## CS 3750 Machine Learning Lecture 4

## Monte Carlo methods

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## Monte Carlo inference

- Let us assume we have a probability distribution $P(\mathrm{X})$ represented e.g. using BBN or MRF, and we want calculate $P(\mathrm{X}=\mathrm{x}) \quad(P(\mathrm{x})$ in short $)$
- We can use exact probabilistic inference, but it may be hard to calculate
- Monte Carlo approximation:
- Idea: The probability $P(\mathrm{x})$ is approximated using sample frequencies
- Idea (first method):
- Generate a random sample $D$ of size $M$ from $P(\mathrm{X})$
- Estimate P(x) as:

$$
\hat{P}_{D}(X=x)=\frac{M_{X=x}}{M}
$$

## Absolute Error Bound

- Hoeffding's bound lets us bound the probability with which the estimate $\hat{P}_{D}(x)$ differs from $P(x)$ by more than $\varepsilon$

$$
P\left(\hat{P}_{D}(x) \notin[P(x)-\varepsilon, P(x)+\varepsilon]\right) \leq 2 e^{-2 M \varepsilon^{2}} \leq \delta
$$

The bound can be used to decide on how many samples are required to achieve a desired accuracy:

$$
M \geq \frac{\ln (2 / \delta)}{2 \varepsilon^{2}}
$$

## Relative Error Bound

- Chernoff's bound lets us bound the probability of the estimate $\hat{P}_{D}(x)$ exceeding a relative error $\mathcal{E}$ of the true value $P(x)$.

$$
P\left(\hat{P}_{D}(x) \notin P(x)(1+\in)\right) \leq 2 e^{-M P(x) \varepsilon^{2} / 3} \leq \delta
$$

- This leads to the following sample complexity bound:

$$
M \geq 3 \frac{\ln (2 / \delta)}{P(x) \varepsilon^{2}}
$$

## Monte Carlo inference challenges

Challenge 1: How to generate $M$ (unbiased) examples from the target distribution $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X})$ ?

- Generating (unbiased) examples from $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X})$ may be hard, or very inefficient
Example:
- Assume I have a distribution over 100 binary variables
- There are $2^{100}$ possible configurations of variable values
- Trivial sampling solution:
- calculate and store the probability of each configuration
- Pick randomly a configuration based on its probability
- Problem: terribly inefficient in time and memory


## Monte Carlo inference challenges

Challenge 2: How to estimate the expected value of $f(x)$ for $P(x)$ :

- Generally, we can estimate this expectation by generating samples $\mathrm{x}[1], \ldots, \mathrm{x}[\mathrm{M}]$ from P , and then estimating it as:

$$
\begin{gathered}
E_{P}[f]=\sum_{x} P(x) f(x) \quad E_{P}[f]=\int_{x}^{x} p(x) f(x) d x \\
\hat{\Phi}=\hat{E}_{P}[f]=\frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} f(x[m])
\end{gathered}
$$

- Using the central limit theorem, the estimate $\hat{\Phi}$ follows $N\left(0, \frac{\sigma^{2}}{M}\right)$
- Where is the variance for $f(x)$ is

$$
\sigma^{2}=\int_{x} p(x)\left[f(x)-E_{P}(f(x))\right]^{2} d x
$$

- Problem: we are unable to efficiently sample $P(\mathrm{x})$. What to do?


## Central limit theorem

## - Central limit theorem:

Let random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \cdots X_{m}$ form a random sample from a distribution with mean $\mu$ and variance $\sigma^{2}$, then if the sample n is large, the distribution

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} X_{i} \approx N\left(m \mu, m \sigma^{2}\right) \quad \text { or } \quad \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} X_{i} \approx N\left(\mu, \sigma^{2} / m\right)
$$

Effect of increasing the sample size $m$ on the sample mean:


## Monte Carlo inference: BBNs

Challenge 1: How to generate $M$ (unbiased) examples from the target distribution $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X})$ defined by a BBN?

