

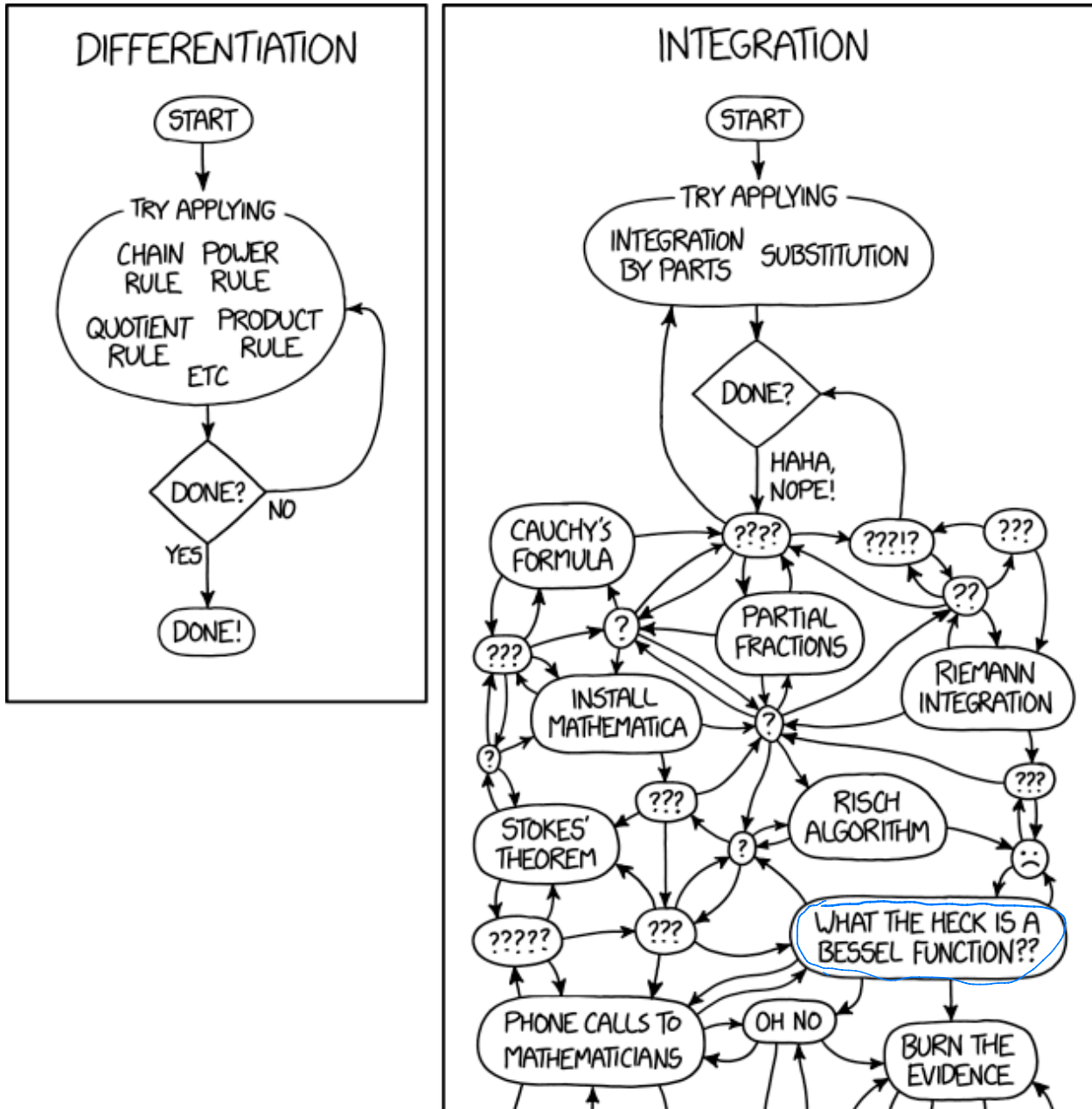
what I've been calling Ch. 5.

Chapter 6: Monte Carlo Integration

ch. 3.

