# CS 3750 Machine Learning <br> Lecture 7 

## Monte Carlo methods

Milos Hauskrecht
milos@cs.pitt.edu
5329 Sennott Square

## Monte Carlo inference

- Let us assume we have a probability distribution $P(\mathrm{X})$ represented e.g. using BBN or MRF, and 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 $P(x)$.

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

- This leads to the following sample complexity bound:

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

## Monte Carlo inference challenges

Two challenges:
$\cdot$ How to generate $\mathbf{N}$ (unbiased) examples from the target distribution $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X})$ ?

- Generating (unbiased) examples from $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{X})$ may be hard, or very inefficient
-How to estimate the expected value of $f(x)$ for $p(x)$ :

$$
E_{P}[f]=\sum_{x} P(x) f(x) \quad E_{P}[f]=\int_{x} p(x) f(x) d x
$$

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

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

## Monte Carlo inference challenges

The estimate:
-Based on $M$ samples samples $x[1], \ldots, x[M]$ generated from $P$,

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

- Using the central limit theorem, the estimate $\hat{\Phi}$ follows the normal distribution with variance:

$$
\frac{\sigma^{2}}{M}
$$

- where

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

is the variance of $f(x)$

## Central limit theorem

## - Central limit theorem:

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

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

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


## Example: Monte Carlo for BBNs

- Sample generation: BBN sampling of the joint is easy
- One sample gives one assignment of values to all variables
- Example:


Examples can be generated in a top down manner, following the links

- MC approximation for BBN joint estimates:
- The probability is approximated using sample frequencies
$\tilde{P}(B=T, J=T)=\frac{N_{B=T, J=T} \longleftarrow \text { \# samples with } B=T, J=T}{N \longleftarrow}$


## BBN sampling example



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## BBN sampling example



## BBN sampling example



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## BBN sampling example



## BBN sampling example



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## BBN sampling example



## BBN sampling example



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## Monte Carlo approaches

- MC approximation of conditional probabilities:
- The probability is approximated using sample frequencies
- Example:

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

- Rejection sampling:
- Generate samples from the full joint by sampling BBN
- Use only samples that agree with the condition, the remaining samples are rejected
- Problem: many samples can be rejected


## 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

$$
\tilde{P}(B=T \mid J=T)=\frac{\sum_{\text {samples with } B=T \text { and } J=T} W_{B=T}}{\sum_{\text {samples with any value of } B \text { and } J=T} W_{B=x}}
$$

## BBN likelihood weighting example



## BBN likelihood weighting example



## BBN likelihood weighting example



## BBN likelihood weighting example



BBN likelihood weighting example


## BBN likelihood weighting example



BBN likelihood weighting example


## BBN likelihood weighting example



## BBN likelihood weighting example

Second sample


## BBN likelihood weighting example



## BBN likelihood weighting example

Second sample


## BBN likelihood weighting example



## BBN likelihood weighting example

Second sample


## BBN likelihood weighting example



## 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 $P(X)$.


## 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 $P(e)$.


## 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

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

## 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:

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

## 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 $\mathrm{x}[1], \ldots, \mathrm{x}[\mathrm{M}]$ 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 P .
- $Q$ 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 $D=\{x[1], \ldots, x[M]\}$ 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 unnormalized 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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { define: } \\
& \begin{aligned}
& w(X)=\frac{P^{\prime}(X)}{Q(X)} \\
E_{P(X)}[f(X)]= & \sum_{x} P(x) f(x)=\sum_{x} Q(x) f(x) \frac{P(X)}{Q(x)}=\frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{x} Q(x) f(x) \frac{P^{\prime}(x)}{Q(x)} \\
= & \frac{1}{\alpha} E_{Q(x)}[f(X) w(X)]=\frac{E_{Q(X)}[f(X) w(X)]}{E_{Q(X)}[w(X)]} \\
\text { Why? } \quad & E_{Q(X)}[w(X)]=\sum_{x} Q(x) \frac{P^{\prime}(x)}{Q(x)}=\sum_{x} P^{\prime}(x)=\alpha
\end{aligned}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 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.


## Proposal Distribution for estimating conditional probabilities in BBNs

Assume a Bayesian Network

- We want to calculate $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x} \mid \mathrm{e})$
- This is hard if we need to go opposite the links and account for the effect of evidence on nondescendants
Objective: generate examples 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 non-descendants;
- 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 (target distribution):

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

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


## Data-Dependent Likelihood Weighting

- Question: When to stop? How many samples do we need to see?
- Intuition: not every samples contribute equally to the quality of the estimate. A sample with 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 particles reaches a pre-defined value.
- Benefits: It allows early stopping in cases where we were lucky in our random choice of samples.

