# STA 360/602L: MODULE 3.1

### MONTE CARLO APPROXIMATION AND SAMPLING

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- Monte Carlo integration is very key for Bayesian computation and using simulations in general.
- While we will focus on using Monte Carlo integration for Bayesian inference, the development is general and applies to any pdf/pmf p(θ).
- For our purposes, we will want to evaluate expectations of the form

$$H=\int h( heta)\cdot p( heta)d heta,$$

for many different functions h(.) (usually scalar for us).



- Procedure:
  - 1. Generate a random sample  $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_m \overset{ind}{\sim} p(\theta)$ .
  - **2.** Estimate H using

$$ar{h} = rac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m h( heta_i).$$

• In this course,  $p(\theta)$  would often be the posterior distribution  $\pi(\theta|y)$ .



- We have  $\mathbb{E}[h( heta_i)] = H.$
- Assuming  $\mathbb{E}[h^2( heta_i)] < \infty$ , so that the variance of each  $h( heta_i)$  is finite, we have

1. LLN: 
$$\bar{h} \stackrel{a.s.}{\rightarrow} H$$
.

2. CLT:  $ar{h} - H$  is is asymptotically normal, with asymptotic variance

$$rac{1}{m}\int (h( heta)-H)^2 p( heta)d heta,$$

which can be approximated by

$$v_m=rac{1}{m^2}\sum_{i=1}^m(h( heta_i)-ar{h})^2.$$

•  $\sqrt{v_m}$  is often called the Monte Carlo standard error.



- That is, generally, taking large Monte Carlo sample sizes m (in the thousands or tens of thousands) can yield very precise, and cheaply computed, numerical approximations to mathematically difficult integrals.
- What this means for us: we can approximate just about any aspect of the posterior distribution with a large enough Monte Carlo sample.



- For samples  $heta_1,\ldots, heta_m$  drawn iid from  $\pi( heta|y)$ , as  $m o\infty$ , we have

• 
$$ar{ heta} = rac{1}{m}\sum\limits_{i=1}^m heta_i o \mathbb{E}[ heta|y]$$

• 
$$\hat{\sigma}_{\theta} = rac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} ( heta_i - \bar{ heta})^2 o \mathbb{V}[ heta|y]$$

• 
$$\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{1}[ heta_i \leq c] = rac{\# heta_i \leq c}{m} o \Pr[ heta \leq c|y]$$

•  $\left[\frac{\alpha}{2} \text{th percentile of } (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m), (1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}) \text{th percentile of } (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m)\right]$  $\rightarrow 100 \times (1 - \alpha) \text{ quantile-based credible interval.}$ 



#### BACK TO BIRTH RATES

- Suppose we randomly sample two "new" women, one with degree and one without.
- To what extent do we expect the one without the degree to have more kids than the other, e.g.  $\tilde{y}_1 > \tilde{y}_2 | y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_1}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{2n_2}$ ?
- Using R,

```
set.seed(01222020)
a <- 2; b <- 1; #prior
n1 <- 111; sumy1 <- 217; n2 <- 44; sumy2 <- 66 #data
y1_pred <- rnbinom(100000,size=(a+sumy1),mu=(a+sumy1)/(b+n1))
y2_pred <- rnbinom(10000,size=(a+sumy2),mu=(a+sumy2)/(b+n2))
mean(y1_pred > y2_pred)
```

## [1] 0.48218

mean(y1\_pred == y2\_pred)

## [1] 0.21842



#### **B**ACK TO BIRTH RATES

- That is,  $\Pr(\tilde{y}_1 > \tilde{y}_2 | y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_1}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{2n_2}) \approx 0.48$  and  $\Pr(\tilde{y}_1 = \tilde{y}_2 | y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_1}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{2n_2}) \approx 0.22.$
- Notice that strong evidence of difference between two populations does not really imply the difference in predictions is large.



- This general idea of using samples to "approximate" averages (expectations) is also useful when trying to approximate posterior predictive distributions.
- Quite often, we are able to sample from  $p(y_i|\theta)$  and  $\pi(\theta|\{y_i\})$  but not from  $p(y_{n+1}|y_{1:n})$  directly.
- We can do so indirectly using the following Monte Carlo procedure:

$$egin{aligned} ext{sample} \ heta^{(1)} &\sim \pi( heta|\{y_i\}), \ ext{ then sample} \ y_{n+1}^{(1)} &\sim f(y_{n+1}| heta^{(1)}) \ ext{sample} \ heta^{(2)} &\sim \pi( heta|\{y_i\}), \ ext{ then sample} \ y_{n+1}^{(2)} &\sim f(y_{n+1}| heta^{(2)}) \ dots \ \ dots \ dots \ dots \ dots$$

- The sequence  $\{(\theta, y_{n+1})^{(1)}, \dots, (\theta, y_{n+1})^{(m)}\}$  constitutes m independent samples from the joint posterior of  $(\theta, Y_{n+1})$ .
- In fact,  $\{y_{n+1}^{(1)}, \ldots, y_{n+1}^{(m)}\}$  are independent draws from the posterior predictive distribution we care about.

#### BACK TO BIRTH RATES

- Let's re-compute  $\Pr(\tilde{y}_1 > \tilde{y}_2 | y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_1}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{2n_2})$  and  $\Pr(\tilde{y}_1 = \tilde{y}_2 | y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_1}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{2n_2})$  using this method.
- Using R,

```
set.seed(01222020)
a <- 2; b <- 1; #prior
n1 <- 111; sumy1 <- 217; n2 <- 44; sumy2 <- 66 #data
theta1_pred <- rgamma(10000,219,112); theta2_pred <- rgamma(10000,68,45)
y1_pred <- rpois(10000,theta1_pred); y2_pred <- rpois(10000,theta2_pred)
mean(y1_pred > y2_pred)
```

```
## [1] 0.4765
```

mean(y1\_pred == y2\_pred)

## [1] 0.2167

• Again,  $\Pr({\tilde{y}}_1 > {\tilde{y}}_2 | y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_1}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{2n_2}) \approx 0.48$  and  $\Pr({\tilde{y}}_1 = {\tilde{y}}_2 | y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_1}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{2n_2}) \approx 0.22.$ 



## WHAT'S NEXT?

#### MOVE ON TO THE READINGS FOR THE NEXT MODULE!