Monte Carlo integration is a statistical method based on random sampling in order to approximate integrals. This section could alternatively be titled,

“Integrals are hard, how can we avoid doing them?”



1 A Tale of Two Approaches

Consider a one-dimensional integral.

$$\int_a^b \underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{"integrand"}} dx$$

The value of the integral can be derived analytically only for a few functions, f . For the rest, numerical approximations are often useful.

Why is integration important to statistics?

Many quantities of interest in inferential statistics can be expressed as the expectation of a function of a r.v.

$$E g(x) = \int g(x) f(x) dx.$$

1.1 Numerical Integration

Idea: Approximate $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ via the sum of many polygons under the curve $f(x)$.

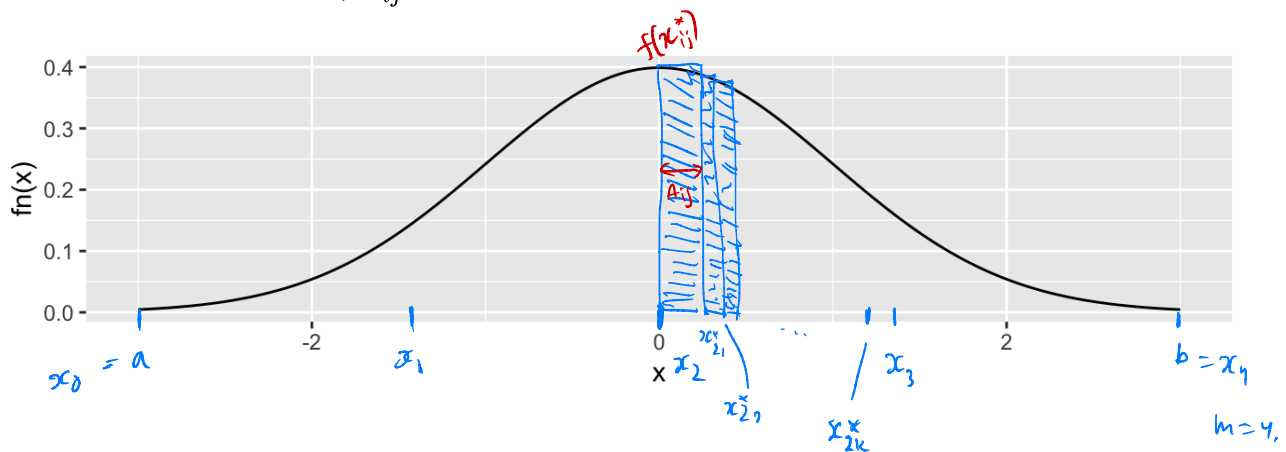
To do this, we could partition the interval $[a, b]$ into m subintervals $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ for $i = 0, \dots, m - 1$ with $x_0 = a$ and $x_m = b$.

Within each interval, insert $k + 1$ nodes, so for $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ let x_{ij}^* for $j = 0, \dots, k$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^k A_{ij} f(x_{ij}^*)$$

\uparrow width \uparrow height

for some set of constants, A_{ij} .



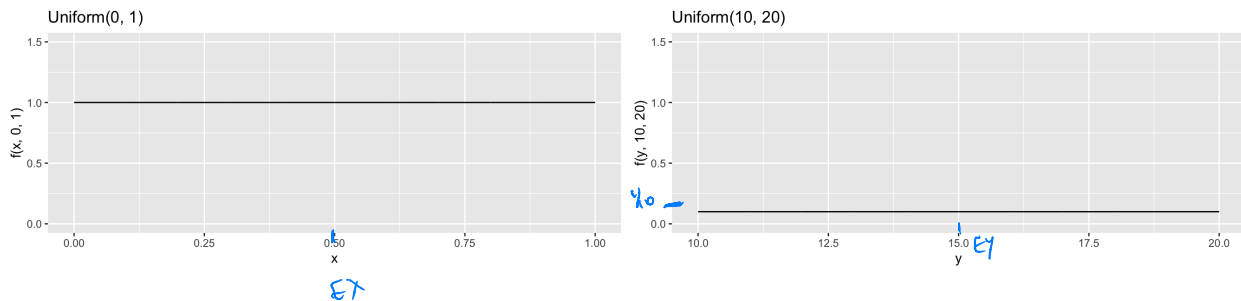
1.2 Monte Carlo Integration

How do we compute the mean of a distribution?

