Ziang Niu, Johanna Meier, François-Xavier Briol contact: ziangniu6@gmail.com code: https://github.com/johannnamr/Discrepancy-based-inference-using-QMC

- 1. **MMD:** Let $\mathcal{F} = f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} : ||f||_{\mathcal{H}_k} \leq 1$, the unit-ball of a RKHS \mathcal{H}_k with kernel k : $\mathcal{X} \times$ $\mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$.
- 2. p –Wasserstein Distance: When $p = 1$, Wasserstein distance is an IPM with $\mathcal{F} = \{f : \mid$ $X \to \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } \forall x, y \in \mathcal{X}, |f(x) - f(y)| \leq c(x, y) \}.$

Discrepancy-based Inference for Intractable Generative Models using QMC

Statistical Inference for Intractable Generative Models

Intractable Generative Models: Intractable generative models are models for which the likelihood is unavailable but sampling is possible. One is required to compute some discrepancy between the data and the generative model when doing inference.

where $\mathbb{Q}^m = \frac{1}{m}$ \overline{m} $\sum_{i=1}^{m}$ $\sum_{j=1}^{m} \delta_{y_j}(x)$. A common approach $|D(\mathbb{P})|$ is to solve the optimisation problem through evaluations of D \cup (\mathbb{P}^n_{θ}) $_{\theta}^{n},\mathbb{Q}^{m})$ instead of the unknown optimisation problem. A closely related discrepancy family is Integral Probability Metrics (IPMs). Given a set of functions \mathcal{F} , an IPM is a probability metric which takes the form:

Minimum Distance Estimators: Once a discrepancy is defined, one can easily obtain the Minimum Distance Estimators (MDE). Given the dataset $\{y_j\}_{j=1}^m$ $j=1$ $\stackrel{IID}{\sim}$ Q \in $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{X})$ and generator G_{θ} such that $x = G_{\theta} \sim \mathbb{P}_{\theta} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{X}),$ one can construct an estimator through the framework of MDE:

Other popular divergences include Sinkhorn diver- $\mathbf{gence}(S_{c,p,\lambda}),$ a regularized version of Wasserstein distance and **Sliced Wasserstein distance** $SW_{c,p}$, which works better for high-dimensional setting. ample Complexity: Consider D is a metric

$$
\widehat{\theta}_m^D = \arg\min_{\theta \in \Theta} D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}, \mathbb{Q}^m)
$$

 $\underline{\mathbf{S}_{\mathcal{E}}}$

$$
D_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q}) := \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \int_{\mathcal{X}} f(x) \mathbb{P}(\mathrm{d}x) - \int_{\mathcal{X}} f(x) \mathbb{Q}(\mathrm{d}x) \right| \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}x}
$$

(Randomized) Quasi-Monte Carlo: The essence of 1.0 (R)QMC sampling is to generate a more "diverse" set of samples from the model (see right figures).

Faster Convergence Rate: A nice theoretical result can be ≤ 0.5 obtained if the integr[and](https://github.com/johannnamr/Discrepancy-based-inference-using-QMC) f [is](https://github.com/johannnamr/Discrepancy-based-inference-using-QMC) [smooth](https://github.com/johannnamr/Discrepancy-based-inference-using-QMC) [enough](https://github.com/johannnamr/Discrepancy-based-inference-using-QMC) and [th](https://github.com/johannnamr/Discrepancy-based-inference-using-QMC)at domain U is regular: for any $\epsilon > 0$

Popular metrics include Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD) and Wasserstein Distance:

IDEA: Replace MC points to estimate discrepancies with $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ QMC/RQMC points.

Consider the generator G_{θ} is smooth enough and X is regular enough, we could expect $D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}, \mathbb{P}^n_{\theta})$ $\binom{n}{\theta} = O(n^{-1+\epsilon}),$ which is a great improvement compared with MC.

$$
D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}^{n}, \mathbb{Q}^{m}) - D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}, \mathbb{Q})| \leq |D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}^{n}, \mathbb{Q}^{m}) - D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}, \mathbb{Q}^{m})| + |D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}, \mathbb{Q}^{m}) - D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}, \mathbb{Q})| \leq D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}^{n}, \mathbb{P}_{\theta}) + D(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Q}^{m})
$$

Sample complexity $D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}^n)$ $\mathfrak{g}^n, \mathbb{P}_{\theta}$) plays a key role here! Issue with Previous Method: $D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}^n)$ $\binom{n}{\theta},\mathbb{Q}^m)$ invovles choosing \mathbb{P}^n_{θ} $\frac{n}{\theta}$ and a usual choice is **Monte Carlo** estimand, i.e. sampling IID data $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ $\sum_{i=1}^n$ from \mathbb{P}_{θ} . The sample complexity for MC is $D(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}^n)$ $\frac{n}{\theta},\mathbb{P}_{\theta}) =$ $O_p(n^{-1/2})$, which can be expensive when requiring high accuracy.

where $z = \Sigma$ 1 $\frac{1}{2} \Phi^{-1}(u)^\top, u \ \sim \ \text{Unif}([0,1]^d). \quad \Sigma \ \ \text{is}$ a symmetric Toepliz matrix with diagonal entries equal to 1 and subdiagonals equal to θ_5 and Φ^{-1} is the inverse CDF of Gaussian.

