

Stochastic Simulation - Concise Notes

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1 Introduction

Definition 1.1 (Probability Mass Functions). For a discrete random variable we define

$$p(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$$

where $x \in X$.

Definition 1.2 (Measure and density). Assume $X \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $X \in X$. Given random variable X we define measure of X as

$$\mathbb{P}(x_1 \leq X \leq x_2) = \mathbb{P}(X \in (x_1, x_2)) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x) dx$$

Definition 1.3 (Discrete Joint Probability Mass function). Let X, Y random variables, and \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} the sets they live on, they are at most countable sets. The joint Probability Mass Function is

$$p(x, y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y)$$

Definition 1.4 (Continuous Joint Probability Density Function). Let X, Y random variables and \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} their ranges. The joint Probability Density Function is

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in A, Y \in B) = \int_A \int_B f(x, y) dx dy$$

Definition 1.5 (Discrete Conditional Probability Mass Function). Let X, Y be random variables and \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} their ranges respectively. The conditional Probability Mass Function is

$$p(x|y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x|Y = y)$$

Definition 1.6 (Continuous Conditional Probability Density Function). Let X, Y be random variables and \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} their ranges respectively. The conditional Probability Density Function is

$$p(y | x) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)}$$

Here we have the conditional probability density function of Y given X

2 Exact Generation of Random Variates

Definition 2.1. A sequence of psuedo-random numbers u_1, u_2, \dots is a deterministic sequence of numbers whose statistical properties match a sequence of random numbers from a desired distribution.

2.1 Generating Uniform Random Variates

Definition (Linear Congruential Generator (LCG)). This method generates random numbers using a linear recursion

$$x_{n+1} \equiv ax_n + b \pmod{m}$$

where x_0 is the seed, m the **modulus** of recursion, b the **shift** and a the **multiplier**. If $b = 0$ then the generator is called a **multiplicative congruential generator**, and if $b \neq 0$ then it is called a **mixed congruential generator**.

We set m an integer and choose $a, b, x_0 \in \{0, \dots, m-1\}$ and so we have $x_n \in \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$. We then get the uniform numbers:

$$u_n = \frac{x_n}{m} \in [0, 1) \quad \forall n$$

2.2 Transformation Methods

Given pseudo-uniform random numbers, we can generate random numbers from other distributions using the following methods:

2.2.1 Inverse Transform Method

Theorem 2.1. Consider random variable X with CDF F_X . Then the random variable $F_X^{-1}(U)$ where U is a uniform random variable on $[0, 1)$ has the same distribution as X .

Algorithm 1: Psuedocode for inverse transform sampling

1. Input: number of samples n
2. for $i = 1, \dots, n$ do
3. Generate $U_i \sim U(0, 1)$
4. Set $X_i = F_X^{-1}(U_i)$
5. end for

2.2.2 Tranformation Method

Algorithm 2: Psuedocode for transformation method

1. Input: number of samples n
2. for $i = 1, \dots, n$ do
3. Generate $U_i \sim U(0, 1)$

4. Set $X_i = g(U_i)$
5. end for

Here choosing g is the crucial point.

2.2.3 Box-Muller Method

Box-Muller transform is a related transform to above, but provides a way to sample Gaussians directly from uniforms. In this case we just provide the algorithm.

Let $U_1, U_2, \sim U(0, 1)$ be independent. Then the Box-Muller transform is

$$\begin{aligned} Z_1 &= \sqrt{-2 \log U_1} \cos(2\pi U_2) \\ Z_2 &= \sqrt{-2 \log U_1} \sin(2\pi U_2) \end{aligned}$$

are independent standard normal random variables.

2.3 Rejection Sampling

Theorem 2.2 (Fundamental Theorem of Simulation). *Drawing samples from one dimensional random variable X with density $\bar{p}(x) \propto p(x)$ is equivalent to sampling uniformly on the two dimensional region defined by*

$$A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 \leq y \leq \bar{p}(x)\}$$

i.e. if (x', y') uniformly distributed on A then x' a sample from $p(x)$

2.3.1 Rejection Samples

Algorithm 3: Pseudocode for rejection sampling

1. Input: number of iterations n , and scaling factor M
2. for $i = 1, \dots, n$ do
3. Generate $X' \sim q(x')$
4. Generate $U \sim U(0, 1)$
5. if $U \leq \frac{p(X')}{Mq(X')}$ then
6. Accept X'
7. end if

