## Advanced Simulation Methods

## Chapter 2 - Inversion Method, Transformation Methods and Rejection Sampling

We consider here the following generic problem. Given a "target" distribution of probability density or probability mass function $\pi$, we want to find an algorithm which produces random samples from this distribution. We discuss here the standard techniques which are used in most software packages.

## 1 Inversion Method

Consider a real-valued random variable $X$ and its associated cumulative distribution function (cdf)

$$
F(x)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq x)=F(x)
$$

The cdf $F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow[0,1]$ is

- increasing; i.e. if $x \leq y$ then $F(x) \leq F(y)$
- right continuous; i.e. $F(x+\epsilon) \rightarrow F(x)$ as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0(\epsilon>0)$
- $F(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow-\infty$ and $F(x) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow+\infty$.

We define the generalised inverse

$$
F^{-}(u)=\inf \{x \in \mathbb{R} ; F(x) \geq u\}
$$

also known as the quantile function. Its definition is illustrated by Figure 1. Note that $F^{-}(u)=F^{-1}(u)$ if $F$ is continuous.


Figure 1: Illustration of the definition of the generalised inverse $F^{-}$

Proposition 1 (Inversion method). Let $F$ be a cdf and $U \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0,1]}$. Then $X=F^{-}(U)$ has cdf $F$.
Proof. It is easy to see (e.g. Figure 1) that $F^{-}(u) \leq x$ is equivalent to $u \leq F(x)$. Thus for $U \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0,1]}$, we have

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(F^{-}(U) \leq x\right)=\mathbb{P}(U \leq F(x))=F(x)
$$

i.e. $F$ is the cdf of $F^{-}(U)$.

Example 1 (Exponential distribution). If $F(x)=1-e^{-\lambda x}$, then $F^{-}(u)=F^{-1}(u)=-\log (1-u) / \lambda$. Hence $-\log (1-U) / \lambda$ and $-\log (U) / \lambda$ where $U \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0,1]}$ are distributed according to an exponential distribution $\mathcal{E} x p(\lambda)$.

Example 2 (Cauchy distribution). The Cauchy distribution has density $\pi(x)$ and cdf $F(x)$ given by

$$
\pi(x)=\frac{1}{\pi\left(1+x^{2}\right)}, F(x)=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\arctan x}{\pi}
$$

Hence we have $F^{-}(u)=F^{-1}(u)=\tan \left(\pi\left(u-\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)$.
Example 3 (Discrete distribution). Assume $X$ takes the values $x_{1}<x_{2}<\cdots$ with probability $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots$. In this case, both $F$ and $F^{-}$are step functions

$$
F(x)=\sum_{x_{k} \leq x} p_{k}
$$

and

$$
F^{-}(u)=x_{k} \text { for } p_{1}+\cdots+p_{k-1}<u \leq p_{1}+\cdots+p_{k}
$$

For example, if $0<p<1$ and $q=1-p$ and we want to simulate $X \sim \mathcal{G e o}(p)$ then

$$
\pi(x)=p q^{x-1}, F(x)=1-q^{x} \quad x=1,2,3 \ldots
$$

The smallest $x \in \mathbb{N}$ giving $F(x) \geq u$ is the smallest $x \geq 1$ satisfying $x \geq \log (1-u) / \log (q)$ and this is given by

$$
x=F^{-}(u)=\left\lceil\frac{\log (1-u)}{\log (q)}\right\rceil
$$

where $\lceil x\rceil$ rounds up and we could replace $1-u$ with $u$.
This algorithm can also be used to generate random variables with values in any countable set.

## 2 Transformation Methods

Suppose we have a $\mathbb{Y}$-valued random variable (rv) $Y \sim q$ which we can simulate (eg, by inversion) and some other $\mathbb{X}$-valued rv $X \sim \pi$ which we wish to simulate. It may be that we can find a function $\varphi: \mathbb{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{X}$ with the property that if we simulate $Y \sim q$ and then set $X=\varphi(Y)$ then we get $X \sim \pi$. Inversion is a special case of this idea.

