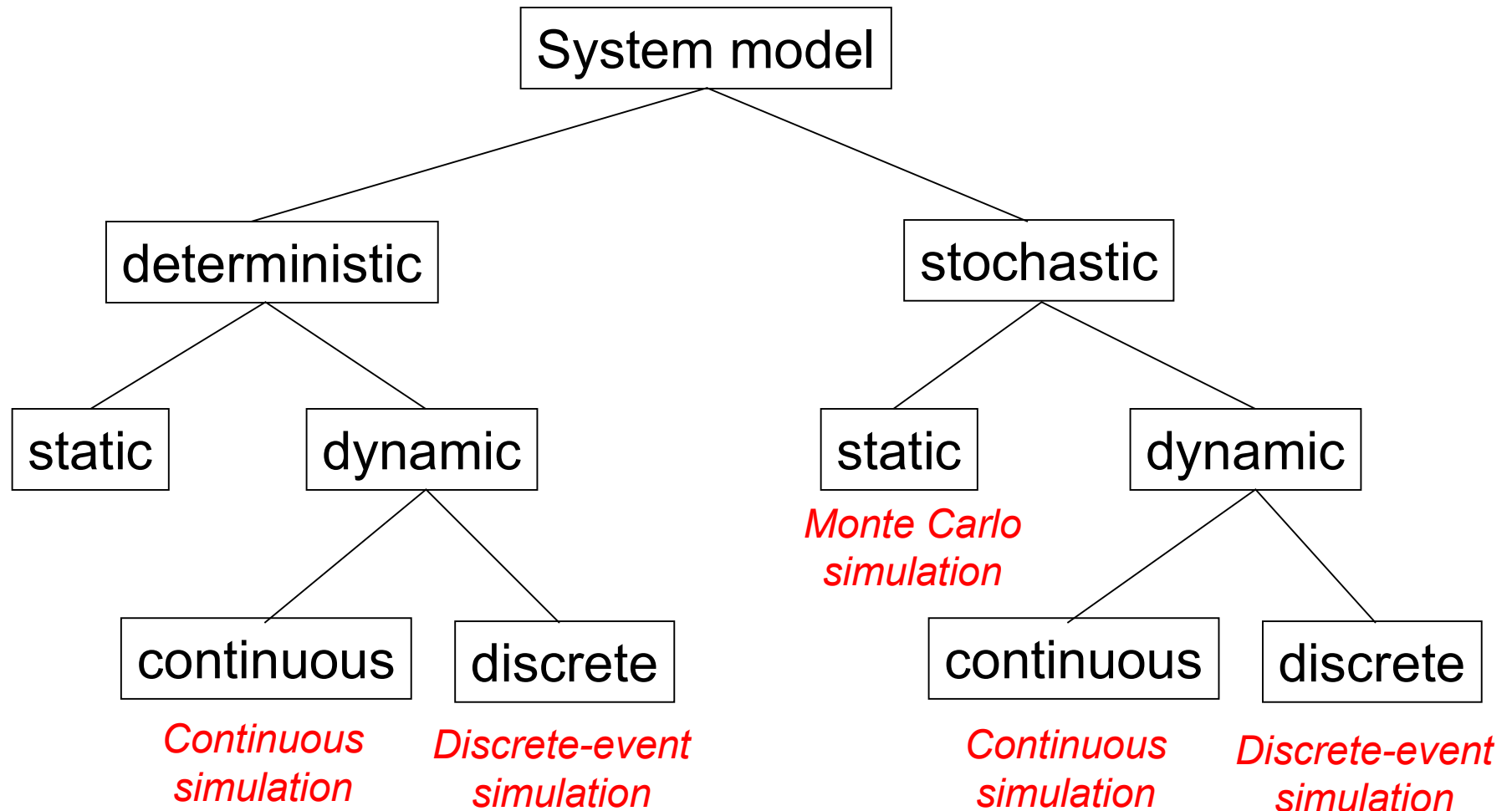


# Types of Simulation Models

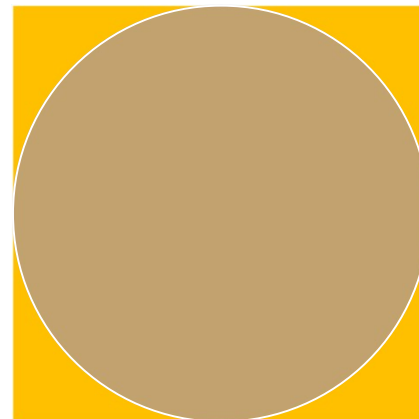


# What is Monte Carlo Simulation ?

- **Monte Carlo methods** are a widely used class of **computational algorithms** for simulating the behavior of various physical and mathematical systems, and for other computations.
- **Monte Carlo algorithm** is often used to find solutions to mathematical numerical problems (which may have many variables) that cannot easily be solved, (e.g. integral calculus, or other numerical methods)
- Determine some value using random numbers that could be very difficult to do by other means
- Ex: Evaluating an integral that has no closed analytical form

# Monte Carlo Simulation

- Before any formal definitions, let's consider a simple example
  - Let's assume we don't know the formula for the area of a circle, but we do know the formula for the area of a square
  - We'd like to somehow find the area of a circle of a given radius (let's say 1)



# Monte Carlo Simulation

- Let's generate a (Big) number of random points in the square
  - Test to see if each point is also in the circle
    - Since we know the circle has a radius of 1, we can put its center at the origin and any random point a distance  $\leq 1$  from the origin is within the circle
  - The ratio of points in the circle to total points generated should approximate the ratio of the area of circle to the area of the square

# Monte Carlo Simulation

- “Informal” theory behind M.C.
  - Consider a random experiment with possible outcome C
  - Run the experiment N times, counting the number of C outcomes,  $N_C$
  - The relative frequency of occurrence of C is the ratio  $N_C/N$
  - As  $N \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $N_C/N$  converges to the probability of C, or

$$p(C) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N_C}{N}$$

# Monte Carlo Simulation

- In Probability: we determine probability of an event based on the number of ways it may occur out of the total number of possible outcomes that gives the "true" probability of a given event
