Lecture 8:

Monte Carlo Methods



Markus Hohle

University California, Berkeley

Bayesian Data Analysis and Machine Learning for Physical Sciences

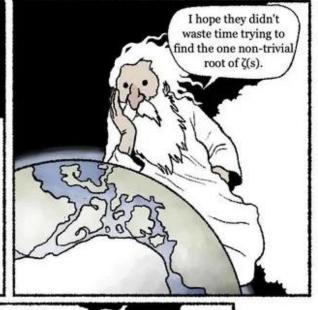


Berkeley Bayesian Data Analysis and Machine Learning for Physical Sciences

Course Map	Module 1	Maximum Entropy and Information, Bayes Theorem
	Module 2	Naive Bayes, Bayesian Parameter Estimation, MAP
	Module 3	MLE, Lin Regression
	Module 4	Model selection I: Comparing Distributions
	Module 5	Model Selection II: Bayesian Signal Detection
	Module 6	Variational Bayes, Expectation Maximization
	Module 7	Hidden Markov Models, Stochastic Processes
	Module 8	Monte Carlo Methods
	Module 9	Machine Learning Overview, Supervised Methods
	Module 10	Unsupervised Methods
	Module 11	ANN: Perceptron, Backpropagation
	Module 12	ANN: Basic Architecture, Regression vs Classification, Backpropagation again
	Module 13	Convolution and Image Classification and Segmentation
	Module 14	Graphs and GNNs
	Module 15	RNNs and LSTMs
	Module 16	Transformer and LLMs

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<u>Outline</u>

Basic Idea & Finding Pi

Mapping Distributions & Gibbs Sampling

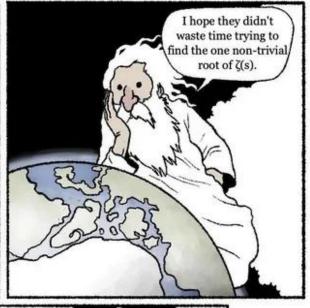
Gillespie Algorithm

Metropolis (- Hastings) Algorithm

Bootstrapping

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Berkeley Monte Carlo Methods

idea: generating a set of values randomly

i.e. repeated random sampling

→ Monte Carlo method

pros: for many sample repetitions → the actual probability density function emerges

pretty simple set up & easy to implement, easy to parallelize

cons: not directed like e.g. gradient descent (see later)

applications: - numerical evaluation of complicated integrals

$$\rho = \frac{P(M_A|D,I)}{P(M_B|D,I)} = \frac{P(M_A)}{P(M_B)} \cdot \frac{\int P(D|\{\alpha\}_A, M_A,I) d\alpha_{Aj}}{\int P(D|\{\alpha\}_B, M_B,I) d\alpha_{Bj}} \cdot \frac{\prod_j \alpha_{jB}(max) - \alpha_{jB}(min)}{\prod_j \alpha_{jA}(max) - \alpha_{jA}(min)}$$

- estimating posteriors: $P(q|D) = \frac{\binom{n}{k} q^k (1-q)^{n-k}}{P(D)} P(q) \sim q^k (1-q)^{n-k} P(q)$

$$q_i(Z_i|D) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(\langle E(Z_i, \{Z_{j\neq i}\}, D)\rangle_{\{j\neq i\}}\right)$$



applications:

- numerical evaluation of complicated integrals

$$\rho = \frac{P(M_A|D,I)}{P(M_B|D,I)} = \frac{P(M_A)}{P(M_B)} \cdot \frac{\int P(D|\{\alpha\}_A, M_A, I) d\alpha_{Aj}}{\int P(D|\{\alpha\}_B, M_B, I) d\alpha_{Bj}} \cdot \frac{\prod_j \alpha_{jB}(max) - \alpha_{jB}(min)}{\prod_j \alpha_{jA}(max) - \alpha_{jA}(min)}$$

- estimating posteriors:
$$P(q|D) = \frac{\binom{n}{k} q^k (1-q)^{n-k}}{P(D)} P(q) \sim q^k (1-q)^{n-k} P(q)$$

$$q_i(Z_i|D) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(\langle E(Z_i, \{Z_{j\neq i}\}, D)\rangle_{\{j\neq i\}}\right)$$

