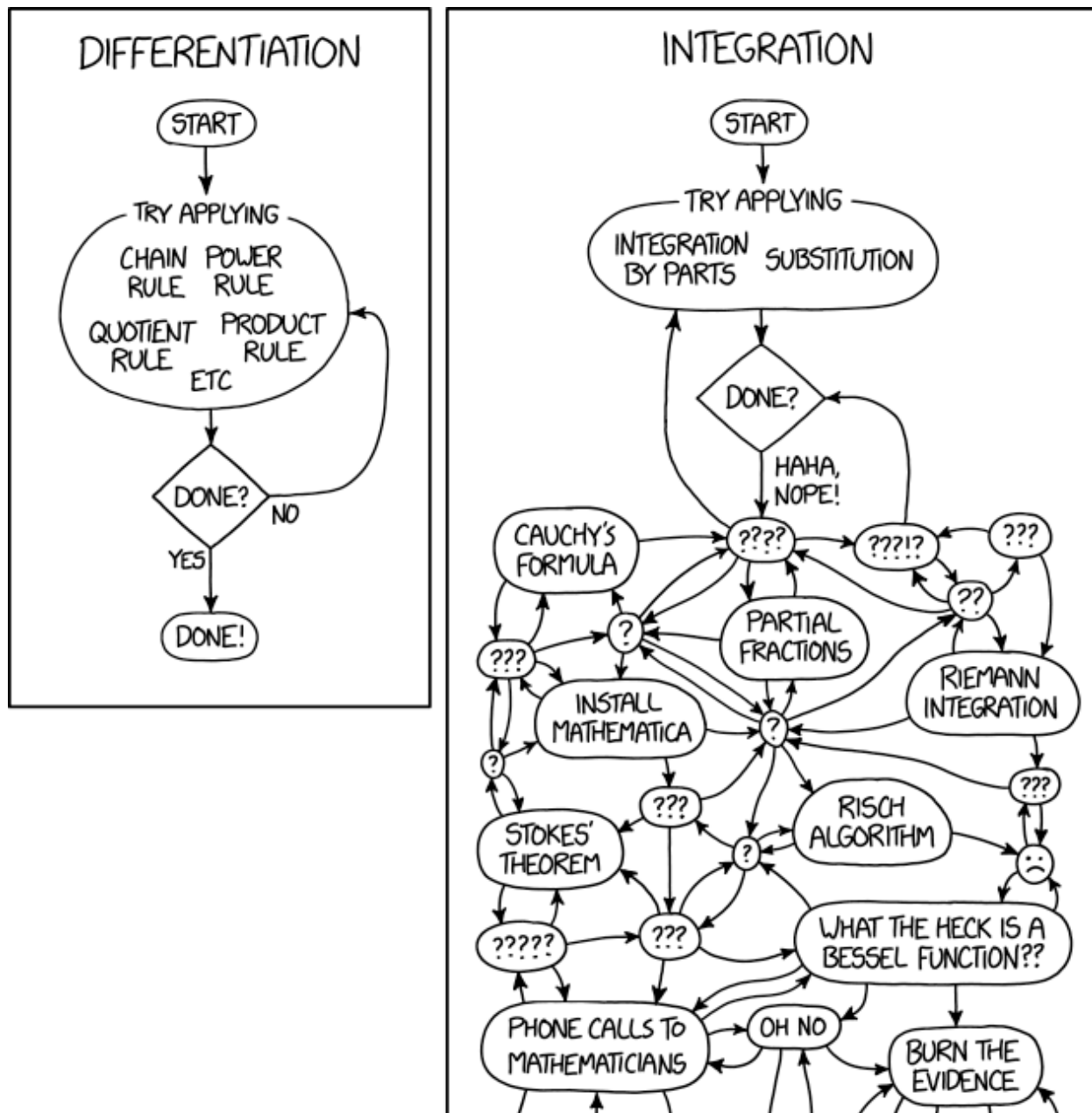


# Chapter 6: Monte Carlo Integration ch. 3

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  $f(x)$ .

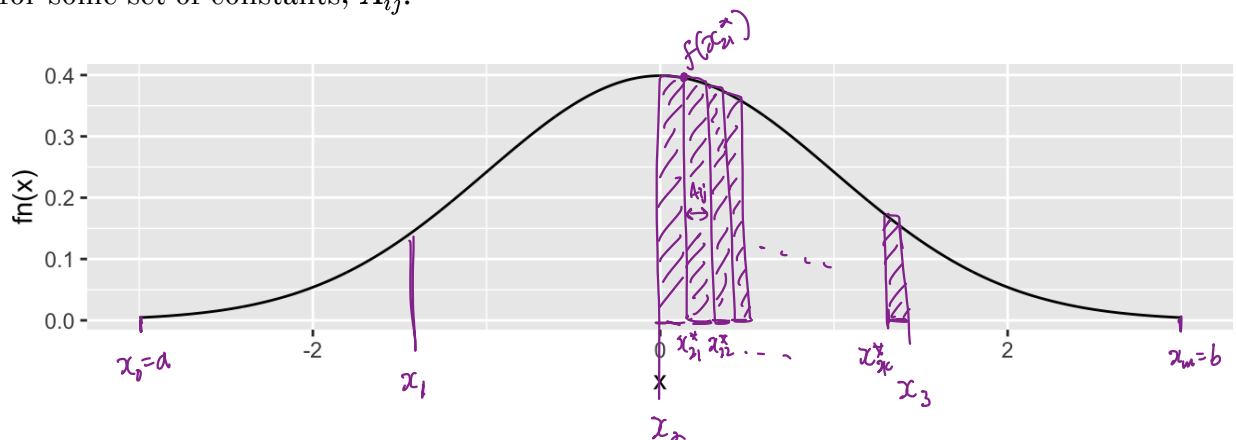
To do this, we could partition the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $m$  subintervals  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$  for  $i = 0, \dots, m - 1$  with  $x_0 = a$  and  $x_m = b$ .

