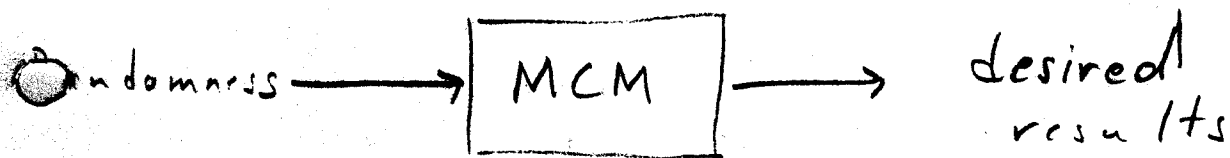


# Introductory Remarks

What is a Monte Carlo method?



(Why the name Monte Carlo?)

Invented many times!!

- 1) Advent of probability theory because of gaming (also combinatorics)
- 2) Early 20<sup>th</sup> century: to "verify" new results in probability
- 3) Fermi, von Neumann + Ulam to solve problem resulting from the atomic bomb

# Approches to Monte Carlo ②

Direct Simulation (game playing)

Solution of Mathematical Problems

Many ways to present Monte Carlo

a) Mathematical

(algorithms, proofs,  
convergency errors)

b) Computer Science

(algorithms, implementations,  
simulation)

c) Applications

(physics, engineering,  
chemistry, finance)

# Examples of Monte Carlo

(not to be covered in depth)

- a) Financial instrument evaluation  
(very hot!)
- b) Solution of Schrödinger equation, many-body  
(only known method)
- c) Verification of  $t$ -distribution, etc. Gosset (Student)
- d) Buffon needle problem

# Monte Carlo is Based on Probability

Probability is measure theory


Probability (measure)  $\sim$  measure  $P(\Omega) = 1$

Event  $\sim$  measurable set

Random variable  $\sim$  measurable function

Expected value  $\sim$  integral

Call  $A, B, C, \dots$  events

$P(A+B+C+\dots) \leq P(A) + P(B) + \dots$   
sub additivity 

$A, B, C, \dots$  are exclusives  $\leq \rightarrow =$   
 $A, B, C, \dots$  are exhaustive r.h.s. = 1

# Statistical Review

$$P(AB) = P(A|B) P(B)$$

$P(A|B)$  is conditional probability

if  $P(A|B) = P(A)$  then  $A$  &  $B$  are independent and

$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$$

$$P(ABC) = P(AB|C) P(C)$$

Cummulative Distribution Function:

RV  $\eta$        $F(y) = P(\eta \leq y)$

$$F(-\infty) = 0 \quad F(+\infty) = 1$$

$F$  is increasing and right-continuous

(at worst  $F$  is a step function)

Die

$$P[Z = j] = \frac{1}{6}$$
$$j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$$

$$F[y] = P(Z \leq y)$$

$$= \begin{cases} 0 & y < 1 \\ 1/6 & 1 \leq y < 2 \\ 2/6 & 2 \leq y < 3 \\ 3/6 & 3 \leq y < 4 \\ 4/6 & 4 \leq y < 5 \\ 5/6 & 5 \leq y < 6 \\ 1 & y \geq 6 \end{cases}$$

$$F(y) = \int_0^y f(x) dx = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{i=1}^6 \delta(x-i)$$

$$\delta(x-x_0) = \begin{cases} +\infty & \text{at } x_0 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$\int_0^y \delta(x-x_0) dx = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y \geq x_0 \\ 0 & \text{if } y < x_0 \end{cases}$$

# Expectation

$$E[g(z)] = \int g(y) dF(y)$$

because of  $F(y) = P(z \leq y)$  this is a Stieltjes integral

If  $F'(y) = f(y)$  exists then

$$E[g(z)] = \int g(y) f(y) dy$$

note: if  $z$  is a discrete distribution then

$$E[g(z)] = \sum_i g(y_i) f_i$$

$$F(y) = \sum_i f_i H(y - y_i)$$

Heaviside function

$f(y)$ ,  $f_i$  constitute probability d.f.