- modelling stochastic processes: Gillespie, Metropolis

optimization: simulated annealing

- bootstrapping: estimating confidence intervals, random forest

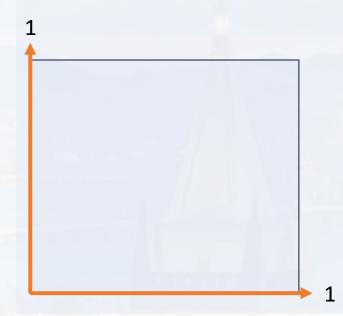


let's start simple:

$$A_{circ} = \pi r^2 = \pi$$

for
$$r=1$$

example: finding π via Monte Carlo

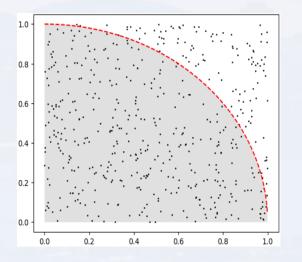


$$A_{square} = 1$$

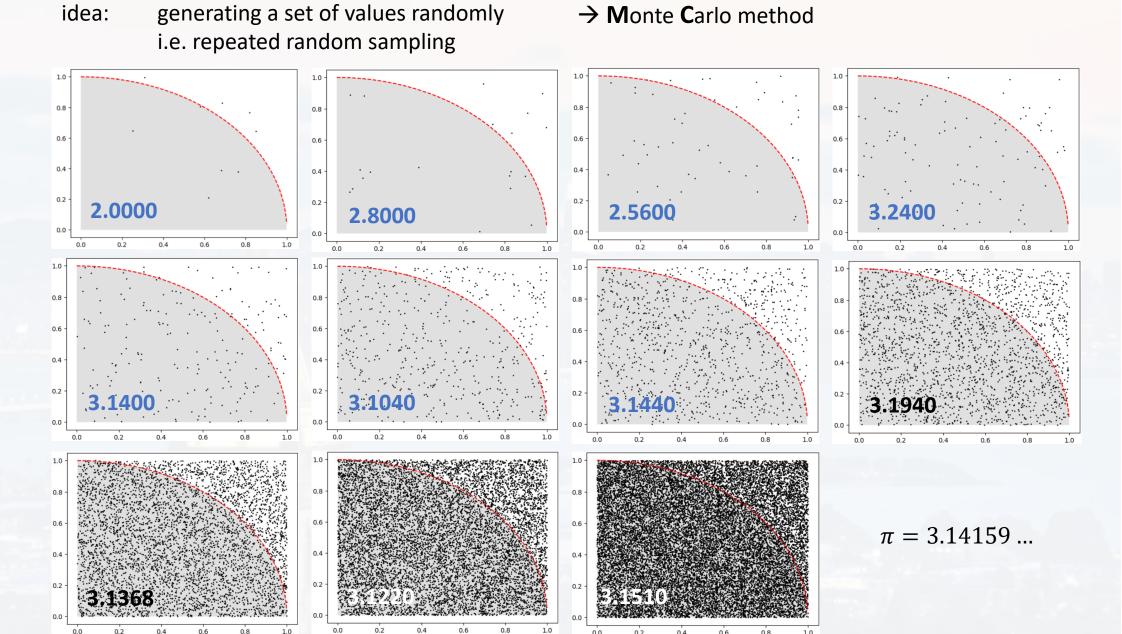
$$A_{section} = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$\pi = 4 \frac{A_{section}}{A_{square}}$$

picking N_{tot} random values [0,1] x [0,1]

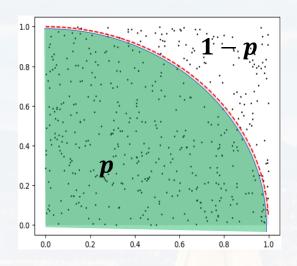


$$\pi \approx 4 \frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}$$





How does the accuracy of π depend on N_{tot} ?



$$\pi \approx 4 \frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}$$

We know that a point within the section is drawn with the probability \boldsymbol{p}

That is a binomial problem!