8. end for
9. return accepted samples

Definition. Denote the unnormalised density associated to $p(x)$ as $\bar{p}(x)$, we write

$$p(x) = \frac{\bar{p}(x)}{Z}, \quad Z = \int \bar{p}(x) dx$$

Algorithm 4: Psuedocode for rejection sampling without normalising constants

1. Input: number of iterations n , and scaling factor M
2. for $i = 1, \dots, n$ do
3. Generate $X' \sim q(x')$
4. Generate $U \sim U(0, 1)$
5. if $U \leq \frac{\bar{p}(X')}{Mq(X')}$ then
6. Accept X'
7. end if
8. end for
9. return accepted samples

2.3.2 Acceptance Rate

Proposition 2.1. *When the target density $p(x)$ is normalised and M is prechosen, the acceptance ratio is given by*

$$\hat{a} = \frac{1}{M}$$

where $M > 1$ in order to satisfy the requirement that q covers p . For an unnormalised target density $\bar{p}(x)$ with the normalising constant $Z = \int \bar{p}(x)dx$ the acceptance rate is given as

$$\hat{a} = \frac{Z}{M}$$

2.3.3 Designing the Optimal Rejection Sampler

Choosing M We see that we should choose M such that $Mq(x) \geq p(x) \forall x$. To choose smallest such M we should find M^* such that

$$M^* = \sup_x \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

Optimising the proposal We optimise for the parameter θ of the proposal distribution q_θ .

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \log M_\theta$$

Use the log space as we obtain more tractable quantities

2.4 Composition

2.4.1 Sampling from Discrete Mixture Densities

Algorithm 5: Sampling Discrete Mixtures

1. The number of samples n
2. for $i = 1, \dots, n$ do
3. Generate $k \sim p(k)$
4. Generate $X_i \sim q_k(x)$
5. end for

Where we have

$$p(x) = \sum_{k=1}^W w_k q_k(x), \quad p(k) = w_k, \quad \sum_{k=1}^K p(k) = 1$$

2.5 Sampling Multivariate Densities

2.5.1 Sampling a Multivariate Gaussian

Define $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ a multivariate Gaussian

$$p(x) = (2\pi)^{-d/2} \det(\Sigma)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)\right)$$

where $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the mean and $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ is a $d \times d$ symmetric positive definite matrix. In univariate case, $Y = \mu + \sigma X$ gave us samples from $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we now generalise this to the multivariate case.

$$Y = \Sigma^{1/2} X + \mu$$

Computing $\Sigma^{1/2}$ using Cholesky decomposition.

Algorithm 6: Sampling Multivariate Gaussian

1. Input: number of samples n ,
2. for $i = 1, \dots, n$ do
3. Compute L such that $\Sigma = LL^T$ (Cholesky decomposition)
4. Draw d univariate independent normals $\nu_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ to form vector $\nu = (\nu_1, \dots, \nu_d)$
5. Generate $x_i = \mu + L\nu$
6. end for

3 Probabilistic Modelling and Inference

3.2 The Bayes Rule and it's Uses

Definition 3.1 (Bayes Theorem). Let X, Y be random variables, with associated densities $p(x), p(y)$ respectively. Bayes rule is given by

$$p(x | y) = \frac{p(y | x)p(x)}{p(y)}$$

3.3 Conditional Independence

Definition 3.2. Let X, Y and Z be random variables. Say that X and Y are conditionally independent given Z if

$$p(x, y | z) = p(x | z)p(y | z)$$

Corollary 3.1. If X, Y are conditionally independent given Z then

$$p(x | y, z) = p(x | z) \quad \text{and} \quad p(y | x, z) = p(y | z)$$

Proposition 3.1. Let X, Y and Z be random variables. If X and Y are conditionally independent given Z then

$$p(x, y, z) = p(x | z)p(y | z)p(z)$$

Proposition 3.2. Given X, Y, Z without any conditional independence assumptions, the conditional Bayes rule is

$$p(x | y, z) = \frac{p(y | x, z)p(x | z)}{p(y | z)}$$

Definition (Marginal Likelihood). The marginal likelihood is given by

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

4 Monte Carlo Integration

Given a probability density function $p(x)$ we are interested in computing expectations of the form

$$\bar{\varphi} = \mathbb{E}_p[\varphi(x)] = \int \varphi(x)p(x) dx$$

where φ called a **test function**.

Definition (Dirac Delta Measure). We define it as

$$f(y) = \int f(x)\delta_y(x) dx, \quad \delta_y(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x = y \\ 0 & x \neq y \end{cases}$$

We can think of the dirac as a point mass at y

Proposition 4.1. *Let X_1, \dots, X_n be i.i.d samples. Then the Monte Carlo estimator*

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

is unbiased, i.e.