  - Whereas empirical probability only gives an estimate (since we cannot actually have  $N$  be infinity)
  - However, for complex situations this could be quite difficult to do
- When axiomatic probability is not practical, empirical probability (Monte Carlo simulation) can often be a good substitute
- Can also be used to verify axiomatic results

# M.C. in Integration

- Another common problem – evaluating an integral
  - Many integrals have no closed form and can also be very difficult to evaluate with "traditional" numerical methods
  - How can we use Monte Carlo simulation to evaluate these?
  - Let's look at this in a somewhat simplified way (i.e. we will be light on the theory)

# Monte Carlo Simulation

- A scheme employing random numbers which is used to solve certain stochastic or deterministic problems where the passage of time plays no substantive role.
- Common problem is the estimation of  $\int_{\Omega} f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$ , where  $f$  is a function,  $\mathbf{x}$  is a vector and  $\Omega$  is domain of integration.
- Special case: Estimate  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  for scalar  $x$  and limits of integration  $a, b$



# Monte Carlo Simulation

Let  $X$  be a uniform random variable on the interval  $[a, b]$  with density

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}, \quad a \leq x \leq b$$

and let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  be a random sample from  $X$ .

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x)dx &= \int_a^b \frac{f(x)}{p(x)} p(x)dx \\ &= (b-a) \int_a^b f(x)p(x)dx \\ &= (b-a)E[f(X)] \\ &\approx \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i). \end{aligned}$$

# Monte Carlo Simulation

Example: Estimate  $\int_0^b \sin(x) dx$  .

We approximate this by

$$\frac{b}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sin(x_i) ,$$

where  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are a sample from a uniform  $[0, b]$  random variable.