In practice, k points fall into the section with probability p and $N_{tot}-k$ don't, with a probability of 1-p

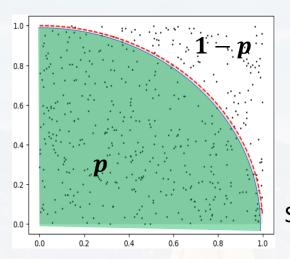
Thus, we can tell the mean and the variance of **one** simulation for one specific N_{tot}

$$\sigma(k)^2 = N_{tot} p(1-p)$$

$$\mu(k) = pN_{tot}$$



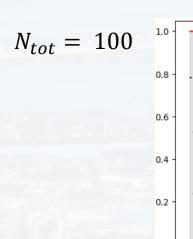
How does the accuracy of π depend on N_{tot} ?

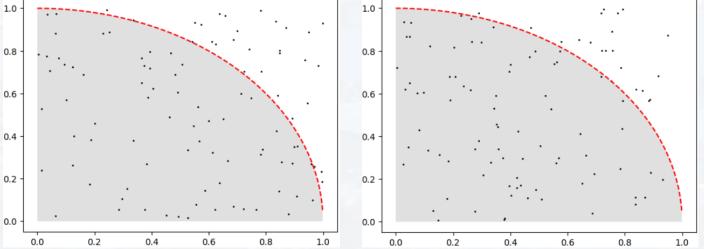


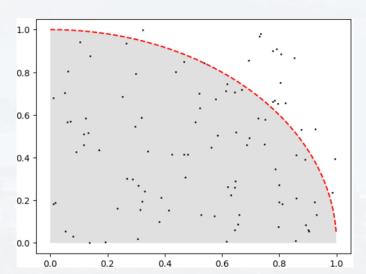
$$\pi \approx 4 \frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}$$
 $\sigma(k)^2 = N_{tot} p(1-p)$ $\mu(k) = pN_{tot}$

error of
$$\pi$$
: $4\sigma\left(\frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}\right) = 4\sigma\left(\frac{k}{N_{tot}}\right)$ standard deviation σ of the ratio $\frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}$

Say we run the simulation for a specific N_{tot} many times $\rightarrow Var(k)$

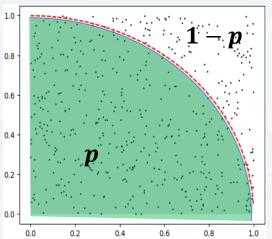








How does the accuracy of π depend on N_{tot} ?



$$\pi \approx 4 \frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}$$
 $\sigma(k)^2 = N_{tot} p(1-p)$ $\mu(k) = pN_{tot}$

error of
$$\pi$$
: $4\sigma\left(\frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}\right) = 4\sigma\left(\frac{k}{N_{tot}}\right)$

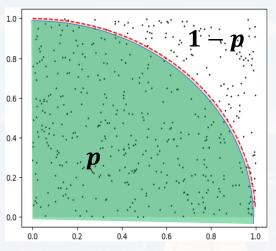
Say we run the simulation for a specific N_{tot} many times $\rightarrow Var(k)$

error of
$$\pi$$
: $4\sigma\left(\frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}\right) = 4\sigma\left(\frac{k}{N_{tot}}\right) = 4\sqrt{Var\left(\frac{k}{N_{tot}}\right)} = 4\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}^2}Var(k)} = 4\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}^2}Var(k)} = 4\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}^2}N_{tot}p(1-p)}$

We know: $Var(x) = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2$

a = const
$$x \to ax$$
 $Var(ax) = \langle (ax)^2 \rangle - \langle ax \rangle^2 = a^2(\langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2) = a^2 Var(x)$

How does the accuracy of π depend on N_{tot} ?



$$\pi \approx 4 \frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}$$

error of
$$\pi$$
: $4\sigma\left(\frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}\right) = 4\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}^2}N_{tot}p(1-p)} = 4\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}}p(1-p)}$

of course we **don't know**
$$p = \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{A_{section}}{A_{square}}$$

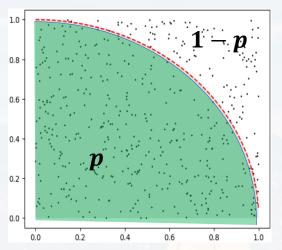
because we wanted find π in the first place

but we can *estimate* it during the simulation

$$4\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}}} p(1-p) \approx 4 \cdot 0.4 \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}}}$$



How does the accuracy of π depend on N_{tot} ?