- Good news: Sample generation for the full joint defined by the BBN is easy
- One top down sweep through the network lets us generate one example according to $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X})$
- Example:


Examples are generated in a top down manner, following the links


## BBN sampling example



## BBN sampling example



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## BBN sampling example



## BBN sampling example



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## BBN sampling example




## Monte Carlo inference: BBNs

Challenge 1: How to generate $M$ (unbiased) examples from the target distribution $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X})$ defined by BBN?

- Good news: Sample generation for the full joint defined by the BBN is easy
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- Example:


Examples are generated in a top down manner, following the links

- Repeat many times to get enough of examples


## Monte Carlo inference: BBNs

Knowing how to generate efficiently examples from the full joint lets us efficiently estimate:

- Joint probabilities over a subset variables
- Marginals on variables
- Example:


The probability is approximated using sample frequency

$$
\tilde{P}(B=T, J=T)=\frac{N_{B=T, J=T} \longleftarrow \text { \# samples with } B=T, J=T}{N} \longleftarrow \text { total \# samples }
$$

## Monte Carlo inference: BBNs

- MC approximation of conditional probabilities:
- The probability can approximated using sample frequencies
- Example:
$\tilde{P}(B=T \mid J=T)=\frac{N_{B=T, J=T}}{N_{J=T}}$ \# samples with $B=T, J=T$
- Solution 1 (rejection sampling):
- Generate examples from $P(\mathrm{X})$ which we know how to do efficiently
- Use only samples that agree with the condition $(\mathrm{J}=\mathrm{T})$, the remaining samples are rejected
- Problem: many examples are rejected. What if $P(\mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{T})$ is very small?


## Monte Carlo inference: BBNs

- MC approximation of conditional probabilities
- Solution 2 (likelihood weighting)
- Avoids inefficiencies of rejection sampling
- Idea: generate only samples consistent with an evidence (or conditioning event); If the value is set no sampling
- Problem: using simple counts is not enough since these may occur with different probabilities
- Likelihood weighting:
- With every sample keep a weight with which it should count towards the estimate





## BBN likelihood weighting example



## BBN likelihood weighting example




## BBN likelihood weighting example



## BBN likelihood weighting example

Second sample


## BBN likelihood weighting example

Second sample

| $\mathbf{P}(\mathrm{A} \mid \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{E})$ |  |  |  | F |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| B | E | T | F |  |  |
| T | T | 0.95 | 0.05 |  |  |
| T | F | 0.94 | 0.06 |  |  |
| F | T | 0.29 | 0.71 |  |  |
| F | F | 0.0010 | 0.999 |  |  |
| $\mathbf{P}(M \mid A)$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| MaryCalls |  |  | A | T | F |
|  |  |  | T | 0.7 |  |
|  |  |  | F | 0.01 | 0.99 |

$\mathrm{J}=\mathrm{T}($ set !!!)

## BBN likelihood weighting example

Second sample


## BBN likelihood weighting example

Second sample


## BBN likelihood weighting example

Second sample


## BBN likelihood weighting example

Second sample


## BBN likelihood weighting example

Second sample


## Likelihood weighting

- Assume we have generated the following M samples:

- If we calculate the estimate:

$$
P(B=T \mid J=T, M=F)=\frac{\# \text { sample_with }(B=T)}{\text { \#total_sample }}
$$

a less likely sample from $P(X)$ may be generated more often.

- For example, sample than in $P(X)$
 is generated more often
- So the samples are not consistent with $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X})$.


## Likelihood weighting

- Assume we have generated the following $M$ samples:


How to make the samples consistent?
Weight each sample by probability with which it agrees with the conditioning evidence $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{e})$.