# Multivariate Distributions

$$Z, Y: F(y, z) = P(Z \leq y, Y \leq z)$$

Marginal  
Distributions

$$\left( \begin{array}{l} G(y) = P(Z \leq y) \\ H(z) = P(Y \leq z) \end{array} \right.$$

"integrate out the other variable"

If  $F(y, z) = G(y)H(z)$ , then  $Z, Y$   
are independent

Note:  $\sum_i E[g(z_i)] = E[\sum_i g(z_i)]$

hold for all r.v.'s  $z_i$

BUT

$$\prod_i E[g(z_i)] = E[\prod_i g(z_i)]$$

holds only when  $z_i$ 's are

Independent



Note  $E[g(z)] \neq g(E[z])$   
generally

$$E[z] = \int y dF(y) = \mu$$

is the mean of  $z$

$E[(z-\mu)^r]$  is the  $r^{\text{th}}$  central moment of  $z$

$E[z^r]$  is the  $r^{\text{th}}$  moment of  $z$

$$E[(z-\mu)^2] = \sigma^2 = \text{Var}[z]$$

the dimensions of  $\sigma^2$  &  $\mu^2$  are the same so

$\frac{\mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2}}$  is coefficient of variation  
(dimensionless)

note:  $\sigma$  called standard deviation

$$= \sqrt{\sigma^2}$$

# Multivariate "Variances"

⑨

$$\text{Cov}(z, \gamma) = E[(z - \mu)(\gamma - \nu)]$$

$$\mu = E[z] \quad \nu = E[\gamma]$$

$$\text{Cov}(z, z) = \text{Var}(z) \quad \text{by above}$$

Assume independence  $E[yz] = \mu\nu$

$$\text{Cov}(z, \gamma) = E[(yz - \mu z - \gamma\nu + \mu\nu)]$$

$$= E[yz] - \mu\nu - \mu\nu + \mu\nu = 0$$

independence  $\Leftrightarrow \text{Cov}(\ ) = 0$

$$\rho(z, \gamma) = \frac{\text{Cov}(z, \gamma)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(z)\text{Var}(\gamma)}}$$

$-1 \leq \rho \leq +1$   
negatively correlated  $\uparrow$   $\uparrow$  positively correlated  
uncorrelated  $\uparrow$   $\leftrightarrow$  independent

Continued

(10)

$$\text{Var} \left( \sum_i z_i \right) = \sum_i \sum_j \text{Cov}(z_i, z_j)$$

(left to students, it's easy!)

$$\text{Var}[g(z_1, \dots, z_k)]$$

where  $\mu_i = E(z_i)$

$$g_i = \frac{\partial g}{\partial z_i} \Big|_{z_i = \mu_i}$$

$$\approx \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^k g_i g_j \text{Cov}(z_i, z_j)$$

This is like a multidimensional Taylor series expansion, about the means.

# Some CDFs

(PDFs left to students)

$$F(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & y < 0 \\ y & 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 1 & y > 1 \end{cases}$$

uniform or rectangular distribution  
 $U[0,1]$

$$U[a,b] \rightarrow F(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & y < a \\ \frac{y-a}{b-a} & a \leq y \leq b \\ 1 & y > b \end{cases}$$

Binomial  $F(y) = \sum_{t \leq y} \frac{n!}{t!(n-t)!} p^t (1-p)^{n-t}$

$p$  is prob of single event  
dist. of  $\sum$   $n$  such trials

Poisson  $F(y) = \sum_{t \leq y} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^t}{t!}$

$\lambda > 0$   
dist. of number "t" of events occurring at rate  $\lambda$

# More CDFs

exponential  $F(y) = H(y) (1 - e^{-\lambda y})$

$\lambda$  is exponential rate in fixed time,  
Poisson counts numbers of these

Gaussian  $F(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{t-\mu}{\sigma})^2} dt$

$E[z] = \mu$      $Var[z] = \sigma^2$

$dF(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{t-\mu}{\sigma})^2} dt$

$F(y)$  is called the error function

$N(\mu, \sigma)$

Also have

$F(\bar{y}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\bar{y}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sqrt{|V|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\bar{t}-\bar{\mu})^T V^{-1}(\bar{t}-\bar{\mu})} dt$