$$\pi \approx 4 \frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}$$

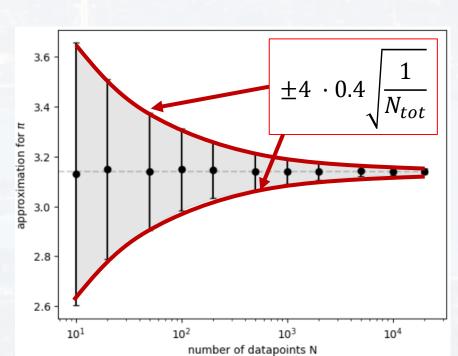
error of
$$\pi$$
: $4\sigma\left(\frac{N_{section}}{N_{tot}}\right) = 4\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}}} \ p(1-p) \approx 4 \cdot 0.4\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}}}$

running 100 simulations for each N_{tot}

 \rightarrow calculating standard deviation of π

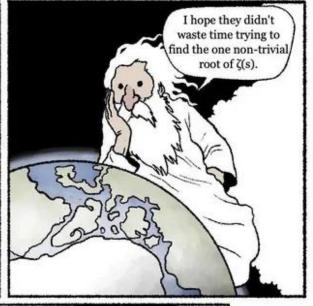
$$\rightarrow$$
 comparing to $4 \cdot 0.4 \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}}}$

see Monte_Carlo_Simulation_PI.ipynb



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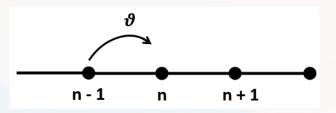
Gillespie Algorithm

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last time:



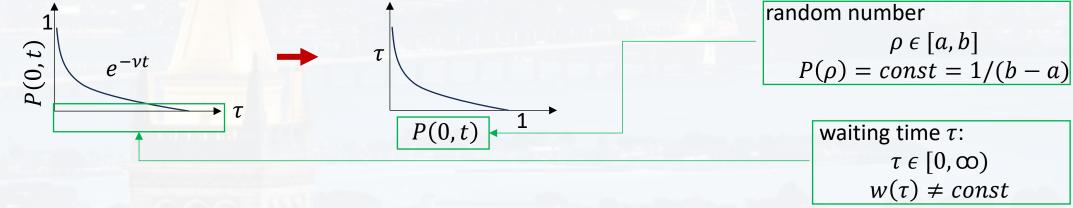
different states n:

ϑ: hopping rate (*probability/time*)

calculating the **waiting time** (time τ between two events)

$$P(0,t) = \frac{(vt)^0}{0!} e^{-vt} \qquad \tau = -\frac{1}{v} ln[P(0,t)]$$

We want to understand the process a bit better (i. e. find the waiting time distribution $w(\tau)$)



$$\int_{a}^{b} P(\rho) d\rho = 1 = \int_{0}^{\infty} w(\tau) d\tau$$



$$\tau = -\frac{1}{\nu} ln[P(0,t)] = -\frac{1}{\nu} ln[\rho]$$

different states n:

θ: hopping rate (probability/time)

$$ho$$
: uniformly dist random number

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{v(a)}^{y(b)} f[x(y)] \frac{dx}{dy} dy$$
 (substitution)

$$= \int_{y(a)}^{y(b)} g(y) \, dy$$

$$= \int_{y(a)}^{y(b)} g(y) \, dy \qquad g(y) \coloneqq f[x(y)] \, \frac{dx}{dy}$$

note: we actually need
$$\left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$$

inverse of y:
$$x(y) = y^{-1}$$

our situation:
$$\int_{\rho=0}^{\rho=1} P(\rho) d\rho = \int_{\tau(0)}^{\tau(1)} P[\rho(\tau)] \left| \frac{d\rho}{d\tau} \right| d\tau = \int_{\tau(0)}^{\tau(1)} w(\tau) d\tau$$

$$w(\tau) = P[\rho(\tau)] \left| \frac{d\rho}{d\tau} \right| \qquad x(y) = \rho(\tau) = e^{-\vartheta \tau}$$

$$w(\tau) = 1 \cdot \vartheta e^{-\vartheta \tau}$$

mean waiting time:
$$t^* = \int_{\tau=0}^{\tau=\infty} \tau \, w(\tau) \, d\tau = \frac{1}{\vartheta}$$