# Monte Carlo Simulation

Example: Estimate  $\int_0^b \sin(x) dx$ .

|                         | $n = 10$ | $n = 100$ | $n = 1000$ | $n = 2000$ |
|-------------------------|----------|-----------|------------|------------|
| $b = 1$<br>(answer = 2) | 1.753    | 2.032     | 1.994      | 1.999      |
| $b = 2$<br>(answer = 0) | -0.898   | -0.013    | 0.137      | 0.079      |

There is considerable variability in the quality of solution; accuracy of numerical integration sensitive to integrand and domain of integration

# Two Types of Approaches

- Direct
  - Obtain an analytical expression
  - Inverse transform
    - Requires inverse of the distribution function
  - Composition & Convolution
    - For special forms of distribution functions
- Indirect
  - Acceptance-rejection

# Acceptance-Rejection Method

By Von Neumann (1951), used when the direct approaches fail or inefficient.

A closed form for  $F(X)$  does not exist, so what we'll do is to add another distribution . For which we know “how to calculate the CDF and its inverse”.

We pick a function  $t(x)$  that is larger than  $f(x)$  for all  $x$ . Technically we say that  $t(x)$  *majorizes*  $f(x)$ .

# Acceptance-Rejection Method

- Specify a function that majorizes the density

$$t(x) \geq f(x), \forall x$$

- *$t(x)$  is clearly not a density fun.*

- New density function  $r(x) = \frac{t(x)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t(x)dx}$