We may generalize this idea to take functions of collections of rv with different distributions.
Example 4 (Gamma distribution). Let $Y_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, \alpha$, be iid rv with $Y_{i} \sim \mathcal{E} x p$ (1) (we can simulate these as above) and $X=\beta^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{\alpha} Y_{i}$ then $X \sim \mathcal{G} a(\alpha, \beta)$. Indeed the moment generating function of $X$ is

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(e^{t X}\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{\alpha} \mathbb{E}\left(e^{\beta^{-1} t Y_{i}}\right)=(1-t / \beta)^{-\alpha}
$$

which is the moment generating function of the gamma density $\pi(x) \propto x^{\alpha-1} \exp (-\beta x)$ of parameters $\alpha, \beta$.
For continuous random variables, a useful tool is the transformation/change of variables formula for probability density function.

Example 5 (Beta distribution). Let $X_{1} \sim \mathcal{G} a(\alpha, 1)$ and $X_{2} \sim \mathcal{G} a(\beta, 1)$ then

$$
\frac{X_{1}}{X_{1}+X_{2}} \sim \mathcal{B e t a}(\alpha, \beta)
$$

where $\mathcal{B}$ eta $(\alpha, \beta)$ is the Beta distribution of parameter $\alpha, \beta$ of density $\pi(x) \propto x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}$.
Example 6 (Gaussian distribution, Box-Muller Algorithm). Let $U_{1} \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0,1]}$ and $U_{2} \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0,1]}$ be independent and set

$$
\begin{aligned}
R & =\sqrt{-2 \log \left(U_{1}\right)}, \\
\vartheta & =2 \pi U_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X=R \cos \vartheta \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \\
& Y=R \sin \vartheta \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)
\end{aligned}
$$

Indeed $R^{2} \sim \mathcal{E x p}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$ and $\vartheta \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0,2 \pi]}$ and their joint density is $q\left(r^{2}, \theta\right)=\frac{1}{2} \exp \left(-r^{2} / 2\right) \frac{1}{2 \pi}$. By the change of variables formula,

$$
\pi(x, y)=q\left(r^{2}, \theta\right)\left|\operatorname{det} \frac{\partial\left(r^{2}, \theta\right)}{\partial(x, y)}\right|
$$

where

$$
\left|\operatorname{det} \frac{\partial\left(r^{2}, \theta\right)}{\partial(x, y)}\right|^{-1}=\left|\operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial x}{\partial r^{2}} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\
\frac{\partial y}{\partial r^{2}} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta}
\end{array}\right)\right|=\left|\operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\cos \theta}{2 r} & -r \sin \theta \\
\frac{\sin \theta}{2 r} & r \cos \theta
\end{array}\right)\right|=\frac{1}{2} .
$$

that is

$$
\pi(x, y)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \exp \left(-\frac{x^{2}+y^{2}}{2}\right)
$$

Example 7 (Multivariate Gaussian distribution). Let $Z=\left(Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{d}\right)$ be a collection of d independent standard normal rv. Let $L$ be a real invertible $d \times d$ matrix satisfying $L L^{T}=\Sigma$, and $X=L Z+\mu$. Then $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$. We have indeed $q(z)=(2 \pi)^{-d / 2} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} z^{T} z\right)$ and

$$
\pi(x)=q(z)|\operatorname{det} \partial z / \partial x|
$$

where $\partial z / \partial x=L^{-1}$ and $\operatorname{det}(L)=\operatorname{det}\left(L^{T}\right)$ so $\operatorname{det}\left(L^{2}\right)=\operatorname{det}(\Sigma)$, and $\operatorname{det}\left(L^{-1}\right)=1 / \operatorname{det}(L)$ so $\operatorname{det}\left(L^{-1}\right)=$ $\operatorname{det}(\Sigma)^{-1 / 2}$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
z^{T} z & =(x-\mu)^{T}\left(L^{-1}\right)^{T} L^{-1}(x-\mu) \\
& =(x-\mu)^{T} \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)
\end{aligned}
$$