Example 1.1 Let $X \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ and $Y \sim \text{Unif}(10, 20)$.

```
x <- seq(0, 1, length.out = 1000)
f <- function(x, a, b) 1/(b - a)
ggplot() +
  geom_line(aes(x, f(x, 0, 1))) +
  ylim(c(0, 1.5)) +
  ggtitle("Uniform(0, 1)")

y <- seq(10, 20, length.out = 1000)
ggplot() +
  geom_line(aes(y, f(y, 10, 20))) +
  ylim(c(0, 1.5)) +
  ggtitle("Uniform(10, 20)")
```




Theory

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \int_0^1 x f(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^1 x \cdot 1 dx \\ &= \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y) &= \int_{10}^{20} y f(y) dy \\ &= \int_{10}^{20} y \cdot \frac{1}{10} dy \\ &= \frac{1}{10} \left[\frac{y^2}{2} \right]_{10}^{20} = 15. \end{aligned}$$

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{10} & 10 \leq y \leq 20 \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

How about a dist that looks like

 ??

Probably can't do this in closed form.
 need to approximate.

1.2.1 Notation

θ = parameter (unknown).

$\hat{\theta}$ = estimator of θ , statistic (sometimes we write \bar{X} , S^2 , etc. instead of $\hat{\theta}$).

Distribution of $\hat{\theta}$ = sampling distribution

$E[\hat{\theta}]$ = on average, what's the value of $\hat{\theta}$?
theoretical mean of the distribution of $\hat{\theta}$ (sampling dsu).

$\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})$ = theoretical variance of $\hat{\theta}$
variance of the sampling dsu of $\hat{\theta}$.

estimated versions of theoretical quantities.

$\hat{E}[\hat{\theta}]$ = estimated mean of dsu of $\hat{\theta}$

$\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta})$ = estimated variance of dsu of $\hat{\theta}$.

$\text{se}(\hat{\theta}) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}$ = theoretical se. of $\hat{\theta}$ = sd of sampling dsu of $\hat{\theta}$.

$\hat{\text{se}}(\hat{\theta}) = \sqrt{\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta})}$ = estimated se of $\hat{\theta}$ = estimated sd of sampling dsu of $\hat{\theta}$.

1.2.2 Monte Carlo Simulation

What is Monte Carlo simulation?

Computer simulation that generates a large number of samples from a distribution. The distribution characterizes the population from which the sample is drawn.

(sounds a lot like ch. 3).

1.2.3 Monte Carlo Integration

parameter characterizes a population. Thing we care about & want to estimate.

To approximate $\theta = E[X] = \int x f(x) dx$, we can obtain an iid random sample X_1, \dots, X_n from f and then approximate θ via the sample average

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m X_i \approx EX$$

Example 1.2 Again, let $X \sim Unif(0, 1)$ and $Y \sim Unif(10, 20)$. To estimate $E[X]$ and $E[Y]$ using a Monte Carlo approach,

① draw $X_1, \dots, X_m \sim Unif(0, 1)$.

② Compute $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m X_i$

① draw $Y_1, \dots, Y_m \sim Unif(10, 20)$

② Compute $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m Y_i$

This is useful when we can't compute the EX in closed form. Also useful for approximating other integrals.

Now consider $E[g(X)]$.

$$\theta = E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f(x) dx.$$

The Monte Carlo approximation of θ could then be obtained by

1. Draw $X_1, \dots, X_m \sim f$

2. Compute $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i)$

Definition 1.1 *Monte Carlo integration* is the statistical estimation of the value of an integral using evaluations of an integrand at a set of points drawn randomly from a distribution with support over the range of integration.

Example 1.3

(A) Parameter estimation! Linear models vs. generalized linear models.
 $Y = X\beta + \epsilon$ $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$, $\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$ closed form solution.