- Algorithm to generate a r.v. with density  $f(x)$

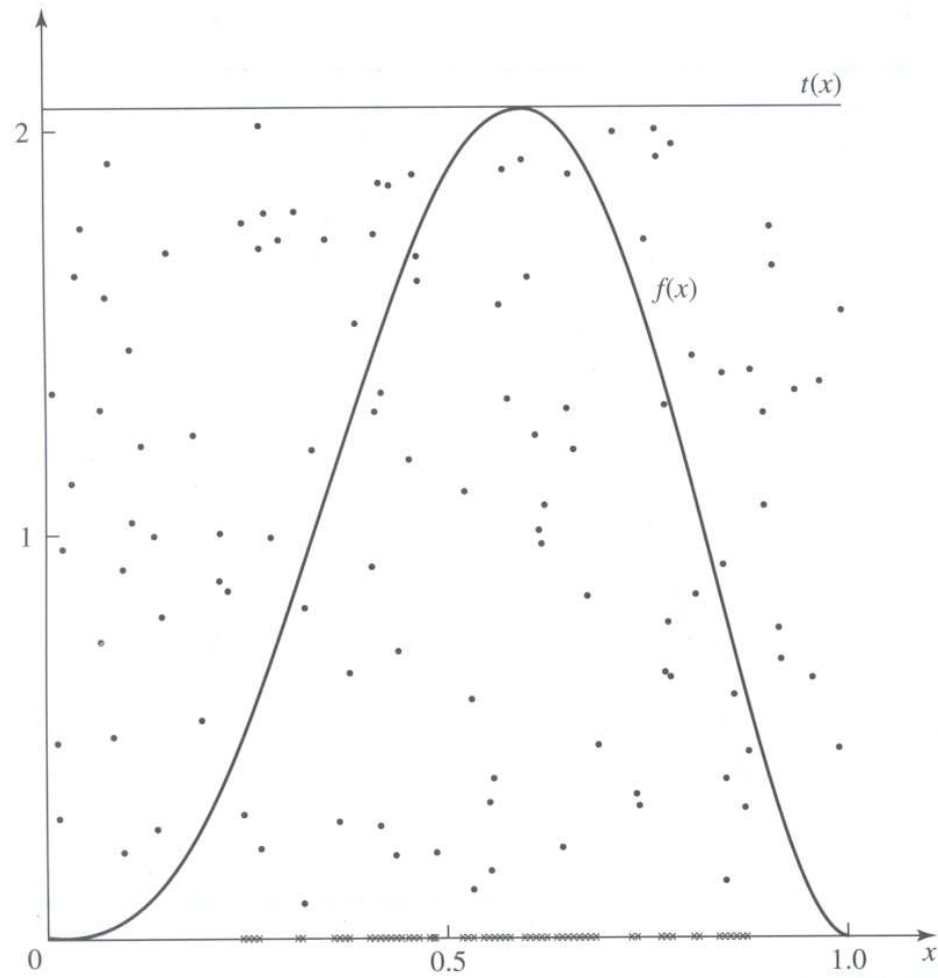
1. Generate  $Y$  with density  $r$

2. Generate  $U$  independent of  $Y$

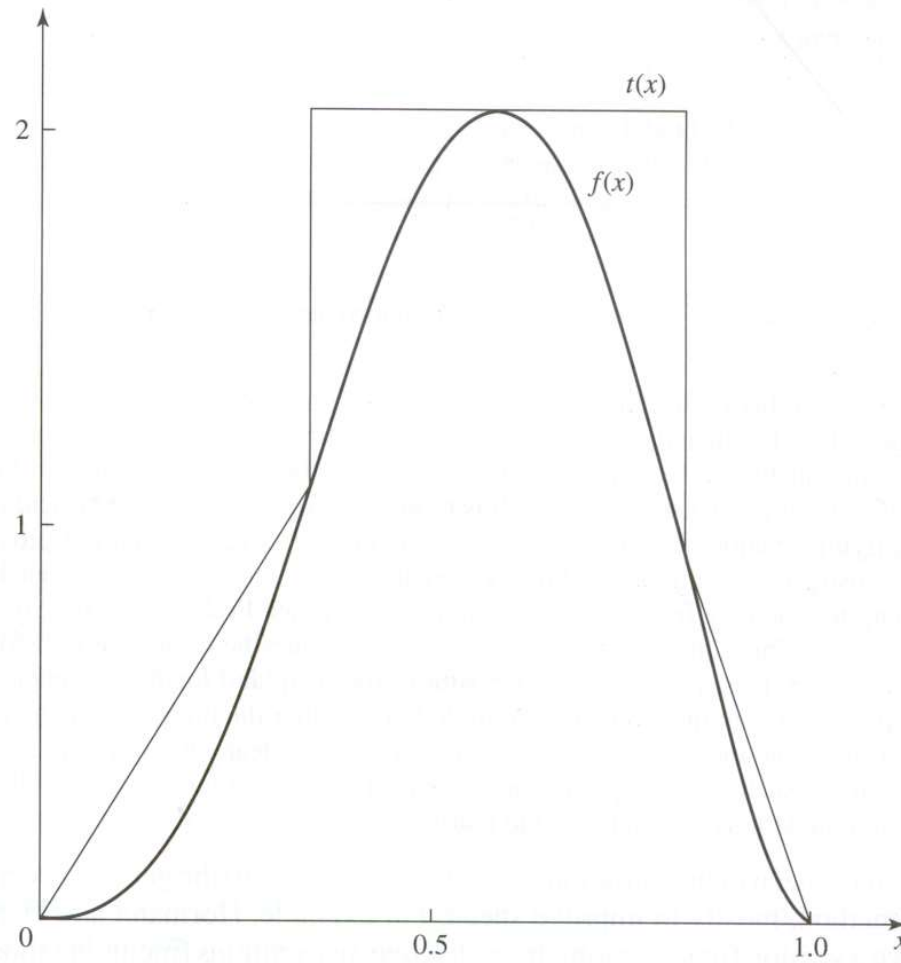
3. If  $U \leq f(Y)/t(Y)$ , return  $X = Y$ .

Otherwise go back to Step 1.

