

Advanced Simulation - Lecture 2

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January 17th, 2018

- Monte Carlo methods rely on random numbers to approximate integrals.
- Bayesian statistics in particular yields many intractable integrals.
- In this lecture we'll see some statistical problems involving integrals, and discuss the properties of the basic Monte Carlo estimator.

Bayesian Inference: Gaussian Data

- Let $Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$ be i.i.d. random variables with $Y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta, \sigma^2)$ with σ^2 known and θ unknown.
- Assign a prior distribution on the parameter: $\vartheta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \kappa^2)$, then one can check that

$$p(\theta|y) = \mathcal{N}(\theta; \nu, \omega^2)$$

where

$$\omega^2 = \frac{\kappa^2 \sigma^2}{n\kappa^2 + \sigma^2}, \quad \nu = \frac{\sigma^2}{n\kappa^2 + \sigma^2} \mu + \frac{n\kappa^2}{n\kappa^2 + \sigma^2} \bar{y}.$$

- Thus $\mathbb{E}(\vartheta|y) = \nu$ and $\mathbb{V}(\vartheta|y) = \omega^2$.

Bayesian Inference: Gaussian Data

- If $C := (\nu - \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha/2)\omega, \nu + \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha/2)\omega)$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(\vartheta \in C | y) = 1 - \alpha.$$

- If $Y_{n+1} \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta, \sigma^2)$ then

$$p(y_{n+1} | y) = \int_{\Theta} p(y_{n+1} | \theta) p(\theta | y) d\theta = \mathcal{N}(y_{n+1}; \nu, \omega^2 + \sigma^2).$$

- No need to do Monte Carlo approximations: the prior is conjugate for the model.

Bayesian Inference: Logistic Regression

- Let $(x_i, Y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \{0, 1\}$ where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a covariate and

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_i = 1 | \theta) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x_i}}$$

- Assign a prior $p(\theta)$ on ϑ . Then Bayesian inference relies on

$$p(\theta | y_1, \dots, y_n) = \frac{p(\theta) \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(Y_i = y_i | \theta)}{\mathbb{P}(y_1, \dots, y_n)}$$

- If the prior is Gaussian, the posterior is not a standard distribution: $\mathbb{P}(y_1, \dots, y_n)$ cannot be computed.

S&P 500 index

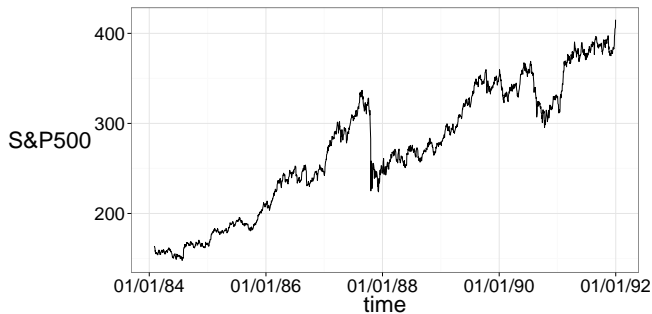


Figure: S&P 500 daily price index (p_t) between 1984 and 1991.

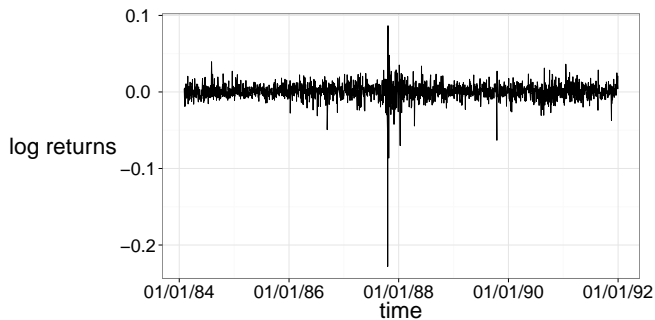


Figure: Daily returns $y_t = \log(p_t/p_{t-1})$ between 1984 and 1991.

Bayesian Inference: Stochastic Volatility Model

- Latent stochastic volatility $(X_t)_{t \geq 1}$ of an asset is modeled through

$$X_t = \varphi X_{t-1} + \sigma V_t, \quad Y_t = \beta \exp(X_t) W_t$$

where $V_t, W_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

- Intuitively, log-returns are modeled as centered Gaussians with dependent variances.
- Popular alternative to ARCH and GARCH models (Engle, 2003 Nobel Prize).
- Estimate the parameters (φ, σ, β) given the observations.
- Estimate X_t given Y_1, \dots, Y_t on-line based on $p(x_t | y_1, \dots, y_t)$.
- No analytical solution available!

Monte Carlo Integration

- We are interested in computing

$$I = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi(x) \pi(x) dx$$

where π is a pdf on \mathbb{X} and $\varphi : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

- Monte Carlo method:
 - sample n independent copies X_1, \dots, X_n of $X \sim \pi$,
 - compute

$$\hat{I}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi(X_i).$$

- **Remark:** You can think of it as having the following empirical measure approximation of $\pi(dx)$

$$\hat{\pi}_n(dx) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{X_i}(dx)$$

where $\delta_{X_i}(dx)$ is the Dirac measure at X_i .