GLM: $Y \sim \text{Binom}(p)$
 $\text{logit}(p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X \rightarrow$ no estimates for β_0 and β_1 in closed form.

(B) estimate quantiles of a dsn. Find y s.t. $0.9 = \int_{-\infty}^y f(x) dx$.

Why the mean?

Let $E[g(X)] = \theta$, then

$$E(\hat{\theta}) = E\left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i)\right) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m E g(X_i) \stackrel{\text{drew } X_i \text{ iid from } f}{=} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m E g(X) = \frac{1}{m} [\underbrace{\theta + \theta + \dots + \theta}_{m \text{ times}}] = \theta.$$

So $\hat{\theta}$ is unbiased.

and, by the strong law of large numbers,

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i) \xrightarrow{p} E(g(X)) = \theta$$

So $\hat{\theta}$ is consistent.

Example 1.4 Let $v(x) = (g(x) - \theta)^2$, where $\theta = E[g(X)]$, and assume $g(X)^2$ has finite expectation under f . Then

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

We may want to approximate sampling variance of $\hat{\theta}$.

We can estimate this using a Monte Carlo approach.

$$\hat{\text{Var}}(g(X)) = \hat{E}[v(X)]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\hat{\theta}) &= \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i)\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_{i=1}^m \text{Var} g(X_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{m} \text{Var} g(X). \end{aligned}$$

(1) Sample X_1, \dots, X_m from f .

(2) Compute $\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (g(X_i) - \theta)^2$

↑ Approximate! We don't know this. we can replace it with $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i)$.

To estimate,

$$\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \hat{\text{Var}} g(X).$$

When $\text{Var } g(x)$ exists and is finite, the CLT states.

$$\frac{\hat{\theta} - E\hat{\theta} = \theta}{\sqrt{\text{Var } \hat{\theta} = \frac{\text{Var } g(x)}{m}}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1) \text{ as } m \rightarrow \infty.$$

Hence, if m is large,

$$\hat{\theta} \overset{\text{"approximately distributed"}}{\sim} N\left(\theta, \frac{\text{Var } g(x)}{m}\right)$$

can use $\hat{\text{Var}} g(x)$ as a plugin.

We can use this to put confidence limits or error bounds on the MC estimate of the integral θ_0 .

We can do inference on the integral θ !

Monte Carlo integration provides slow convergence, i.e. even though by the SLLN we know we have convergence, it may take us a while to get there.

But, Monte Carlo integration is a **very** powerful tool. While numerical integration methods are difficult to extend to multiple dimensions and work best with a smooth integrand, Monte Carlo does not suffer these weaknesses.

- Numeric integration cannot say the same*
- MC does not attempt systematic exploration of the p -dimensional support region of f .
 - MC does not require integrand to be smooth.
 - MC does not require finite support
- 1.2.4 Algorithm** $\int h(x) dx$.

The approach to finding a Monte Carlo estimator for ~~$\int g(x)f(x)dx$~~ is as follows.

- before R*
1. Select f, g to define $\theta = \int h(x) dx$ as an expected value, i.e. $\int h(x) dx = \int g(x)f(x) dx$
TIP: the support of f MUST MATCH the support of the integral. unless we can get clever with $g(x)$.
 2. Derive the estimator s.t. θ approximates that integral $\theta = E[g(X)]$.
Eg(X) where $X \sim f$
- in R*
3. Sample X_1, \dots, X_m from f .
 4. Compute $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i)$.

Example 1.5 Estimate $\theta = \int_0^1 h(x) dx$.

- ① let f be Uniform $(0,1)$ density, $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [0,1] \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$
 $g(x) = h(x)$.
- ② then $\theta = \int_0^1 g(x) \cdot 1 dx = \int_0^1 g(x) f(x) dx = E[g(X)]$, $X \sim \text{Unif}(0,1)$.
- ③ Sample X_1, \dots, X_m from $\text{Unif}(0,1)$.
 $\rightarrow X \leftarrow \text{unif}(m)$.
- ④ Compute $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m h(X_i)$.
 $\rightarrow \text{mean}(h(X))$

Example 1.6 Estimate $\theta = \int_a^b h(x) dx$.