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\varphi}^N] = \bar{\varphi}$$

Proposition 4.2. *Let X_1, \dots, X_n be iid samples from p . Then the Monte Carlo estimator*

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

has variance

$$\text{Var}[\hat{\varphi}^N] = \frac{1}{N} (\text{var}_p[\varphi(X)])$$

where

$$\text{var}_p[\varphi(X)] = \int (\varphi(x) - \bar{\varphi})^2 p(x) dx$$

4.2 Error Metrics

Definition (Bias). The bias of an estimator is defined as

$$\text{Bias}[\hat{\varphi}^N] = \mathbb{E}[\hat{\varphi}^N] - \underbrace{\bar{\varphi}}_{\text{True value}}$$

Definition (Mean Squared Error). The mean squared error of an estimator is defined as

$$\text{MSE}[\hat{\varphi}^N] = \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\varphi}^N - \bar{\varphi})^2]$$

we have that

$$\text{MSE}[\hat{\varphi}^N] = \text{Var}[\hat{\varphi}^N] + \text{Bias}[\hat{\varphi}^N]^2$$

and also the Root Mean Squared Error is

$$\text{RMSE}[\hat{\varphi}^N] = \sqrt{\text{MSE}[\hat{\varphi}^N]}$$

Definition (Relative Absolute Error). The relative absolute error is defined as

$$\text{RAE}[\hat{\varphi}^N] = \frac{|\hat{\varphi}^N - \bar{\varphi}|}{|\bar{\varphi}|}$$

4.3 Importance Sampling

Algorithm 7: Basic Importance Sampling

1. Input: number of samples N
2. for $i = 1, \dots, N$ do
3. Generate $X_i \sim q(x)$
4. Compute importance weights $w_i = \frac{p(X_i)}{q(X_i)}$
5. end for
6. Compute the estimate

$$\hat{\varphi}^N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N w_i \varphi(X_i)$$

Proposition 4.3. *The estimator $\hat{\varphi}_{IS}^N$ is unbiased, i.e.*

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\varphi}_{IS}^N] = \bar{\varphi}$$

Proposition 4.4. *Variance of estimator $\hat{\varphi}_{IS}^N$ is given by*

$$\text{Var}[\hat{\varphi}_{IS}^N] = \frac{1}{N} (\mathbb{E}_q[w^2(X)\varphi^2(X)] - \bar{\varphi}^2)$$

Pseudocode for self-normalised importance sampling

1. Input: number of samples N
2. for $i = 1, \dots, N$ do
3. Generate $X_i \sim q(x)$
4. Compute importance weights $W_i = \frac{\bar{p}(X_i)}{q(X_i)}$
5. Normalise:

$$\bar{w}_i = \frac{W_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N W_i}$$

6. end for
7. Compute the estimate

$$\hat{\varphi}_{SNIS}^N = \sum_{i=1}^N \bar{w}_i \varphi(X_i)$$

Common numerical trick is to use the log-sum-exp trick to avoid numerical instability.

$$\log W_i = \log \bar{p}(X_i) - \log q(X_i)$$

$$\log \widetilde{W}_i = \log \bar{p}(X_i) - \log q(X_i) - \max \log W_i$$

$$\bar{w}_i = \frac{\exp(\log \widetilde{W}_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N \exp(\log \widetilde{W}_i)}$$

Proposition 4.5. *The marginal likelihood estimator given by*

$$p^N(y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N W_i$$

is an unbiased estimator of the marginal likelihood $p(y)$

Definition 4.1 (Effective Sample Size). To measure the sample efficiency, one measure that is used in the literature is the effective sample size (ESS) which is given by

$$ESS_N = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^N \bar{w}_i^2}$$

for the SNIS estimator.

5 Markov Chain Monte Carlo

Definition 5.1 (Markov Chain). A discrete Markov Chain is a sequence of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots such that

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} \mid X_n = x_n, \dots, X_1 = x_1) = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} \mid X_n = x_n)$$

Definition 5.2 (Transition Matrix). The transition matrix of a Markov Chain is a matrix M such that

$$M_{ij} = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j \mid X_n = i)$$

Definition (Chapman-Kolmogorov Equation). The Chapman-Kolmogorov equation is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j \mid X_1 = i) &= \sum_k \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j \mid X_n = k) \mathbb{P}(X_n = k \mid X_1 = i) \\ M^{m+n} &= M^m M^n \end{aligned}$$

Definition (Recurrent and Transient States). A state $i \in X$ is **recurrent** if for

$$\tau_i = \inf\{n \geq 1 : X_n = i\} \quad (\text{the return time})$$

we have

$$\mathbb{P}(\tau_i < \infty \mid X_0 = i) = 1$$

A state is **transient** if it is not recurrent.