- **Proposition (LLN):** Assume $\mathbb{E}(|\varphi(X)|) < \infty$ then \hat{I}_n is a strongly consistent estimator of I .
- **Proposition (CLT):** Assume I and

$$\sigma^2 = \mathbb{V}(\varphi(X)) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} [\varphi(x) - I]^2 \pi(x) dx$$

are finite then (see computation in previous lecture)

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\left(\hat{I}_n - I\right)^2\right) = \mathbb{V}\left(\hat{I}_n\right) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

and

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sigma} \left(\hat{I}_n - I\right) \xrightarrow{D} \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

Monte Carlo Integration: Variance Estimation

- **Proposition:** Assume $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{V}(\varphi(X))$ exists then

$$S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\varphi(X_i) - \hat{I}_n \right)^2$$

is an unbiased sample variance estimator of σ^2 .

- **Proof:** let $Y_i = \varphi(X_i)$ then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(S_n^2) &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}\left(\left(Y_i - \bar{Y}\right)^2\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n-1} \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2 - n\bar{Y}^2\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n-1} \left(n \left(\mathbb{V}(Y) + I^2 \right) - n \left(\mathbb{V}(\bar{Y}) + I^2 \right) \right) \\ &= \mathbb{V}(Y) = \mathbb{V}(\varphi(X)). \end{aligned}$$

Monte Carlo Integration: Error Estimates

- Chebyshev's inequality yields the bound

$$\mathbb{P} \left(\left| \hat{I}_n - I \right| > c \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \leq \frac{\mathbb{V}(\hat{I}_n)}{c^2 \sigma^2 / n} = \frac{1}{c^2}.$$

- An estimate follows from the CLT for large n

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sigma} (\hat{I}_n - I) \approx Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1),$$

so that

$$\mathbb{P} \left(\left| \hat{I}_n - I \right| > c \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \approx 2(1 - \Phi(c)).$$

- Hence by choosing $c = c_\alpha$ s.t. $2(1 - \Phi(c_\alpha)) = \alpha$, an approximate $(1 - \alpha)$ 100%-CI for I is

$$\left(\hat{I}_n \pm c_\alpha \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \approx \left(\hat{I}_n \pm c_\alpha \frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

and the rate is in $1/\sqrt{n}$ whatever \mathbb{X} .

Toy Example

- Consider the case where we have a square say $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$, the sides being of length 2, with inscribed disk \mathcal{D} of radius 1.
- We want to compute through Monte Carlo the area I of \mathcal{D} .

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \pi = \int \int_{\mathcal{D}} dx_1 dx_2 \\ &= \int \int_{\mathcal{S}} \mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{D}}(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 \text{ as } \mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{S} \\ &= 4 \int \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{D}}(x_1, x_2) \pi(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathcal{S} := [-1, 1] \times [-1, 1]$ and

$$\pi(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{4} \mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{S}}(x_1, x_2)$$

is the uniform density on the square \mathcal{S} .

Toy Example

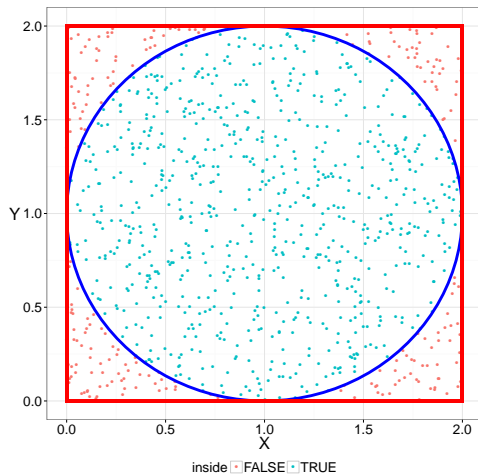


Figure: $\hat{I}_n = 4 \frac{n_{\mathcal{D}}}{n}$ where $n_{\mathcal{D}}$ is the number of samples which fell within the disk.

Toy Example

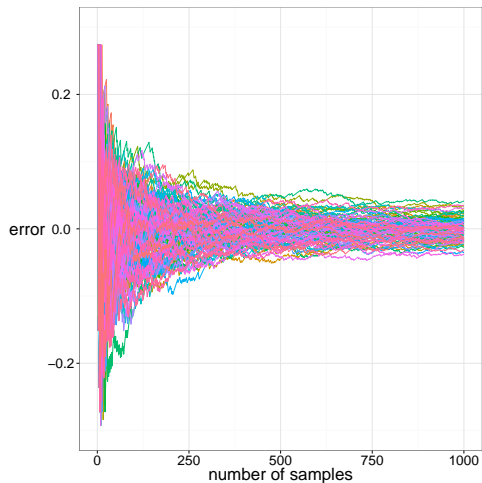


Figure: Relative error of \hat{I}_n against the number of samples.

Drawing random numbers

- Computing intricate high-dimensional integrals boils down to generating random variables from complicated distributions.
- How does a computer simulate random variables?
- In R, the command `runif(100)` returns 100 realizations of a uniform random variable in $(0, 1)$.
- Strictly speaking, these are only “pseudo-random numbers”.

Drawing random numbers

- Henceforth, we will assume that we have access to a sequence of independent random variables $(U_i, i \geq 1)$ that are uniformly distributed on $[0, 1]$.
- To simulate from $\pi(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{4}\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{S}}(x_1, x_2)$, we draw U_1 and U_2 uniformly and define $X_1 = 2U_1 - 1$, $X_2 = 2U_2 - 1$. Then the point (X_1, X_2) is distributed uniformly within \mathcal{S} .
- In the following lectures we will see various methods to simulate probability distributions.

Galton's machine to draw normal samples