Practically we typically use a Cholesky factorization $\Sigma=L L^{T}$ where $L$ is a lower triangular matrix.
Example 8 (Poisson distribution). Let $\left(X_{i}\right)$ be i.i.d. $\mathcal{E x p}(1)$ and $S_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}$ with $S_{0}=0$. Then $S_{n} \sim \mathcal{G} a(n, 1)$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}\left(S_{n} \leq t \leq S_{n+1}\right) & =\mathbb{P}\left(S_{n} \leq t\right)-\mathbb{P}\left(S_{n+1} \leq t\right) \\
& =\int_{0}^{t} e^{-x}\left(\frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}-\frac{x^{n}}{n!}\right) d x \\
& =e^{-t} \frac{t^{n}}{n!}
\end{aligned}
$$

If $X_{i}$ correspond to the interarrival time between customers in a queueing system, then $S_{n}$ is the arrival time of the $n$-customer and $S_{n} \leq t<S_{n+1}$ means that the number of customers that have arrived up to time $t$ is equal to $n$. This number has a Poisson distribution with parameter $t$ so

$$
X=\min \left\{n: S_{n}>t\right\}-1 \sim \mathcal{P} o i(t)
$$

Practically this can be simulated using

$$
\begin{aligned}
X & =\min \left\{n:-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log U_{i}>t\right\}-1 \\
& =\min \left\{n: \prod_{i=1}^{n} U_{i}>e^{-t}\right\}-1
\end{aligned}
$$

## 3 Sampling via Composition

Assume we have a joint pdf $\bar{\pi}$ with marginal $\pi$; i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi(x)=\int \bar{\pi}_{X, Y}(x, y) d y \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\bar{\pi}(x, y)$ can always be decomposed as

$$
\bar{\pi}_{X, Y}(x, y)=\bar{\pi}_{Y}(y) \bar{\pi}_{X \mid Y}(x \mid y) .
$$

It might be easy to sample from $\bar{\pi}(x, y)$ whereas it is difficult/impossible to compute $\pi(x)$. In this case, it is sufficient to sample

$$
Y \sim \bar{\pi}_{Y} \text { then } X \mid Y \sim \bar{\pi}_{X \mid Y}(\cdot \mid Y)
$$

so $(X, Y) \sim \bar{\pi}_{X, Y}$ and hence $X \sim \pi$ as (1) holds.
Example 9 (Scale mixture of Gaussians). A very useful application of the composition method is for scale mixture of Gaussians; i.e.

$$
\pi(x)=\int \underbrace{\mathcal{N}(x ; 0,1 / y)}_{\bar{\pi}_{X \mid Y}(x \mid y)} \bar{\pi}_{Y}(y) d y
$$

For various choices of the mixing distributions $\bar{\pi}_{Y}(y)$, we obtain distributions $\pi(x)$ which are $t$-student, $\alpha$-stable, Laplace, logistic.

Example 10 (Finite mixture of distributions) Assume one wants to sample from

$$
\pi(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{i} . \pi_{i}(x)
$$

where $\alpha_{i}>0, \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{i}=1$ and $\pi_{i}(x) \geq 0, \int \pi_{i}(x) d x=1$. We can introduce $Y \in\{1, \ldots, p\}$ and introduce

$$
\bar{\pi}_{X, Y}(x, y)=\alpha_{y} \times \pi_{y}(x)
$$

To sample from $\pi(x)$, then sample $Y$ from a discrete distribution such that $\mathbb{P}(Y=k)=\alpha_{k}$ then

$$
X \mid(Y=y) \sim \pi_{y}
$$

## 4 Rejection Sampling

The basic idea of rejection sampling is to sample from a proposal distribution $q$ different from the target $\pi$ and then to correct through a rejection step to obtain a sample from $\pi$. The method proceeds as follows.

