```
> g \leftarrow function(y) \{ (2/3) * (2 - y) \}
> qg <- function(p) { 2 - sqrt(4 - 3 * p)}
> ys <- qg(runif(1000))</pre>
> const <- truncated(1) / g(1)</pre>
> ratios <- truncated(ys) / (const * g(ys))</pre>
> us <- runif(1000)
> accept_g <- us < ratios
> accepted_g <- vs[accept_g]</pre>
> rejected_g <- ys[!accept_g]</pre>
```



Now we reject only 5.1% of the candidate draws.

## **Comparing Efficiency**

Recall, we define the efficiency of an estimator as the variance of the sampling distribution for that estimator.

For both the uniform and tuned candidates, the variance is given by:

$$\frac{1}{n}$$
Var  $(Y)$ 

. The Var(Y) term is the same in both cases, so when calculating the **relative efficiency** we only consider the resulting (non-rejected) sample size:

Interpretation: the method using g is 10% more efficient than the uniform method.

## A bimodal density

Suppose we have a density of the form:

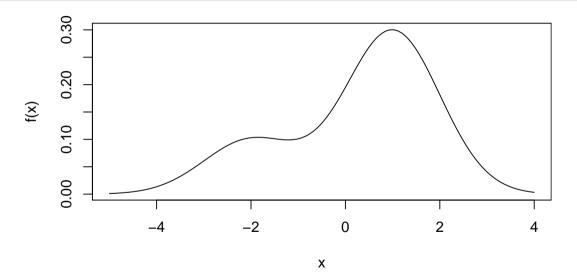
$$f(x) = 0.25\phi(x+2) + 0.75\phi(x-1), -\infty < x < \infty$$

where  $\phi$  is the standard Normal PDF.

$$> f \leftarrow function(x) \{ 0.25 * dnorm(x + 2) + 0.75 * dnorm(x - 1) \}$$

A density like is this called **bimodal** because it contains two local maxima.

# 



#### What candidate distribution?

Our initial thought might be to use  $\phi(x)$  (standard Normal) as the candidate.

The only problem with that is that

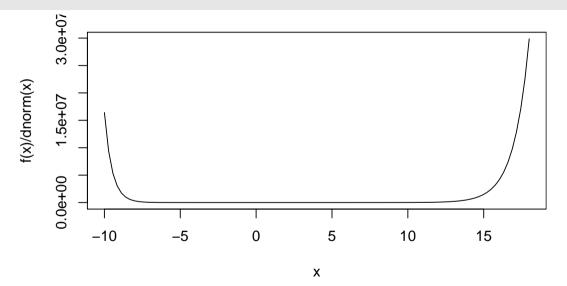
$$\lim_{x \to \pm \infty} f(x)/\phi(x) = \infty$$

(i.e., no c exists that uniformly bounds f).

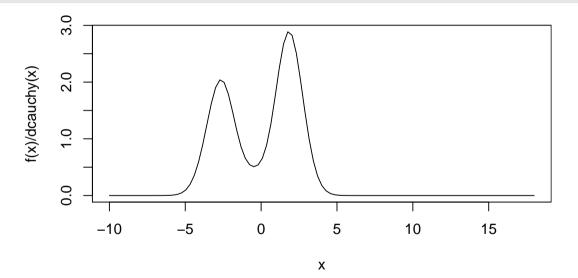
We saw that the Cauchy distribution has fat tails, perhaps that would be useful?

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x)^2}$$

# Ratio of $f(x)/\phi(x)$



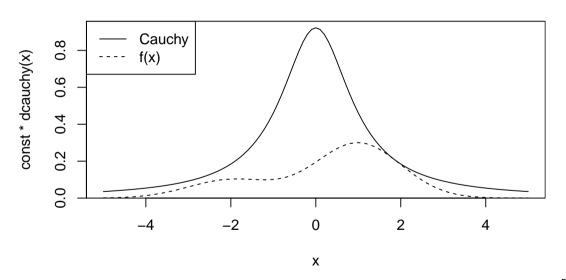
# Ratio of f(x)/g(x)



# Lazy mode: find c by evaluation

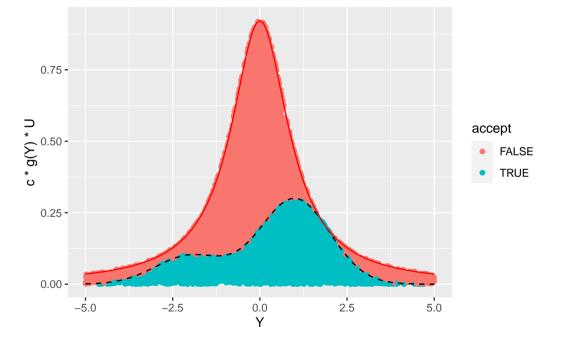
```
> h <- function(x) { f(x) / dcauchy(x)}
> xs <- seq(-4, 4, length.out = 1000)
> (const <- max(h(xs)))
[1] 2.898</pre>
```

# **Plotting Distributions**



## Putting it together

```
> k <- 10000
> ys <- rcauchy(k)
> ratios <- f(ys) / (const * dcauchy(ys))
> us <- runif(k)
> accept <- us < ratios
> x <- ys[accept] ; mean(accept)
[1] 0.3526</pre>
```



### What if we got *c* wrong?

We found c=2.898. What if we were wrong? How would the distribution change? Too large, too small?

```
> wrong_consts <- c(2 * const,
+ const,
+ 0.75 * const,
+ 0.25 * const,
+ 0.1 * const,
+ 0)</pre>
```

#### Functions to handle AR

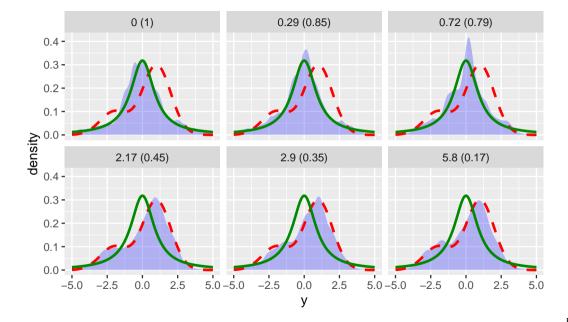
For numerical reasons, we'll rewrite  $U \leq f(Y)/(cg(Y))$  as

$$cg(Y)U \leq f(Y)$$

```
> accept_reject <- function(n, f, g, rg, const) {
+     ys <- rg(n)
+     us <- runif(k)
+     accept <- us * const * g(ys) <= f(ys)
+     data.frame(y = ys, accept = accept)
+ }</pre>
```

## Using the bad constants

```
> bimodal <- function(const) {
+    accept_reject(1000, f, dcauchy, rcauchy, const)
+ }
> wrong <- map_dfr(wrong_consts, .id = "constant", bimodal)
> wrong$constant <- wrong_consts[as.numeric(wrong$constant)] # get the orig</pre>
```



## **Accept-Reject Summary**

- For a density f, use a density g for the sampling.
- Draw uniform values to decided to accept or reject draws for g.
- Need to figure out the scaling constant c to make  $cg(y)/f(y) \ge 1$
- Generally, we accept about  $100 \times (1/c)\%$  for the candidates, so making c small is useful.
- Picking c too large is ok, too small leads to draws from g.