We say i positively recurrent if

$$\mathbb{E}[\tau_i \mid X_0 = i] < \infty$$

If a chain recurrent but not positive recurrent, it is null recurrent.

Definition (Stationary Distribution). A distribution π is stationary for a Markov Chain if

$$\pi = \pi M$$

Also called the invariant distribution.

Theorem 5.1. *If M is irreducible, then M has a unique invariant distribution if and only if it is positive recurrent.*

Definition (Periodicity). A state i is aperiodic if

$$\{n > 0 : \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = i \mid X_1 = i) > 0\}$$

has greatest common divisor 1.

A Markov Chain is aperiodic if all states are aperiodic.

Definition (Ergodicity). A Markov Chain is ergodic if it is irreducible, aperiodic and positive recurrent.

If a chain $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is ergodic with initial distribution p_0 and invariant distribution p^* then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(X_n = i) = p^*(i)$$

Moreover, for $i, j \in X$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(X_n = i \mid X_1 = j) = p^*(i)$$

5.2 Continuous State Space Markov Chains

Definition. A continuous state space Markov Chain is a sequence of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots such that

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} \in A \mid X_n = x_n, \dots, X_1 = x_1) = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} \in A \mid X_n = x_n)$$

where X an uncountable set, and denote by $K(x \mid x')$ the transition kernel.

Definition 5.3 (K-Invariance). Probability measure p_* is called K -invariant if

$$p_*(x) = \int_X K(x \mid x') p_*(x') dx'$$

Definition 5.4 (Detailed Balance). A transition kernel K satisfies detailed balance with respect to a probability measure p_* if

$$K(x' \mid x) p_*(x) = K(x \mid x') p_*(x')$$

Proposition 5.1 (Detailed balance implies stationarity). *If K satisfies detailed balance, then p_* is the invariant distribution*

5.3 Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

Algorithm 9: Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

1. Input: number of samples N
2. for $i = 1, \dots, N$ do
3. Propose sample $X' \sim q(x' \mid X_{i-1})$
4. Accept sample X' with probability

$$\alpha(X_{n-1}, X') = \min \left(1, \frac{p(X')q(X_{n-1} \mid X')}{p(X_{n-1})q(X' \mid X_{i-1})} \right)$$

5. Otherwise reject sample and set $X_n = X_{n-1}$
6. end for
7. Discard first burn-in samples and return the rest

Definition. Define the acceptance ratio as

$$r(x, x') = \frac{p(x')q(x | x')}{p(x)q(x' | x)}$$

Proposition 5.2 (Metropolis-Hastings satisfies detailed balance). *The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm satisfies detailed balance with respect to the target distribution p_\star i.e.*

$$p_\star(x)K(x | x') = p_\star(x')K(x' | x)$$

where K is the kernel defined by the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm.

Algorithm 10: Metropolis-Hastings method for Bayesian Inference

1. Input: number of samples N , and starting point X_0
2. for $i = 1, \dots, N$ do
3. Propose sample $X' \sim q(x' | X_{i-1})$
4. Accept sample X' with probability

$$\alpha(X_{n-1}, X') = \min \left(1, \frac{\bar{p}_\star(x')q(x_{n-1} | x')}{\bar{p}_\star(x_{n-1})q(x' | x_{n-1})} \right)$$

5. Otherwise reject sample and set $X_n = X_{n-1}$
6. end for
7. Discard first burn-in samples and return the rest

Algorithm 11: Gibbs Sampler

1. Input: number of samples N , and starting point X_0
2. for $i = 1, \dots, N$ do

3. Sample

$$\begin{aligned} X_{n,1} &\sim p_{1,\star}(X_{n,1} \mid X_{n-1,2}, \dots, X_{n-1,d}) \\ X_{n,2} &\sim p_{2,\star}(X_{n,2} \mid X_{n,1}, X_{n-1,3}, \dots, X_{n-1,d}) \\ &\vdots \\ X_{n,d} &\sim p_{d,\star}(X_{n,d} \mid X_{n,1}, \dots, X_{n,d-1}) \end{aligned}$$

4. end for

5. Discard first burn-in samples and return the rest

Proposition 5.3. *The Gibbs kernel K leaves the target distribution p_\star invariant.*

Algorithm 12: Random Scan Gibbs Sampler

1. Input: number of samples N , and starting point X_0

2. for $i = 1, \dots, N$ do

3. Sample $j \sim \{1, \dots, d\}$

$$X_{n,j} \sim p_{j,\star}(X_{n,j} \mid X_{n,1}, \dots, X_{n,j-1}, X_{n,j+1}, \dots, X_{n,d})$$

4. end for

5. Discard first burn-in samples and return the rest