Algorithm (Rejection Sampling). Given two densities $\pi, q$ with $\pi(x) \leq M \cdot q(x)$ for all $x$, we can generate a sample from $\pi$ by

1. Draw $X \sim q$
2. Accept $X=x$ as a sample from $\pi$ with probability

$$
\frac{\pi(x)}{M \cdot q(x)}
$$

otherwise go to step 1.
We establish here the validity of the rejection sampling algorithm.
Proposition 2 (Rejection sampling). The distribution of the samples accepted by rejection sampling is $\pi$.

Proof. We have for any (measurable) set $A$

$$
\mathbb{P}(X \in A \mid X \text { accepted })=\frac{\mathbb{P}(X \in A, X \text { accepted })}{\mathbb{P}(X \text { accepted })}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}(X \in A, X \text { accepted }) & =\int_{\mathbb{X}} \int_{0}^{1} \mathbb{I}_{A}(x) \mathbb{I}\left(u \leq \frac{\pi(x)}{M \cdot q(x)}\right) q(x) d u d x \\
& =\int_{\mathbb{X}} \mathbb{I}_{A}(x) \frac{\pi(x)}{M \cdot q(x)} q(x) d x \\
& =\int_{\mathbb{X}} \mathbb{I}_{A}(x) \frac{\pi(x)}{M} d x=\frac{\pi(A)}{M} \\
\mathbb{P}(X \text { accepted }) & =\mathbb{P}(X \in \mathbb{X}, X \text { accepted })=\frac{\pi(\mathbb{X})}{M}=\frac{1}{M}
\end{aligned}
$$

so

$$
\mathbb{P}(X \in A \mid X \text { accepted })=\pi(A) .
$$

Thus the distribution of the accepted values is $\pi$.
Important remark: In most practical scenarios, we only know $\pi$ and $q$ up to some normalising constants; i.e.

$$
\pi=\widetilde{\pi} / Z_{\pi} \text { and } q=\tilde{q} / Z_{q}
$$

where $\tilde{\pi}, \tilde{q}$ are known but $Z_{\pi}=\int_{\mathbb{X}} \tilde{\pi}(x) d x, Z_{q}=\int_{\mathbb{X}} \tilde{q}(x) d x$ are unknown. We can still use rejection in this scenario as

$$
\frac{\pi(x)}{q(x)} \leq M \Leftrightarrow \frac{\widetilde{\pi}(x)}{\widetilde{q}(x)} \leq M \frac{Z_{\pi}}{Z_{q}}
$$

Practically, this means we can throw the normalising constants out at the start: if we can find $M^{\prime}$ to bound $\widetilde{\pi}(x) / \widetilde{q}(x)$ then it is correct to accept with probability $\widetilde{\pi}(x) /\left(M^{\prime} \widetilde{q}(x)\right)$ in the rejection algorithm.

Lemma 1 Let $T$ denote the number of pairs $(X, U)$ that have to be generated until $U \leq \pi(X) /(M q(X))$ for the first time. Then $T$ is geometrically distributed with parameter $1 / M$ and in particular $\mathbb{E}(T)=M$.

Example 11 (Uniform density on a bounded subset of $\mathbb{R}^{p}$ ). Consider $B \subset \mathbb{R}^{p}$ be a bounded subset of $\mathbb{R}^{p}$. We are interested in sampling from the uniform distribution on $B$

$$
\pi(x) \propto \mathbb{I}_{B}(x)
$$

Assume we can find a rectangle $R$ with $B \subset R$ then we can use for $q$ the uniform distribution on $R$. Then using $\widetilde{\pi}(x)=\mathbb{I}_{B}(x), \widetilde{q}(x)=\mathbb{I}_{R}(x)$, we can simply use $M^{\prime}=1$ and $\widetilde{\pi}(x) /\left(M^{\prime} \widetilde{q}(x)\right)=\mathbb{I}_{B}(x)$.