# Example:



# Example: More Efficient





# Ex. Beta Distribution

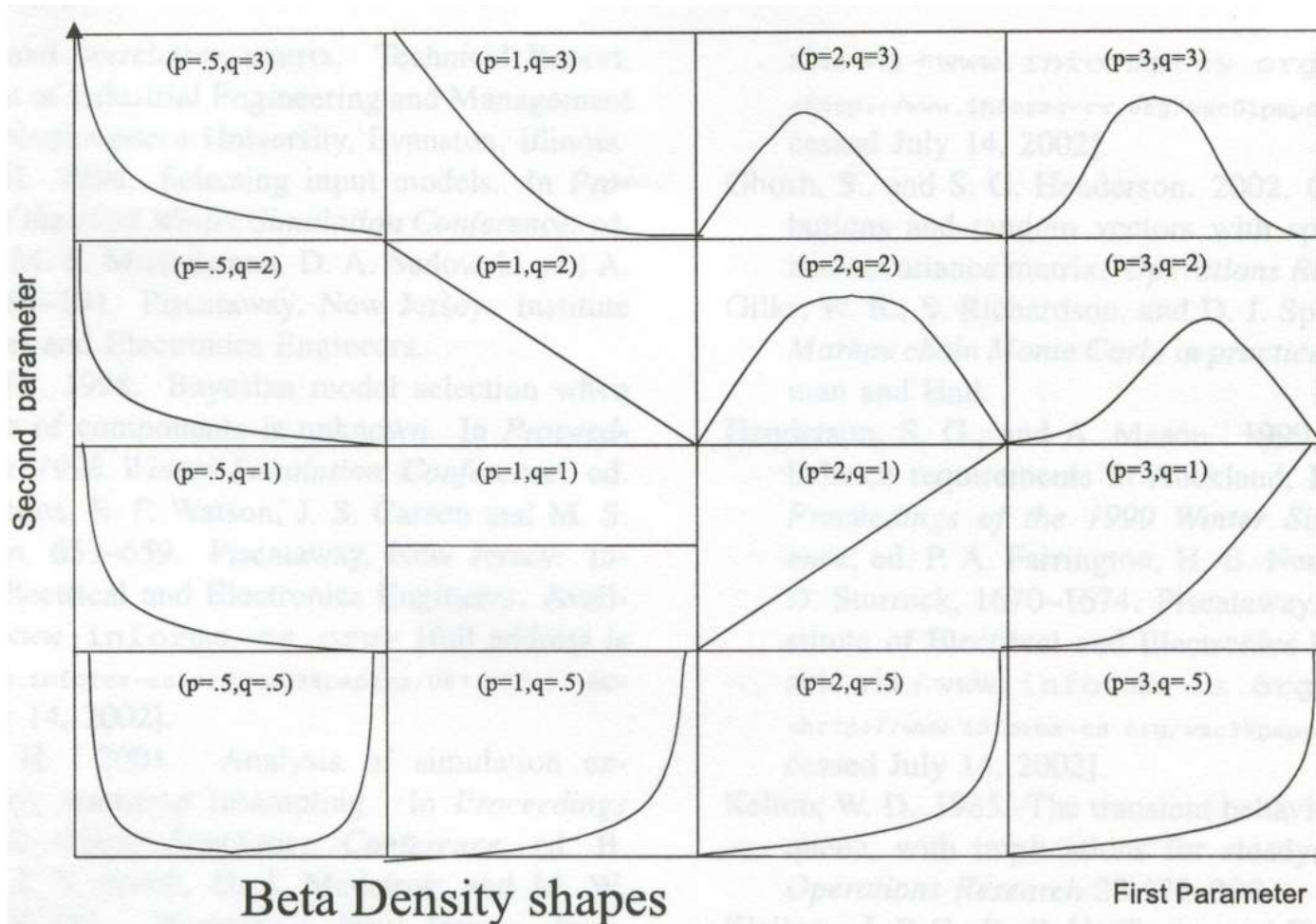
- Density

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^{\alpha_1-1} (1-x)^{\alpha_2-1}}{B(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)} & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$B(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) = \int_0^1 t^{\alpha_1-1} (1-t)^{\alpha_2-1} dt$$

