# **Bi7740: Scientific computing**

#### Introduction to Monte Carlo methods

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# Supplemental bibliography

- Gentle, J.E.: Random number generation and Monte Carlo methods. 2003. Springer. 2nd Ed.
- Jones O., Maillardet R., Robinson, A. *Scientific programming* and simulation using R. 2009., CRC Press.



# Outline



#### Random number generators

2 Non-uniform random variable generation



Monte Carlo methods for inference • Inference about the mean



# Numerical experiments: simulations

General approach:

- identify the random variable of interest X
- identify/postulate its distributional properties
- generate one or several large samples identical and independely distributed X<sub>1</sub>,..., X<sub>n</sub> from the distribution of X
- estimate the quantity of interest (e.g. estimate EX using sample average) and assess its accuracy (e.g. via confidence intervals)



# Random number generators (RNGs)

- all random variables can be generated by transforming a uniformly distributed random variable X ∈ U(0, 1)
- there is no algorithmic (deterministic) way of generating infinitely long sequences of true random numbers
- computers generate *pseudorandom numbers*
- there exist devices to generate (believed to be) random sequences: e.g. radioactive decay: the time elapsed between emission of two consecutive particles (α, β, γ). See: http://www.fourmilab.ch/hotbits



# RNGs, cont'd

- two aspects:
  - generate good pseudorandom numbers in U(0, 1): independent and uniformly distributed
  - Ind proper trasformations to the desired distribution
- you cannot prove that an RNG is truly random
- there are a batteries of tests that an RNG must pass to be *acceptable*
- for any RNG, one can find a statistical test that will reject it as a good generator



# RNGs, cont'd

Formalism:

- an RNG is a structure  $(S, \mu, f, U, g)$  where
  - S is a finite set of states
  - μ is a probability distribution on S used to select the initial seed (state) s<sub>0</sub>
  - *f* : *S* → *S* is a *transition function*. The state of the RNG evolves according to the recurrence *s<sub>i</sub>* = *f*(*s<sub>i-1</sub>*) for *i* ≥ 1
  - *U* is the *output space*. Usually U = (0, 1)
  - g : S → U is the output function. The numbers u<sub>i</sub> = g(s<sub>i</sub>) are called *random numbers* produced by the RNG



# RNGs, cont'd

- *S* is finite  $\Rightarrow \exists l \ge 0, j > 0$  finite such that  $s_{l+j} = s_l$
- this implies that ∀i ≥ l, u<sub>i+j</sub> = u<sub>i</sub> since both f and g are deterministic
- the smallest positive *j* for which this happens is called *period lenght* of the RNG and is denoted by  $\rho$
- obviously,  $\rho \leq |S|$
- ex.: if the state is represented on k bits, then  $\rho \leq 2^k$



# RNGs, cont'd

Quality criteria:

- $\bullet\,$  extremly long period  $\rho\,$
- efficient implementation
- repeatability
- oprtability
- availability of jump-ahead property: quickly compute the s<sub>i+v</sub> given s<sub>i</sub>, so you can partition a long sequence in subsequences to be used in parallel
- randomness



# RNGs, cont'd

Coverage:

- let  $\Psi_t = \{(u_0, ..., u_t) | s_0 \in S\}$
- is  $\Psi_t$  uniformly covering the hypercube  $(0, 1)^t$ ?
- tests of *discrepancy* between the empirical distribution of  $\Psi_t$  and the uniform distribution
- figure of merit: a measure of the coverage quality



# RNGs, cont'd

#### Randomness and *i.i.d*:

- statistical tests: try to detect empirical evidence against H<sub>0</sub>: "u<sub>i</sub> are realizations of i.i.d U(0, 1)". Example: diehard tests (Marsaglia, 1995)
- passing more tests improves the confidence in RNG, but cannot *prove* the RNG is foolproof for all cases
- good RNG passes a set of simple tests
- *polynomial time perfect* RNG: there is no polynomial-time algorithm the can predict any given bit of  $u_i$  with a probability of success  $\geq 1/2 + 2^{-k\epsilon}$ , for some  $\epsilon > 0$ , after observing  $u_0, \ldots, u_{i-1}$
- the usual RNGs are not polynomial time perfect



# RNGs, cont'd

Multiple Recursive Generator has a general recurrence

$$x_i = (a_1 x_{i-1} + \cdots + a_k x_{i-k}) \mod m$$

where *m* (modulus) and *k* (order) are integers carefully selected, and coefficients  $a_1, \ldots, a_k \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ . The state is  $s_i = (x_{i-k+1}, \ldots, x_i)^T$ . When *m* is prime, it is possible to select  $a_i$  such that the period length  $\rho = m^k - 1$ .