we know from module 6: $q_i(Z_i|D) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(\langle E(Z_i,\{Z_{j\neq i}\},D)\rangle_{\{j\neq i\}}\right)$

which led to circular dependencies

$$q_{\mu}(\mu|D) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu|\mu_K, \lambda_K^{-1})$$

$$q_{\tau}(\tau|D) \sim \Gamma(\tau|a_K, b_K)$$

$$\langle \tau \rangle_{\tau} = \int \tau \ q_{\tau}(\tau|D) \ d\tau = \frac{a_K}{b_K}$$

$$\sigma^2$$
 : variance μ : mean

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} = \lambda$$
 : precision

where
$$\mu_K = \frac{\tau_0 \, \mu_0 + K \, \bar{x}}{\tau_0 + K}$$

$$\lambda_K = (\tau_0 + K) \, \langle \tau \rangle_\tau$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K x_k$$
 where
$$a_K = a + \frac{K+1}{2}$$

$$b_K = b + \frac{1}{2} \langle \sum_k (x_k - \mu)^2 + \tau_0 (\mu - \mu_0)^2 \rangle_\mu$$

set τ_0 , μ_0 , a and b to small positive values (largest ignorance)



we know from module 6: $q_i(Z_i|D) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(\langle E(Z_i,\{Z_{j\neq i}\},D)\rangle_{\{j\neq i\}}\right)$

D: data set of size K

Z : set of n (latent) parameter

 σ^2 : variance μ : mean

 $\frac{1}{r^2} = \lambda$: precision

 $q_i(Z_i|\{Z_{j\neq i}\})$ sampling for all i in a particular order

say we have **three** parameters

- randomly (or MLE guess from data) initialize Z_1, Z_2, Z_3

iteration t

draw $Z_1 = q(Z_1(t+1)|Z_2(t), Z_3(t))$

draw Z_2 $q(Z_2(t+1)|Z_1(t+1),Z_3(t))$

draw Z_3 $q(Z_3(t+1)|Z_1(t+1),Z_2(t+1))$

iteration t + 2



we know from module 6:
$$q_i(Z_i|D) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(\langle E(Z_i,\{Z_{j\neq i}\},D)\rangle_{\{j\neq i\}}\right)$$

 $q_i(Z_i|\{Z_{j\neq i}\})$ sampling for all i in a particular order

D: data set of size K

Z : set of n (latent) parameter

 σ^2 : variance μ : mean

 $\frac{1}{r^2} = \lambda$: precision

for the example from module 6 - now: randomly (or MLE guess from data) initialize μ , λ

$$D|\mu,\lambda \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu,\lambda^{-1})$$

$$\mu \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \lambda_0^{-1})$$

$$\lambda \sim \Gamma(a_0, b_0)$$

instead for calculating the means, we now sample:

$$\mu|\lambda, D \sim \mathcal{N}(M_{\lambda}, L_{\lambda}^{-1})$$
 $L_{\lambda} = (\lambda_0 + K)\lambda$ $M_{\lambda} = \frac{\mu_0 \lambda_0 + \sum_{k=1}^K x_k}{\lambda_0 + K}$

$$\lambda | \mu, D \sim \Gamma(a_K, b_K)$$
 $a_K = a_0 + \frac{K}{2}$ $b_K = b_0 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} (x_k - \mu)^2$

iteration $t \rightarrow t + 1$



we know from module 6: $q_i(Z_i|D) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(\langle E(Z_i,\{Z_{j\neq i}\},D)\rangle_{\{j\neq i\}}\right)$