- No closed form CDF. No closed form inverse
- Must use numerical methods for inverse-transform method

# Beta Distribution Shapes



# Beta(4,3) Example

- Density  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 60x^3(1-x)^2 & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- The distribution  $F(x)$  is a 6<sup>th</sup> degree polynomial, The inverse approach is not a good one.
- Try to find  $t(x)$   
put  $df/dx = 0$  to find the max of the  $f$ , which will be a  $x = 0.6$  , and  $f(0.6) = 2.0736$
- Put  $t(x) = \begin{cases} 2.0736 & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- Then  $r(x) = \frac{t(x)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t(x)dx} = \frac{2.0736}{\int_0^1 2.0736dx} = 1$

# Beta(4,3) Example

So  $r(x)$  is just  $U(0, 1)$

*The algorithm:*

1. *Generate  $Y$  having density of  $r(x)$  ; i.e.  $U(0, 1)$*
2. *Generate  $U \sim U(0, 1)$ , independent of  $Y$*
3. *If  $U \leq \frac{f(Y)}{t(Y)}$  , return  $X=Y$ ; Otherwise go to step 1*

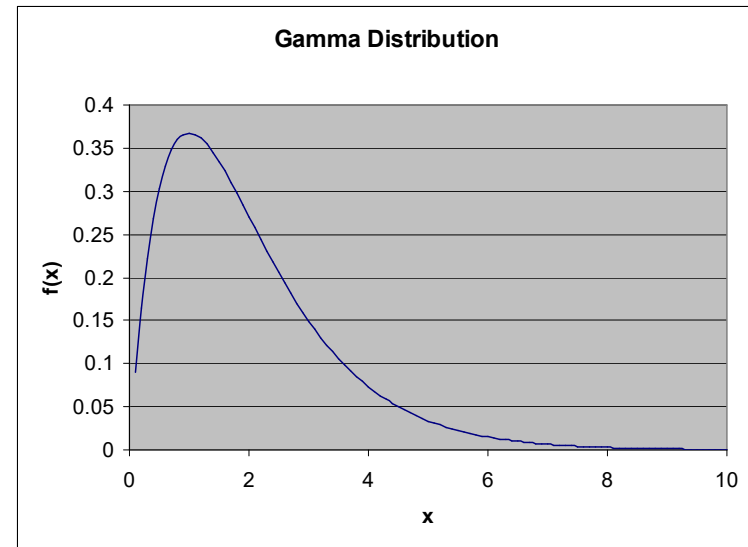
# Acceptance – Rejection Technique for Gamma Dist.

A gamma( $\alpha, \beta$ ) density

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\beta^{-\alpha} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} & 0 < x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^{\infty} y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy$$