① Choose $f \equiv \text{Unif}(a,b)$ so $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & x \in [a,b] \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$ $f(x) \cdot g(x) = h(x)$

Then $g(x) = (b-a) \cdot h(x)$.

② $\theta = \int_a^b h(x) dx = \int_a^b (b-a) h(x) \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dx = E[(b-a)h(X)]$, $X \sim \text{Unif}(a,b)$.

③ Sample $X_1, \dots, X_m \sim \text{Unif}(a,b)$ $\rightarrow X \leftarrow \text{runif}(m, a, b)$.

④ evaluate $\hat{\theta} \approx \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (b-a)h(X_i)$ $\rightarrow \text{mean}((b-a)h(x))$

Another approach:

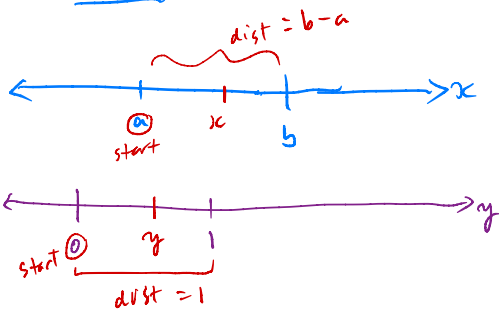
map (a,b) to $(0,1)$.

What if I chose $Y \sim \text{Unif}(0,1)$ instead! $f(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & y \in [0,1] \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$

But we care about $\int_{\text{support of } f} g(x) f(x) dx = E[g(X)]$

Problem: We want to integrate from (a,b) but support of dsn f is $(0,1)$.
So, we need a change of variables to use MC integration.

Need a function to map $x \in (a,b)$ to $y \in (0,1)$. We will use a linear transformation.



$$\frac{x-a}{b-a} = \frac{y-0}{1-0} = y$$

$x = y(b-a) + a$
 $dx = (b-a) dy$

solve for x

can check.

$$dy = \frac{dx}{b-a}$$

$$\theta = \int_a^b h\left(\frac{x-a}{b-a}(b-a) + a\right) \cdot \frac{dx}{b-a}$$

$$= \int_a^b h(x) dx$$

Now $\theta = \int_a^b h(x) dx = \int_0^1 \underbrace{h(y(b-a) + a)}_{g(y)} \cdot \underbrace{(b-a)}_{1=f(y)} dy$

To get $\hat{\theta}$,

- ① simulate Y_1, \dots, Y_m from $\text{Unif}(0,1)$
- ② $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \{h(Y_i \cdot (b-a) + a) \cdot (b-a)\}$

We can use this idea if the limits of integration don't match any density.

Example 1.7 Monte Carlo integration for the standard Normal cdf. Let $X \sim N(0, 1)$, then the pdf of X is

$$\phi(x) = f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right), \quad -\infty < x < \infty$$

and the cdf of X is

$$\Phi(x) = F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right) dt.$$

We will look at 3 methods to estimate $\Phi(x)$ for $x > 0$.

Method 1 Note that for $x \geq 0$, $\Phi(x) = \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^0 \phi(t) dt}_{= 1/2} + \int_0^x \phi(t) dt$

Why do we do this?
because now support of t is $[0, x]$.

① Let $Y \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$. Its support is $[0, 1]$. Want a function that maps $t \in [0, x]$ to $y \in [0, 1]$.

change of variables.

$$\frac{t}{x} = \frac{y}{1} = y \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{if } t=0 \Rightarrow y=0 \checkmark \\ \text{if } t=x \Rightarrow y=1 \checkmark \end{array}$$

$$dy = \frac{1}{x} dt$$

$$\Rightarrow t = xy \quad dt = x dy.$$

$$\int_0^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right) dt = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(xy)^2}{2}\right) \underbrace{x}_{\text{circled } x} dy.$$

$\uparrow 1 = f(x)$.

② Want to estimate $\theta = E_y \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(xy)^2}{2}\right) \right]$ where $Y \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$.