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,  $A_{ij}$ .



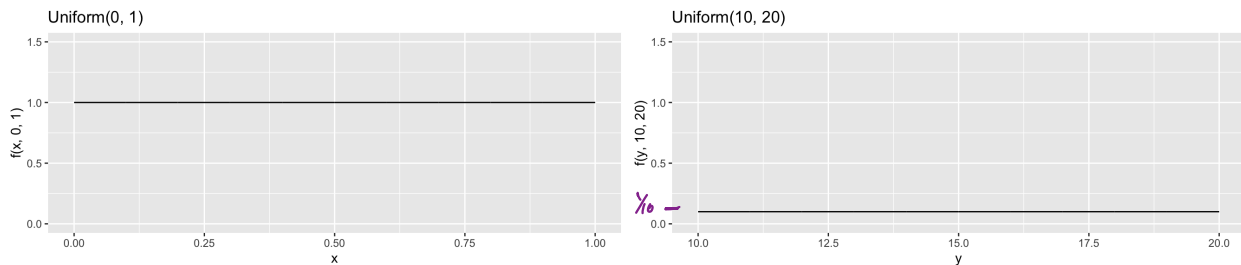
## 1.2 Monte Carlo Integration

How do we compute the mean of a distribution?

**Example 1.1** Let  $X \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$  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

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

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

How about some other distn?



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

### 1.2.1 Notation

$\theta$  = parameter (unknown)

$\hat{\theta}$  = estimator of  $\theta$ , 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  $\theta$  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,

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

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

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

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

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

(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  $\theta$  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  $\beta_0, \beta_1$  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  $\theta$  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  $\text{dsn}$  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  $\text{Unif}(0, 1)$ .

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

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

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

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

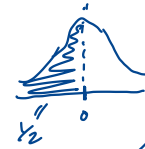
change of variable approach.

**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.

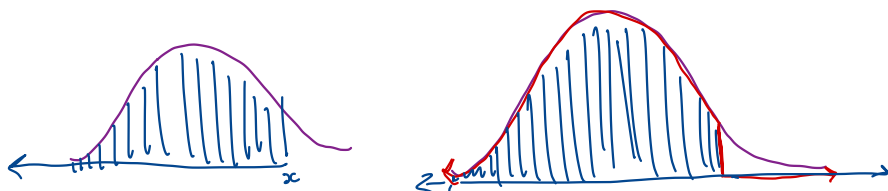
Method 3

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.

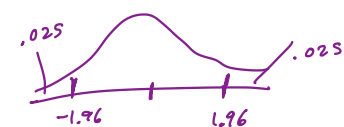
② Method 3 works for any dsr to approximate cdf (change  $f$  accordingly).

### 1.2.5 Inference for MC Estimators

The Central Limit Theorem implies

MC estimator  $\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta}) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$  as  $M \rightarrow \infty$   
 Se( $\hat{\theta}$ )  $\rightarrow \sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}$

So, we can construct confidence intervals for our estimator

- 95% CI for  $E(\hat{\theta})$ :  $\hat{\theta} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta})}$   
 $\uparrow$   $z_{norm}(0.975)$
  - (HW) 95% CI for  $\Phi(z)$ :  $\hat{\Phi}(z) \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\Phi}(z))}$
- plug in an estimate.*
- 

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

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

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

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.*

and  $\hat{\text{se}}(\hat{\theta}) = \sqrt{\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta})}$   
 so,  $\hat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{m} = \frac{1}{m} \left[ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m [(g(x_i) - \hat{\theta})^2] \right] = \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_{i=1}^m (g(x_i) - \hat{\theta})^2$

$\hat{\sigma}^2$   
 a MC estimator of variance of sample mean of  $\hat{\theta}$

Recall that we usually use  $s^2 = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \bar{x})^2$  to estimate  $\sigma^2$ .

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

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

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

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

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

$$\text{current } se(\hat{\theta}) = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{m}} = .01$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{m \cdot a}} = .0001 \quad \text{find } a?$$

$$\frac{\sigma^2}{m} \cdot \frac{1}{a} = (.0001)^2$$

$$(.01)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{a} = (.0001)^2$$

$$\left(\frac{.01}{.0001}\right)^2 = a$$

$$= 10,000$$

We would need  $10,000 \times m$  samples to achieve  $se(\hat{\theta}) = .0001$ !

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