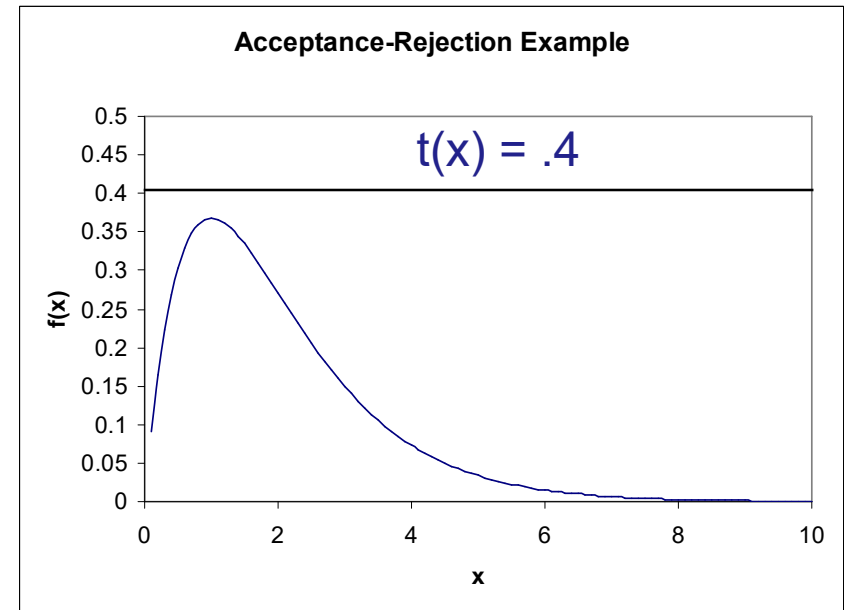


A closed form for  $F(X)$   
does not exist,

# Acceptance – Rejection Technique for Gamma Dist.

A gamma(2,1)

We pick a function  $t(x)$  that  
is larger than  $f(x)$  for all  $x$ .  
 $t(x)=0.4$



# Acceptance-Rejection Gamma(2,1)

If we selected  $t(x) = .4 \quad 0 \leq x \leq 10$

Now  $t(x)$  is not a density function, why?

since its integral from 0 to 10 doesn't add up to 1.

So let us define  $c$ : And  $r(x) = t(x)/c$ :

$$c = \int_0^{\infty} t(x) dx$$

$$r(x) = .4 / 4$$

$$= .1$$

$$= \int_0^{10} .4 dx$$

$$R(x) = \int_0^x .1 dx'$$

$$= \left|_0^{10} .4 x\right.$$

$$= .1x'$$

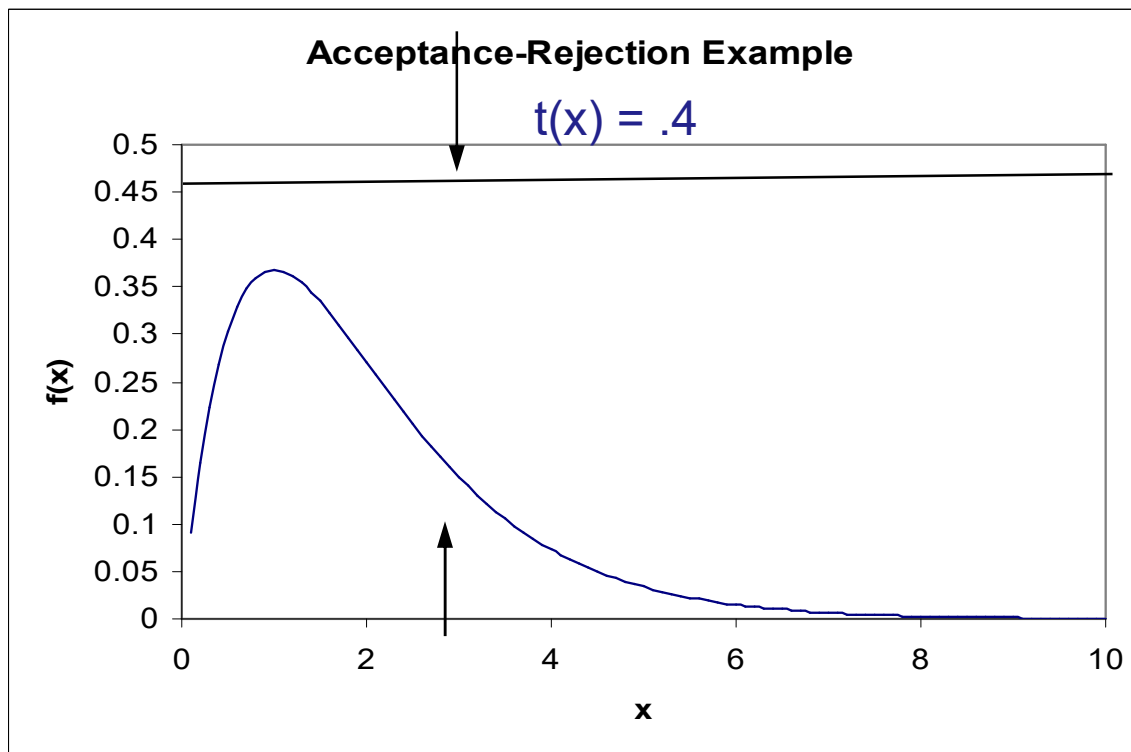
$$= 4$$

i.e.  $r(x)$  is a density fn.