$V_{ij} = Cov(z_i, z_j)$

multivariate normal

# Central Limit Theorem

Assume  $z_i$ 's are independent identically distributed r.v.'s

with  $E(z_i) = \mu_i$  and  $Var(z_i) = \sigma_i^2$

$z_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}$  has mean 0 and variance 1

$$P\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N z_i \leq y\right] \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^y e^{-t^2/2} dt$$

as  $N \rightarrow \infty$

Central Limit Theorem  $N \sim 10$  good  
 $N \sim 25$  great

Note when moments don't exist, other "stable" distributions can pop out

$\gamma$  has  $F(y) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^y \frac{1}{1+t^2} dt$

Cauchy distribution

# Sampling

(14)

Want to sample  $y : y_1, \dots, y_n$

sample size  $n$

$$\bar{z} = \sum_{i=1}^n z_i \frac{1}{n} \quad / \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n}$$

or

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n z_i w_i \quad / \quad \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \quad \leftarrow \text{weighted sum}$$

What about these two estimators

$t(z)$  an estimator of  $y$

$$E[z] = \mu \quad \text{then}$$

$$E[t(z) - \mu] = \beta \quad \text{is called the bias}$$

$$\text{Var}[t(z)] = E[(t(z) - \mu - \beta)^2] = \sigma_t^2$$

sampling variance of  $t$

# Sampling Continued

Want  $t$  to be  $\beta=0$  (unbiased)

and  $\sigma_t^2$  small as possible  
(minimum variance)

use minimum variance linear estimators (best weighted sum)

maximum likelihood estimates:

construct a likelihood function and choose estimate to minimize it (in  $\ell^2$ )

$$\bar{z} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i \quad \sigma_{\bar{z}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$$

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (z_i - \bar{z})^2 \quad \sigma_{s^2} \approx \sigma^2/\sqrt{\frac{n}{2}}$$

are maximum likelihood estimates



# Efficiency of Monte Carlo

$$\bar{z} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i$$

$\frac{\bar{z} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}$  is approximately  $N(0,1)$

So  $z \in \bar{z} \pm k \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

$k=1$	$p = .68$
$k=2$	$p = .90$
$k=3$	$p = .995$

to get a 99% "confidence interval"

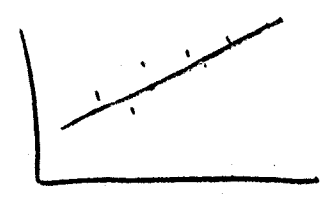
to be 1/10 of its previous width

requires  $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{kn}} = \frac{\sigma}{10\sqrt{n}}$   $k = 10^2$

So we say that Monte Carlo converges like  $n^{-1/2}$ . Thus it is prudent to find ways to make  $\sigma$  as small as possible (variance reduction)

# Regression

line of best fit



search for  $y = mx + b$  have  
 $y_i, x_i$

$l(m, b) = \sum_{i=1}^n (mx_i + b - y_i)^2$  likelihood function

$\frac{\partial l}{\partial m} = \frac{\partial l}{\partial b} = 0$

$l_b = \sum_{i=1}^n 2(mx_i + b - y_i)$

$l_m = \sum_{i=1}^n 2(mx_i + b - y_i)x_i$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i &= m \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + b \\ \sum_{i=1}^n y_i x_i &= m \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i)^2 + b \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \end{aligned} \right\} \text{solve these}$$

# Regression Example

(18)

Continued

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i = \bar{Y} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \bar{X}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i)^2 = \overline{XX} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = \overline{XY}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \bar{X} & 1 \\ \overline{XX} & \bar{X} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} m \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{Y} \\ \overline{XY} \end{pmatrix}$$

Solution (at home) give standard linear regression results.

## Sampling

Fixed Sampling (n fixed)

Sequential Sampling (something other than n fixed)

Stratified Sampling break sample space into strata