# RNGs, cont'd

Example (historical, not in serious use anymore): MLCG (Lehmer, 1948): multiplicative linear congruential generator:

$$s_{i+1} = (a_1s_i + a_0) \operatorname{mod} m$$

This generates integers that are converted to (0, 1) by division with *m*. Weakness: (Marsaglia, 1968): if  $(s_i, \ldots, s_{i+d})$  represent some points in a *d*-dimensional space, they have a lattice structure: they lie in a number of specific hyperplanes.

Famous multipliers ( $a_0 = 0$ ):

- $a_1 = 23, m = 10^8 + 1$ : original version, has higher order correlations
- $a_1 = 65539, m = 2^{29}$ : infamous RANDU generator (IBM 360 series, in the 1970s): catastrophic higher order correlations
- $a_1 = 69069, m = 2^{32}$  (Marsaglia, 1972): good properties and converage up to 6 dimensions



# RNGs, cont'd

Exercise:

• write a function

rng.mlcg = function(n, a1=20, a0=0, m=53, s0=21)

which implements the procedure MLCG (with some default parameters), and returns a sequence of *n* numbers.

• generate a sequence and plot  $u_{i+1}$  vs  $u_i$ 

```
> u = rng.mlcg(200)
```

> plot(u[2:200],u[1:199])

o discuss!



# RNGs, cont'd

Exercise:

• let *n* = 20000

execute

o discuss!



# RNGs, cont'd

In R: don't let the RNG to be "randomly" selected!

- for serious work, always set the seed, check the RNG, etc: they might be version-dependent; also you want other to be able to reproduce your results
- read the help for RNG
- uniform random numbers are generated with **runif**() function
- check also {d, p, q}unif() functions
- read the help for .Random.seed()



### Outline



#### 2 Non-uniform random variable generation





# Non-uniform r.v. generation (NRNG)

Requirements:

- correctness: a good approximation of the theoretical distribution
- robustness: RNG should work well on a large range of parameters
- efficiency



# NRNG: inversion method

- best choice, when feasible
- to generate X with distribution function F, starting from a uniform variate U ∈ (0, 1), apply the inverse F<sup>-1</sup> to U:

$$X = F^{-1}(U) := \min\{x | F(x) \ge U\}$$

• easy to see that the distribution of *X* is as required:

$$P[X \le x] = P[F^{-1}(U) \le x] = P[U \le F(x)] = F(x)$$

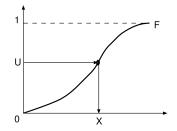
- for some distributions,  $F^{-1}$  can be obtained analytically. Ex.: Weibull distribution  $F(x) = 1 - \exp(-(x/\beta)^{\alpha})$ , with  $\alpha, \beta > 0$ ; has the inverse  $F^{-1}(U) = \beta[-\ln(1-U)]^{1/\alpha}$
- other distributions do not have a close form inverse: e.g. normal, χ<sup>2</sup>,... ⇒ approximations



# NRNG: inversion method, cont'd

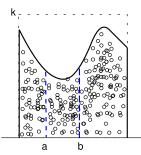
Example (principle of inversion):

```
# return X with cdf F, for a
# uniform r.v. 0 < U < 1
# (look-up table method)
X = 0
while (F(X) < U) X = X + 1
return (X)
```





# NRNG: Rejection method



- consider *F* with a compact support and bounded *F*(*x*) ≤ *k*
- consider a series of points (X<sub>i</sub>, Y<sub>i</sub>) uniformly distributed under the density function
- the distribution of  $X_i$  is the same as the distribution of X(F):  $P[a < X_i < b] =$  probability of a point falling in the region =  $\int_a^b F(x) dx$
- o procedure:
  - generate  $X \sim U[a, b]$  and  $Y \sim U[0, 1]$ independently
  - 2) if Y < F(X) return X, otherwise repeat



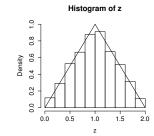
# NRNG: Rejection method

Exercise: Implement the rejection method for generating random variates from the pdf