## Likelihood weighting

- How to compute weights for the sample?
- Assume the query $P(B=T \mid J=T, M=F)$
- Likelihood weighting:
- With every sample keep a weight with which it should count towards the estimate

$$
\begin{gathered}
\tilde{P}(B=T \mid J=T, M=F)=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{M} 1\left\{B^{(i)}=T\right\} w^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^{M} w^{(i)}} \\
\tilde{P}(B=T \mid J=T, M=F)=\frac{\sum_{\text {samples with } B=T \text { and } J=T, M=F} w_{B=T} w_{B=x}}{\sum_{\text {samples with any value of } B \text { and } J=T, M=F}}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Likelihood weighting

- Assume M samples where evidence is enforced:

- We can use $P(e)$ to weight each sample and correct the bias.
- The correct estimate is then:

$$
\tilde{P}(A=T \mid J=T, M=F)=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{M} 1\left\{A^{(i)}=T\right\} w^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^{M} w^{(i)}}
$$

## Monte Carlo inference: MRFs

Challenge: How to generate $M$ (unbiased) examples from the target distribution $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X})$ defined by an MRF?

- Trivial solution:
- calculate and store the probability of each configuration
- Pick randomly a configuration based on its probability
- Problem: terribly inefficient for a large number of variables
- Can we do better, similarly to BBN?
- In general, sampling $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X})$ or $\mathrm{P}\left(\mathrm{X}^{\prime} \mid\right.$ Evidence $)$ can be hard?

Next: avoid sampling $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X})$ by sampling $\mathrm{Q}(\mathrm{X})$

## Importance Sampling

- An approach for estimating the expectation of a function $f(x)$ relative to some distribution $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X})$ (target distribution)
- generally, we can estimate this expectation by generating samples $x[1], \ldots, x[M]$ from $P$, and then estimating

$$
E_{P}[f]=\frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} f(x[m])
$$

- However, we might prefer to generate samples from a different distribution Q (proposal or sampling distribution) instead, since it might be impossible or computationally very expensive to generate samples directly from $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X})$.
- $Q$ can be arbitrary, but it should dominate $P$, i.e. $\mathrm{Q}(\mathrm{x})>0$ whenever $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x})>0$


## Unnormalized Importance Sampling

- Since we generate samples from Q instead of P ,
- we need to adjust our estimator to compensate for the incorrect sampling distribution.

$$
E_{p(X)}[f(X)]=E_{Q(x)}\left[f(x) \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}\right]
$$

- So we can use standard estimator for expectations relative to Q .
- Method: We generate a set of $M$ samples $\mathrm{D}=\{\mathrm{x}[1], \ldots, \mathrm{x}[\mathrm{M}]\}$ from Q , and estimate:

$$
\hat{E}_{D}(f)=\frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} f(x[m]) \frac{P(x[m])}{Q(x[m])}
$$

## Importance sampling

- This is an unbiased estimator: its mean for any data set is precisely the desired value
$w(x)=P(x) / Q(x) \quad$ - a weighting function, or a correction weight
- We can estimate the distribution of the estimator around its mean: as $\mathrm{M} \rightarrow \infty$

$$
E_{Q(X)}[f(X) w(X)]-E_{P(X)}[f(X)] \propto N\left(0 ; \sigma_{Q}{ }^{2} / M\right)
$$

where $\quad \sigma_{Q}{ }^{2}=\left[E_{Q(X)}\left[(f(X) w(X))^{2}\right]\right]-\left(E_{Q(X)}[f(X) w(X)]\right)^{2}$

$$
\sigma_{Q}{ }^{2}=\left[E_{Q(X)}\left[(f(X) w(X))^{2}\right]\right]-\left(E_{P(X)}[f(X)]\right)^{2}
$$

## Importance sampling

- When $f(X)=1$, the variance is simply the variance of the weighting function $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X}) / \mathrm{Q}(\mathrm{X})$. Thus, the more different Q is from $P$, the higher is the variance of the estimator.
- In general, the lowest variance is achieved when

$$
Q(X) \propto|f(X)| P(X)
$$

- We should avoid cases where our sampling probability $\mathrm{Q}(\mathrm{X}) \ll \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X}) \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{X})$ in any part of the space, as these cases can lead to very large or even infinite variance.
- Problem with un-normalized IS: P is assumed to be known