③ Sample $Y_1, \dots, Y_m \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$.

④ $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\Phi}(x) = 0.5 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left\{ \frac{x}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(xY_i)^2}{2}\right) \right\}$ for $x > 0$.

Method 2 instead, would let $Y \sim \text{Unif}(0, x)$.

derivations, etc. of $g \rightarrow$ HOMEWORK

Method 3

Let $\mathbb{1}$ denote an indicator function.

$$\mathbb{1}(Z \leq z) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Z \leq z \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

Let $Z \sim N(0, 1)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } E_Z[\mathbb{1}(Z \leq x)] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}(z \leq x) \phi(z) dz \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^x 1 \cdot \phi(z) dz + \int_x^{\infty} 0 \cdot \phi(z) dz \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^x \phi(z) dz = \Phi(x). \end{aligned}$$

So an MC estimator of $\Phi(x)$ is

① Generating $Z_1, \dots, Z_m \sim N(0, 1)$.

② $\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{1}(Z_i \leq x)$
counts # of Z_i 's $\leq x$.

Notes

- ① Can show Method 3 has less bias in the tails and Method 2 has less bias in the center.
- ② Method 3 works for any dsu to approximate the cdf (change f accordingly).

1.2.5 Inference for MC Estimators

The Central Limit Theorem implies

$$\frac{\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta})}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$$

$se(\hat{\theta}) \rightarrow \sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}$

This holds because X_1, \dots, X_m iid f.
and $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i)$.

So, we can construct confidence intervals for our estimator

1. 95% CI for $\hat{\theta}$ which estimates $E(g(X)) = \theta$: $\hat{\theta} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta})}$
2. (HW) 95% CI for $\hat{\Phi}(z)$: $\hat{\Phi}(z) \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\Phi}(z))}$

But we need to estimate $\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})$. (recap).

$$\text{Assume } \theta = E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x) dx$$

$$\sigma^2 = \text{Var}[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [g(x) - E g(x)]^2 f(x) dx$$

$$\text{Var } \hat{\theta} = \text{Var} \left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i) \right] = \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_{i=1}^m \text{Var}(g(X_i)) = \frac{\sigma^2}{m}$$

$$\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{m} = \frac{1}{m} \left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m [g(X_i) - \hat{\theta}]^2 \right] = \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_{i=1}^m (g(X_i) - \hat{\theta})^2$$

$\hat{\text{SE}}(\hat{\theta}) = \sqrt{\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta})}$

↑ estimated variance of the sampling distribution of $\hat{\theta}$ (an MC estimator).

Recall we usually use $s^2 = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (X_i - \bar{X})^2$ to estimate σ^2 .

Why not use s^2 w/ $\frac{1}{m-1}$ instead of $\hat{\sigma}^2$ with $\frac{1}{m}$?

For MC integration, m is large so $\frac{1}{m-1} \approx \frac{1}{m}$.

Ex if $m=1000$, $\frac{1}{m-1} - \frac{1}{m} = 1 \times 10^{-6}$

Some books use $\frac{1}{m-1}$, so $\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{1}{m(m-1)} \sum_{i=1}^m (g(X_i) - \hat{\theta})^2$

$$se(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{m}}$$

So, if $m \uparrow$ then $Var(\hat{\theta}) \downarrow$. How much does changing m matter?

Example 1.8 If the current $se(\hat{\theta}) = 0.01$ based on m samples, how many more samples do we need to get $se(\hat{\theta}) = 0.0001$?

$$\text{Current } se(\hat{\theta}) = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{m}} = 0.01$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{a \cdot m}} = 0.0001$$

$$\frac{\sigma^2}{m} \cdot \frac{1}{a} = (0.0001)^2$$

$$(0.01)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{a} = (0.0001)^2$$

$$a = \left(\frac{0.01}{0.0001} \right)^2$$

$$a = 10,000$$

So we would need 10,000 \times m samples to achieve $se(\hat{\theta}) = 0.0001$!

Is there a better way to decrease the variance? **Yes!**