Example 12 (Beta density). We have for $\alpha, \beta>0$

$$
\widetilde{\pi}(x)=x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}, 0<x<1 .
$$

For $\alpha, \beta \geq 1$, this is upper bounded on $[0,1]$ so we can use $q(x)=\widetilde{q}(x)=\mathbb{I}_{(0,1)}(x)$ and

$$
M=\sup _{x} \frac{\widetilde{\pi}(x)}{\widetilde{q}(x)}=\frac{(\alpha-1)^{\alpha-1}(\beta-1)^{\beta-1}}{(\alpha+\beta-2)^{\alpha+\beta-2}} .
$$

For $\alpha<1, \beta \geq 1$ we can use $q(x)=\widetilde{q}(x)=\alpha x^{\alpha-1} \mathbb{I}_{(0,1)}(x)$ thus

$$
M=\sup _{x} \frac{\widetilde{\pi}(x)}{\widetilde{q}(x)}=\sup _{x} \frac{(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{\alpha}=\frac{1}{\alpha} .
$$



Figure 2: Histogram approximation of $p\left(\theta \mid y_{1}, \ldots, y_{4}\right)$ (left) and histogram approximation of waiting time distribution before acceptance (mean 7.8) (right)

Example 13 (Normal distribution). Let $\widetilde{\pi}(x)=\exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} x^{2}\right)$ and $\widetilde{q}(x)=1 /\left(1+x^{2}\right)$. We have

$$
\frac{\widetilde{\pi}(x)}{\widetilde{q}(x)}=\left(1+x^{2}\right) \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} x^{2}\right) \leq 2 / \sqrt{e}=M
$$

which is attained at $\pm 1$. Hence the probability of acceptance is

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(U \leq \frac{\widetilde{\pi}(x)}{M \widetilde{q}(x)}\right)=\frac{Z_{\pi}}{M Z_{q}}=\frac{\sqrt{2 \pi}}{\frac{2}{\sqrt{e}} \pi}=\sqrt{\frac{e}{2 \pi}} \approx 0.66
$$

and the mean number of trials to success is approximately $1 / 0.66 \approx 1.52$.
Example 14 (Genetic Linkage Model). We observe

$$
\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}, Y_{3}, Y_{4}\right) \sim \mathcal{M}\left(n ; \frac{1}{2}+\frac{\theta}{4}, \frac{1}{4}(1-\theta), \frac{1}{4}(1-\theta), \frac{\theta}{4}\right)
$$

where $\mathcal{M}$ is the multinomial distribution and $\theta \in(0,1)$. The likelihood of the observations is thus

$$
p\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{4} \mid \theta\right) \propto(2+\theta)^{y_{1}}(1-\theta)^{y_{2}+y_{3}} \theta^{y_{4}} .
$$

We follow here a Bayesian approach where we select a prior $p(\theta)=\mathbb{I}_{[0,1]}(\theta)$. Hence the resulting posterior is

$$
p\left(\theta \mid y_{1}, \ldots, y_{4}\right) \propto(2+\theta)^{y_{1}}(1-\theta)^{y_{2}+y_{3}} \theta^{y_{4}}
$$

We propose to use rejection sampling using a proposal $q(\theta)=\widetilde{q}(\theta)=p(\theta)$ to sample from $p\left(\theta \mid y_{1}, \ldots, y_{4}\right)$. To use accept-reject, we need to upper bound

$$
\widetilde{\pi}(\theta)=(2+\theta)^{y_{1}}(1-\theta)^{y_{2}+y_{3}} \theta^{y_{4}}
$$

Using a simple optimization algorithm, we get

$$
g(\theta) \leq g\left(\theta_{\max }\right)
$$

where $\theta_{\max }=0.6268$ and $g\left(\theta_{\max }\right) \approx \exp (67.4)$. Hence we can use rejection sampling; see Figure 2.