WARNING: The performance gets worse as dimension grows due to the convergence $(\log(n)^s)n^{-1}$

Assumption 1. Given a model \mathbb{P}_{θ} with $(G_{\theta}, [0, 1]^s)$, **Theorem 2** (Wasserstein). Let $\mathbb{P}_{\theta} \in \mathcal{P}_{c,1}(\mathcal{X})$ where we have access to $x_i = G_{\theta}(u_i), i = 1, \ldots, n$ where c is a metric on X and suppose Assumption 1 holds $\sum_{i=1}^n \subset [0,1]^s$ form a QMC or RQMC point set. with $s = d = 1$. Further, assume $V_{HK}(G_\theta) < \infty$.

Theorem 1 (MMD). Let $k \in C^{s \times s}(\mathcal{X}), \mathbb{P}_{\theta} \in \mathcal{P}_{k}(\mathcal{X})$ and suppose Assumption 1-2 hold. Then,

> $\text{MMD}(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}, \mathbb{P}^n_{\theta})$ $\binom{n}{\theta} = O(n^{-1+\epsilon}) \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$

Enhancing Sample Complexity via Quasi-Monte Carlo

Theorem 3 (Sinkhorn). Let $c \in C^{\infty,\infty}(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X})$ and suppose $\mathbb{P}_{\theta}, \mathbb{Q} \in \mathcal{P}_{c,p}(\mathcal{X})$. Further, suppose Assumptions 1-2 hold. Then

$$
\left| \int_{\mathcal{U}} f(u) \mathrm{d}u - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(u_i) \right| = O(n^{-1+\epsilon})
$$

where $\{u_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is a low discrepancy point set.

Sample Complexity Improvement:

Numerical Results

Bivariate Beta Distributions: Let $|x|$ as the integer part of some $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and consider

$$
G^1_\theta :=
$$

$$
\frac{\tilde{u}_1 + \tilde{u}_3}{\tilde{u}_1 + \tilde{u}_3 + \tilde{u}_4 + \tilde{u}_5}, G_\theta^2 := \frac{\tilde{u}_2 + \tilde{u}_4}{\tilde{u}_2 + \tilde{u}_3 + \tilde{u}_4 + \tilde{u}_5}
$$

where

$$
\tilde{u}_i = -
$$

$$
-\sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor \theta_i \rfloor} \ln(u_{ik}) + u_{i0}, u_{i0} \sim \text{Gamma}(\theta_i - \lfloor \theta_i \rfloor, 1)
$$

and

$$
u = (
$$

$$
u = (u_{11}, \ldots, u_{1\lfloor \theta_1 \rfloor}, u_{21}, \ldots, u_{5\lfloor \theta_5 \rfloor}) \sim \text{Unif}([0, 1]^s)
$$

where $s=\sum_{i=1}^5$ $\sum_{i=1}^{5} \lfloor \theta_i \rfloor$. ence for Multivariate g-and-k Models: The rator for g-and-k model is

$$
G_{\theta}(u) := \theta_1 + \theta_2 \left(1 + 0.8 \frac{(1 - \exp(-\theta_3 z))}{(1 + \exp(-\theta_3 z))} \right) (1 + z^2)^{\theta_4} z
$$

Theoretical Results

 ${u_i\}_{i=1}^n$

Assumption 2. Suppose that $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is a compact domain and that $G_{\theta} : [0,1]^{s} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ satisfies:

• ∂

$$
\partial^{(1,\ldots,1)}(G_{\theta})_j \in \mathcal{C}([0,1]^s) \text{ for all } j=1,\ldots,d.
$$

• $\partial^v(G_{\theta})_j(\cdot;\: : \: 1_{-v}) \: \in \: L^{p_j}([0,1]^{|v|})$ for all $j =$ $1, \ldots, d \text{ and } v \in \{0,1\}^s \setminus (0, \ldots, 0), \text{ where } p_j \in$ $[1,\infty]$ and \sum_{i}^{d} $j=1$ p_i^{-1} $j^{-1} \leq 1$.

Then,

More technical details and experiments can be found in the paper: https://arxiv.org/abs/2106.11561

 $W_{c,1}(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}, \mathbb{P}^n_{\theta})$ $\binom{n}{\theta} = O(n^{-1+\epsilon}) \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$

 $|S_{c,p,\lambda}(\mathbb{P}_{\theta},\mathbb{Q})-S_{c,p,\lambda}(\mathbb{P}_{\theta}^n)$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} n \ \theta \,, \mathbb{Q} \end{array} \right\} \left| = O(n^{-1+\epsilon}) \quad \forall \epsilon > 0.$