## Normalized Importance Sampling

- When P is only known up to a normalizing constant $\alpha$
- We have access to a function $P^{\prime}(\mathrm{X})$, such that $P^{\prime}$ is not a normalized distribution, but $P^{\prime}(\mathrm{X})=\alpha P(\mathrm{X})$
- In this context, we cannot define the weights relative to $P$, so we define:

$$
w(X)=\frac{P^{\prime}(X)}{Q(X)}
$$

$E_{P(X)}[f(X)]=\sum_{x} P(x) f(x)=\sum_{x} Q(x) f(x) \frac{P(X)}{Q(x)}=\frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{x} Q(x) f(x) \frac{P^{\prime}(x)}{Q(x)}$ $=\frac{1}{\alpha} E_{Q(x)}[f(X) w(X)]=\frac{E_{Q(X)}[f(X) w(X)]}{E_{Q(X)}[w(X)]}$
Why? $\quad E_{Q(X)}[w(X)]=\sum_{x} Q(x) \frac{P^{\prime}(x)}{Q(x)}=\sum_{x} P^{\prime}(x)=\alpha$

## Importance sampling

- Using an empirical estimator for both the numerator and denominator, we can estimate:

$$
\hat{E}_{D}(f)=\frac{\sum_{m=1}^{M} f(x[m]) w(x[m])}{\sum_{m=1}^{M} w(x[m])}
$$

- Although the normalized estimator is biased, its variance is typically lower than that of the unnormalized estimator. This reduction in variance often outweighs the bias term.
- So normalized estimator is often used in place of the unnormalized estimator, even in cases where P is known and we can sample from it effectively.


## Importance sampling for estimating conditional probabilities in BBNs

Assume a Bayesian Network

- We want to calculate P ( $\mathrm{x}^{\prime} \mid$ evidence)
- This is hard if we need to go opposite the links and account for the effect of evidence on non-descendants
Objective: generate samples efficiently using a simpler proposal distribution $\mathrm{Q}(\mathrm{x})$
Solution: a mutilated belief network (Koller, Friedman 2009)
- Idea:
- Avoid propagation of evidence effects to nondescendants;
- Disconnect all variables in the evidence from their parents


## Mutilated Belief network

- Assume we want to calculate $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x} \mid \mathrm{B}=\mathrm{T}, \mathrm{J}=\mathrm{T})$ in the Alarm network
- Use $\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{T}$ and $\mathrm{J}=\mathrm{T}$ to build a mutilated network


Original network
Mutilated network

## Mutilated Belief network

- Assume the evidence is $J=j^{*}$ and $B=b^{*}$
- Original network:
$P\left(E=e, A=a, M=m, J=j^{*}, B=b^{*}\right)=P\left(b^{*}\right) P(e) P\left(a \mid b^{*}, e\right) P\left(j^{*} \mid a\right) P(m \mid a)$
- Mutilated network:

$$
Q\left(E=e, A=a, M=m, J=j^{*}, B=b^{*}\right)=P(e) P\left(a \mid b^{*}, e\right) P(m \mid a)
$$

- Note that $w(x)=\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}=P\left(b^{*}\right) P\left(j^{*} \mid a\right)$



## Mutilated Belief network

- Assume the evidence is $\mathrm{J}=\mathrm{j}^{*}$ and $\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{b}^{*}$
- Original network:
$P\left(E=e, A=a, M=m, J=j^{*}, B=b^{*}\right)=P\left(b^{*}\right) P(e) P\left(a \mid b^{*}, e\right) P\left(j^{*} \mid a\right) P(m \mid a)$
- Mutilated network:
$Q\left(E=e, A=a, M=m, J=j^{*}, B=b^{*}\right)=P(e) P\left(a \mid b^{*}, e\right) P(m \mid a)$
- Note that $w(x)=\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}=P\left(b^{*}\right) P\left(j^{*} \mid a\right)$

So importance sampling with a proposal distribution based on mutilated network is equal to likelihood weighting


Original network

## Likelihood Weighting

- Question: When to stop? How many samples do we need to see?
- Intuition: not every sample contribute equally to the quality of the estimate. A sample with a high weight is more compatible with the evidence e, and may provide us with more information.
- Solution: We stop sampling when the total weight of the generated samples reaches a pre-defined value.
- Benefits: It allows early stopping in cases where we were lucky in our random choice of samples.