# Acceptance – Rejection

The inverse transformation for R:  $X = 10Y$ .

For a random number  $Y = 0.3$ ,  
This translates into an  $X$  of 3



If we threw darts that could land only on the line  $x = 3$ , then the probability that a dart hitting inside the distribution would be  $f(X=3)/t(X=3)$ .



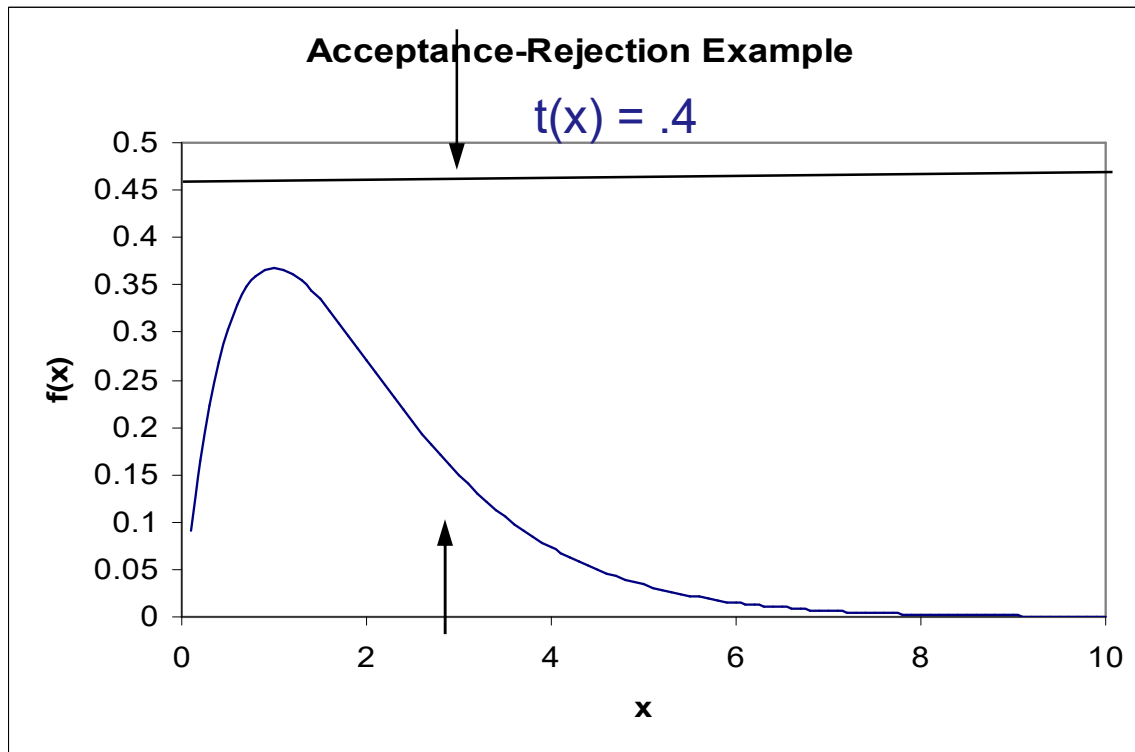
# Acceptance – Rejection

$$\begin{aligned} f(X=.3)/t(X=.3) \\ &= .15/.4 \\ &= .375 \end{aligned}$$

Generate  $U \sim U(0,1)$ .

If  $U$  is less than .375, we will accept  $X=3$  as coming from a  $\text{gamma}(2,1)$  distribution.

Otherwise, we will start the process over by selecting a new  $R$  and new  $U$ .



# Derived Distributions

- Several distributions are derived from the gamma and normal
- Can take advantage of knowing how to generate those two distributions