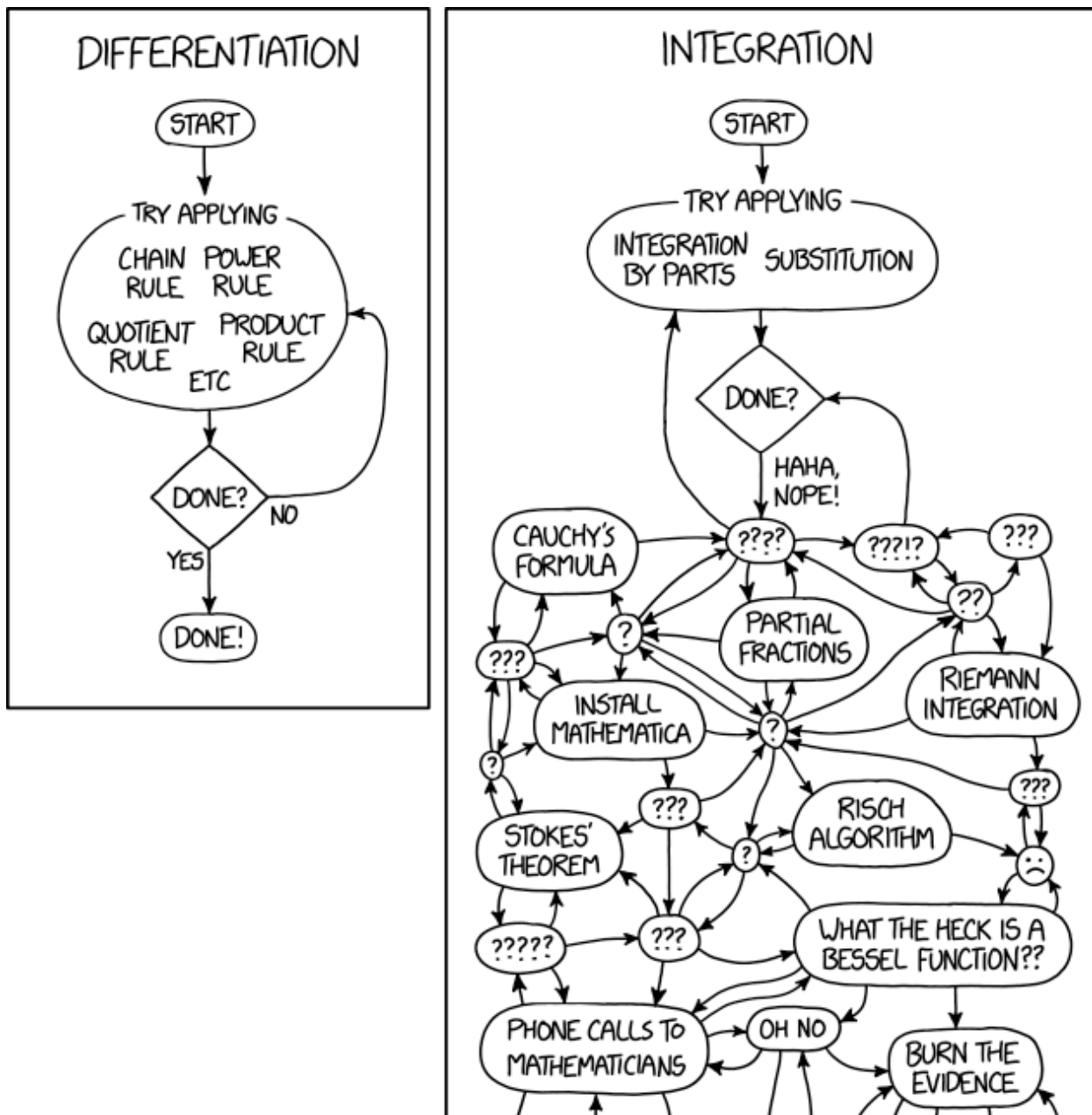


Chapter 6: Monte Carlo Integration *ch. 3*

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 random variable.