## Markov chain Monte Carlo

- Likelihood weighting: samples are generated according to Q and every sample from Q is reweighted according to its likelihood, but the Q distribution may be very far from the target
- MCMC is a strategy for generating samples from the target distribution, including conditional distributions
- MCMC:
- Markov chain defines a sampling process that
- initially generates samples very different from the target distribution (e.g. posterior)
- but gradually refines the samples so that they are closer and closer to the posterior.


## MCMC

- The construction of a Markov chain requires two basic ingredients
- a transition matrix $\quad P$
- an initial distribution $\pi_{0}$
- Assume a finite set $S=\{1, \ldots \mathrm{~m}\}$ of states, then $\mathbf{a}$ transition matrix is

$$
P=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
p_{11} & p_{12} & \cdots & p_{1 m} \\
p_{21} & p_{22} & \cdots & p_{2 m} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
p_{m 1} & p_{m 2} & \cdots & p_{m m}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Where $\quad p_{i j} \geq 0 \quad \forall(i, j) \in S^{2} \quad$ and $\quad \sum_{j \in S} p_{i j}=1 \quad \forall i \in S$

## Markov Chain

- Markov chain defines a random process of selecting states
$x^{(0)}, x^{(1)}, \ldots x^{(m)}, \ldots$
Initial state selected based on $\pi_{0}$

Subsequent states selected based on the previous state and the transition matrix


- Chain Dynamics

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad P^{(t+1)}\left(X^{(t+1)}=x^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{x \in \operatorname{Dom}(X)} P^{(t)}\left(X^{(t)}=x\right) T\left(x \rightarrow x^{\prime}\right) \\
& \text { Probability of a state } \mathrm{x}^{\prime} \text { being selected }
\end{aligned}
$$ at time $t+1$

transition matrix

## MCMC

- Markov chain satisfies

$$
P\left(X_{n+1}=j \mid X_{0}=i_{0}, X_{1}=i_{1}, \ldots X_{n}=i_{n}\right)=P\left(X_{n+1}=j \mid X_{n}=i_{n}\right)
$$

- Irreducibility: A MC is called irreducible (or undecomposable) if there is a positive transition probability for all pairs of states within a limited number of steps
- In irreducible chains there may still exist a periodic structure such that for each state $i \in S$, the set of possible return times to $i$ when starting in $i$ is a subset of the set $p \mathrm{~N}=\{p, 2 p, 3 p, \ldots\}$ containing all but a finite set of these elements. The smallest number $p$ with this property is the so-called period of the chain

$$
p=\operatorname{gcd}\left\{n \in N: p_{i i}{ }^{(n)}>0\right\}
$$

## MCMC

- Aperiodicity: An irreducible chain is called aperiodic (or acyclic) if the period $p$ equals 1 or, equivalently, if for all pairs of states there is an integer $n_{i j}$ such that for all $n \geq n_{i j}$, the probability $p^{(n)}{ }_{i j}>0$.
- If a Markov chain satisfy both irreducibility and aperiodicity, then it converges to an invariant distribution $q(x)$
- A Markov chain with transition matrix $P$ will have an equilibrium distribution $q$ iff $q=q P$.
- A sufficient, but not necessary, condition to ensure a particular $\mathrm{q}(\mathrm{x})$ is the invariant distribution of transition matrix P is the following reversibility (detailed balance) condition

$$
q\left(x^{i}\right) P\left(x^{i-1} \mid x^{i}\right)=q\left(x^{i-1}\right) P\left(x^{i} \mid x^{i-1}\right)
$$

## Markov Chain Monte Carlo

Objective: generate samples from the target distribution (e.g. posterior)

- Idea:

Markov chain defines a sampling process that:

- initially generates samples very different from the target posterior
- but gradually refines the samples so that they are closer and closer to the target distribution