 $q_i(Z_i|\{Z_{j\neq i}\})$ sampling for all i in a particular order

D: data set of size K

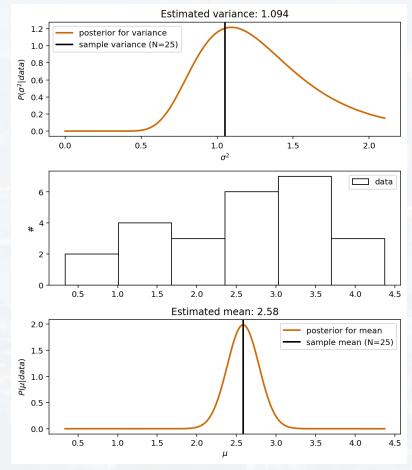
Z : set of n (latent) parameter

 σ^2 : variance

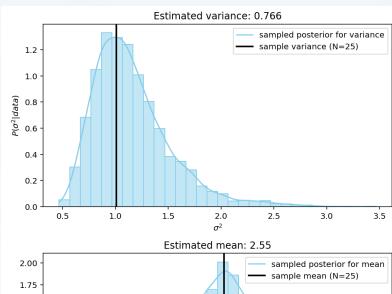
u : mean

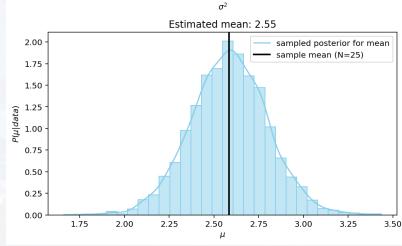
 $\frac{1}{\sigma^2} = \lambda$: precision

Variational Bayes
Var_Bayes_Example.py



Gibbs Sampling
Gibbs_NormGamma_Example.py







we know from module 6: $q_i(Z_i|D) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(\langle E(Z_i,\{Z_{j\neq i}\},D)\rangle_{\{j\neq i\}}\right)$

 $q_i(Z_i|\{Z_{j\neq i}\})$ sampling for all i in a particular order

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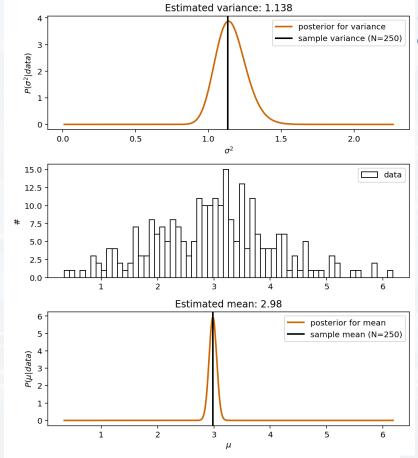
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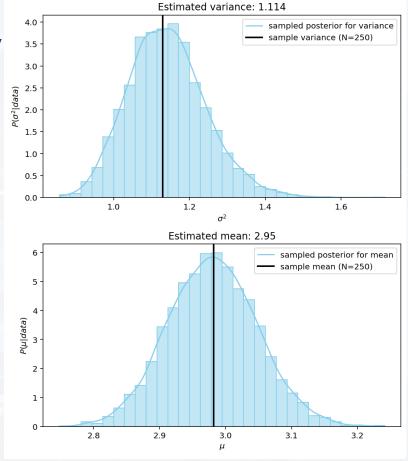
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 $\frac{1}{\sigma^2} = \lambda$: precision

Variational Bayes
Var_Bayes_Example.py



Gibbs Sampling
Gibbs_NormGamma_Example.py

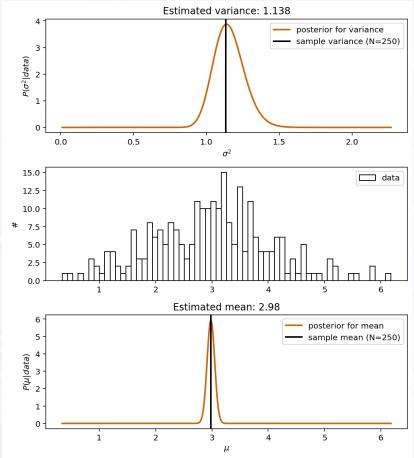




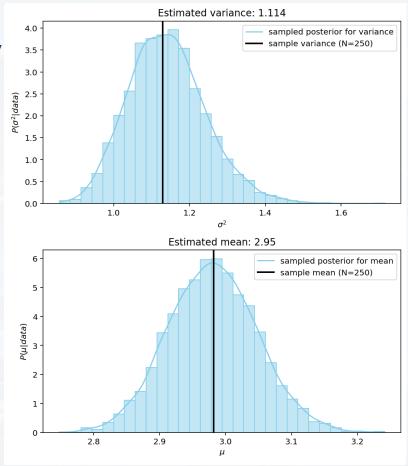
note: - Gibbs sampling does not guarantee to find a global solution!