$$E[g(x)] = \int \underbrace{g(x)f(x)}_{\text{integrand}} dx$$

1.1 Numerical Integration

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

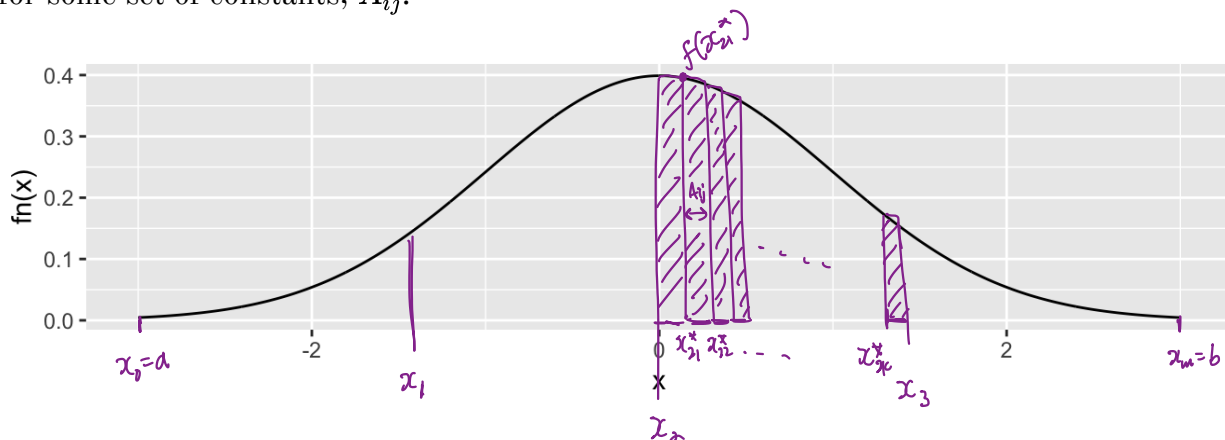
To do this, we could partition the interval $[a, b]$ into m subintervals $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ for $i = 0, \dots, m - 1$ with $x_0 = a$ and $x_m = b$.

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

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

↑ width
↑ height

for some set of constants, A_{ij} .



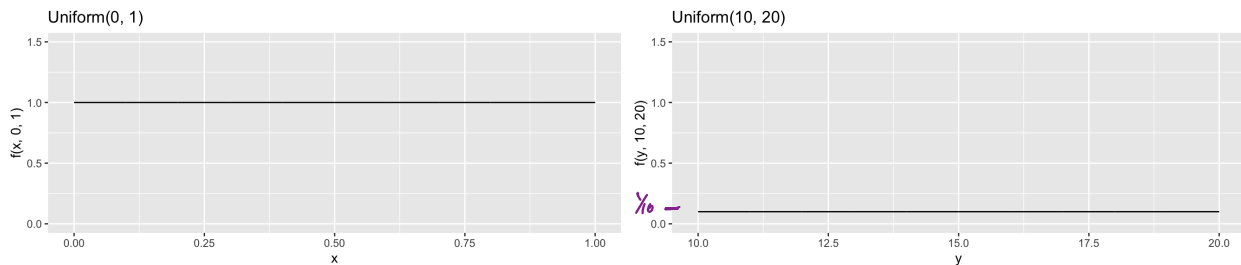
1.2 Monte Carlo Integration

How do we compute the mean of a distribution?