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } 0 < x < 1\\ 2 - x & \text{if } 1 \le x < 2\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Generate n = 5000 r.v., plot their histogram (use

**hist**(..., freq=FALSE, ylim=c(0,1,01)) and the original pdf.





# Generating normally distributed r.v.

- you can use the rejection method
- alternative: Box-Muller algorithm: based on the observation that the coordinates of points in a 2D Cartesian system described by 2 independent normal distributions correspond to polar coordinates that are realizations of 2 independent uniform distributions
- Box-Muller transform: if U<sub>1</sub>, U<sub>2</sub> are independent uniformly distributed on (0,1), then

$$Z_1 = r \cos \theta = \sqrt{-2 \ln U_1} \cos(2\pi U_2)$$
$$Z_2 = r \sin \theta = \sqrt{-2 \ln U_1} \sin(2\pi U_2)$$



Improved Box-Muller algorithm, with rejection step:

Exercise: Implement the procedure above in R!



# Other methods for NRNG

- kernel density estimation: approximate the inverse using a kernels for which efficient generators exist
- composition: consider F to be a convex combination of several distributions F<sub>j</sub>:

$$F(x) = \sum_{j} p_{j} F_{j}(x)$$

To generate from F, one generates J with probability  $p_j$  and then generates X from  $F_j$ 

- convolution: if  $X = Y_1 + \cdots + Y_n$ , with  $Y_j$  independent with specified distributions, then generate the  $Y_j$ 's and sum them
- etc etc



Efficient implementations exist in R for:

- normal distribution: rnorm; log-normal: dlnorm
- binomial distribution: rbinom
- Poisson distribution: rpois

• . . .



Inference about the mean

# Outline



Non-uniform random variable generatior



Monte Carlo methods for inference • Inference about the mean



Inference about the mean

# MC methods for inference

General approach:

- identify the random variable of interest X
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Inference about the mean

# Outline







Monte Carlo methods for inference Inference about the mean



# MC inference about the mean

Reminder:

- problem: compute z = EZ when x is not available analytically, but Z can be simulated
- consider *n* replicates  $Z_1, ..., Z_n$  of *Z* and estimate *z* by the empirical mean  $\hat{z} = \sum_i Z_i / n$
- denote  $\sigma^2 = Var\{Z\} < \infty$
- central limit theorem:

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{z}-z) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0,\sigma^2), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

• from this, an 1 –  $\alpha$  confidence interval can be obtained as

$$\left(\hat{z}-z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}},\hat{z}-z_{\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

where  $z_{\alpha}$  denotes the  $\alpha$ -quantile of the normal distribution  $(\Phi(z_{\alpha}) = \alpha)$ 



# MC for inference about the mean

Implement the following procedure:

• write the R function pdfl(n) to generate n = 1000 r.v. drawn from

$$f(X) = 0.2N_1(X) + 0.3N_2(X) + 0.5N_3(X)$$

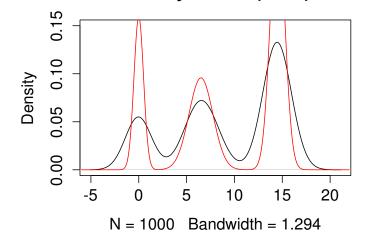
where  $N_i$  are Gaussians with parameters  $\mu_1 = 0, \sigma_1 = 0.5$ ,  $\mu_2 = 6.5, \sigma_2 = 1.25, \mu_3 = 14.5, \sigma_3 = 0.75$ . Do not use **for** loops or any function from the various nonstandard packages!

- plot the density of the sample drawn and compare it with the theoretical plot of the mixture density
- repeat the procedure for n = 10000 and n = 100000. what do you see?



Inference about the mean

# density.default(x = x)





- generate p = 1000 samples of n = 1000 r.v.:  $X[p \times n]$
- compute x̂<sub>i</sub> as the sample average for each of the p samples and the grand average X̂
- what is the true mean of this mixture of Gaussians?
- test the normality of the distribution of x̂<sub>i</sub> (e.g. shapiro.test())
- estimate the 95% empirical confidence interval (using quantiles of the distribution of  $\hat{x}_i$ ) and compare it with the theoretical one (using sample variance for  $\sigma^2$ ) obtained from a single sample (say, X[1,])