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

```
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

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

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

How about some other distn?



probably can't do this if closed form \Rightarrow need approximation.

1.2.1 Notation

θ = parameter (unknown)

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

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

$E[\hat{\theta}]$ = theoretical mean of the distribution of $\hat{\theta}$
on average, what is value of $\hat{\theta}$?

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

estimated versions

- $\hat{E}[\hat{\theta}]$ = estimated mean of distn of $\hat{\theta}$
- $\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta})$ = estimated variance of distn of $\hat{\theta}$
- $\text{se}(\hat{\theta}) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}$ theoretical variance of $\hat{\theta}$ = sd of sampling distn of $\hat{\theta}$
- $\hat{\text{se}}(\hat{\theta}) = \sqrt{\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta})}$ estimated S.E. 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 like ch. 3).

1.2.3 Monte Carlo Integration

parameter
characterizing
population
Thing we
care about!

To approximate $\theta = E[X] = \int x f(x) dx$, we can obtain an iid random sample X_1, \dots, X_m 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 $X \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ and $Y \sim \text{Unif}(10, 20)$. To estimate $E[X]$ and $E[Y]$ using a Monte Carlo approach,

$X \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$, estimate EX :

(1) drawing $X_1, \dots, X_m \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Unif}(0, 1)$

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

$Y \sim \text{Unif}(10, 20)$, estimate EY :

(1) drawing $Y_1, \dots, Y_m \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Unif}(10, 20)$

(2) Computing $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m Y_i$

This is useful when we can't compute EX in closed form.

Also useful to approximate 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 model: $Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$ $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2) \Rightarrow \hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$ closed form.

GLM: $Y \sim \text{Binom}(p)$

$\text{logit}(p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$ no estimate for β_0, β_1 in closed form.

(B) estimate quantiles of a dsn, e.g. Find y s.t. $\int_{-\infty}^y f(x) dx = 0.9$
Why the mean?

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

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

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

and, by the strong law of large numbers,

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

"consistency"

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

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

We can estimate this using a Monte Carlo approach.

$$\text{Want } \hat{\text{Var}}(g(x)) = \hat{E}[v(x)].$$

(1) Sample $X_1, \dots, X_m \sim f$

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

We don't know this!
can replace with

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

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(x_i)$$

If $\text{Var } g(x) < \infty \Rightarrow$ CLT states

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

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

Here if m is large

$$\hat{\theta} \approx N\left(\theta, \frac{\text{Var } g(x)}{m}\right)$$

can use $\hat{\text{Var}} g(x)$ plug in from above.

We can use this to put confidence limits or error bounds on the MC estimate of the integral $\hat{\theta}$.

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 of f .
- MC does not require integrand to be smooth, does not require finite support.

1.2.4 Algorithm

$$\int h(x) dx = \theta$$

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

- Before R
1. Select g, f to define θ as an expected value.
 2. Derive the estimator s.t. $\hat{\theta}$ approximates $\theta = E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x) dx$.
- in R .
3. Sample $X_1, \dots, X_m \sim f$
 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 the uniform $(0,1)$. Find g s.t. $f \cdot g = h$. \Rightarrow Let $g(x) = h(x)$.

② Then $\theta = \int_0^1 h(x) dx = \int_0^1 g(x) \cdot \overset{\text{unif}(0,1) \text{ density}}{1} dx = E(g(X))$, $X \sim \text{Unif}(0,1)$.

③ Sample X_1, \dots, X_m from $\text{Unif}(0,1)$.

$\rightarrow x \leftarrow \text{runif}(m)$.

④ Compute $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i)$.

$\rightarrow \text{mean}(g(x))$

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

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

Then $g(x) = (b-a)h(x)$

② So that $\theta = \int_a^b h(x) dx = \int_a^b (b-a)h(x) \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \int_a^b g(x) \cdot f(x) dx = E[g(X)], X \sim f$

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

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

Another approach:

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

What if I chose $Y \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ instead? Then $f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$

But we care about $E(g(X)) = \int_a^b g(x) f(x) dx$.

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

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

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

↓ solve for x ($x \rightarrow y$).

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

$$dx = (b-a) dy.$$

$$\text{Now } \theta = \int_a^b g(x) f(x) dx = \int_0^1 g(a + y(b-a)) f_Y(y) (b-a) dy.$$

To get $\hat{\theta}$,

① Simulate Y_1, \dots, Y_m from $\text{Unif}(0, 1)$.

$$\text{② } \hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \{g(a + Y_i(b-a)) (b-a)\}$$

↑
 $E[\tilde{g}(Y)], Y \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$.

$$\tilde{g}(y) = g(a + y(b-a)) \cdot (b-a).$$

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

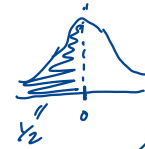
change of variable approach.

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

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



why? because now limits of integration are $(0, x)$.

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

Method 1: Note that for $x > 0$ $\Phi(x) = \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^0 \phi(t) dt}_{= 1/2} + \int_0^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right) dt$

change of variables approach.

Support of $Y \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ is $(0 < y < 1)$. So want function that maps $t \in (0, x)$ to $y \in (0, 1)$.

let $\frac{y-0}{1-0} = \frac{t-0}{x-0}$ so if $t=0 \Rightarrow y=0$ ✓
 $t=x \Rightarrow y=1$ ✓

↑ linear transformation!

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

Then $\int_0^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right) dt = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 y^2}{2}\right) x dy$

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

So a MC estimate could be obtained by:

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

② $\hat{\Phi}(x) = \underbrace{0.5}_{\text{fixed number}} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 Y_i^2}{2}\right) \cdot x \right\}$ for $x > 0$.

Method 2

Could instead have chosen to $Y \sim \text{Unif}(0, x)$

Homework.

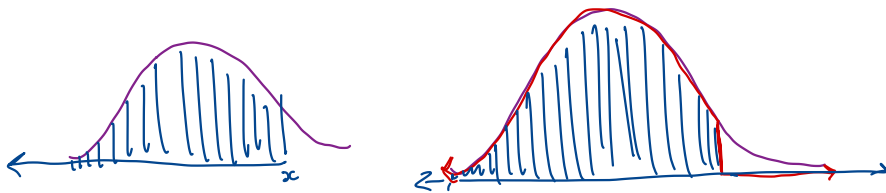
Method 3

Let \mathbb{I} be an indicator function.

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

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

$$\Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \phi(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{\mathbb{I}(t \leq x)}_{g(t)} \underbrace{\phi(t)}_{f(t)} dt$$



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

- ① Generate $Z_1, \dots, Z_m \sim N(0,1)$
- ② $\hat{\Phi}(x) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{I}(Z_i \leq x)$
count of # Z_i 's $\leq x$.

Notes:

- ① We can show that Method 3 has less bias in tails, and Method 2 has less bias in the center.

- ② Method 3 works for any dsr to approximate cdf (change f accordingly).

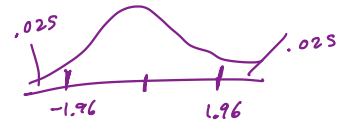
1.2.5 Inference for MC Estimators

The Central Limit Theorem implies

$$\frac{\overset{\text{MC estimator}}{\hat{\theta}} - E(\hat{\theta})}{\underset{\text{se}(\hat{\theta})}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}}} \rightarrow^d N(0, 1).$$

So, we can construct confidence intervals for our estimator

1. 95% CI for $E(\hat{\theta})$: $\hat{\theta} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}$
 \uparrow $z_{\text{norm}}(0.975)$
2. (HW) 95% CI for $\Phi(2)$: $\hat{\Phi}(2) \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\Phi}(2))}$



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

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

$$\text{let } \sigma^2 = \text{Var}[g(x)].$$

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

we can estimate this w/ MC integration.

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 $se(\hat{\theta}) = 0.0001$?

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