- circular dependencies: has to be ergodic, otherwise interruption if $q_i(Z_i|\{Z_{j\neq i}\})=0$ for any i

Variational Bayes
Var_Bayes_Example.py

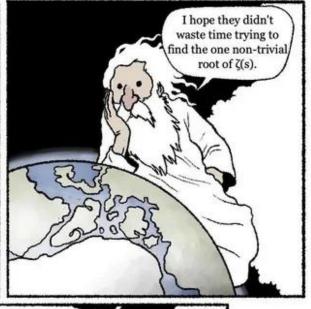


Gibbs Sampling
Gibbs NormGamma Example.py



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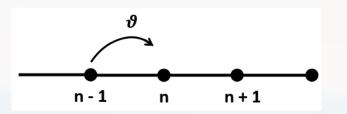
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$$\tau = -\frac{1}{\nu} ln[\rho]$$

$$w(\tau) = \vartheta e^{-\vartheta \tau}$$

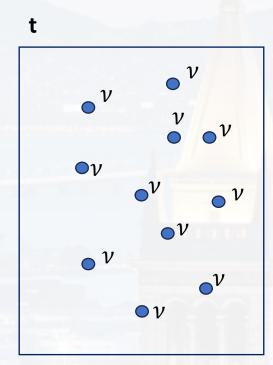
stochastic scenario: number n of particles A

$$\vartheta$$
: hopping rate ($probability/time$)

$$au$$
: waiting time

$$w(\tau)$$
: waiting time distribution

mean waiting time:
$$t^* = \frac{1}{2}$$



for t = 0 many atoms $\rightarrow \tau$ is small

 $\Delta \mathbf{t}$

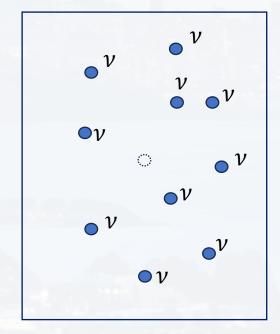
each atom has the probability ν to decay per time

logical $or \rightarrow adding$ the probabilities

$$\nu \rightarrow \nu n(t)$$

$$\Delta t = -\frac{1}{\nu \, n(t)} ln[P(0|t)$$

 $t + \Delta t$

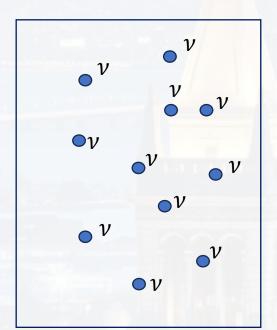


Gillespie:

- 1) draw a **random number** ρ from a **uniform distribution** in the interval (0,1)
- 2) calculate the time Δt that elapses until the next decay

$$\Delta t = -\frac{1}{\nu \, n(t)} \ln \rho$$

- 3) set $t \rightarrow t + \Delta t$ and $n(t + \Delta t) = n(t) 1$
- 4) repeat



$$\Delta t = -\frac{1}{\nu \, n(t)} ln[\rho]$$

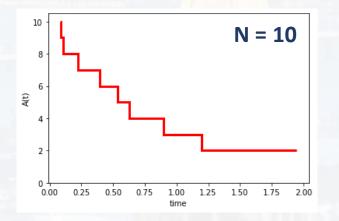


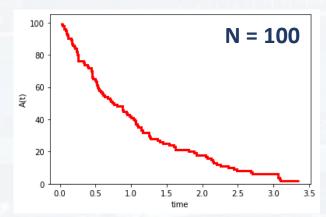
Gillespie:

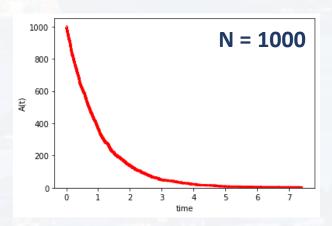
- 1) draw a **random number** ρ from a **uniform distribution** in the interval (0,1)
- 2) calculate the time Δt that elapses until the next decay

$$\Delta t = -\frac{1}{\nu \, n(t)} \ln \rho$$

- 3) set $t \rightarrow t + \Delta t$ and $n(t + \Delta t) = n(t) 1$
- 4) repeat







see Decay.py



number of particles of A n: number of particles of B m:

different states n:

ϑ: hopping rate (*probability/time*)

waiting time au:

 $w(\tau)$: waiting time distribution

$$\nu(A) \rightarrow \nu_+ n(t)$$
 $\nu(B) \rightarrow \nu_- m(t)$

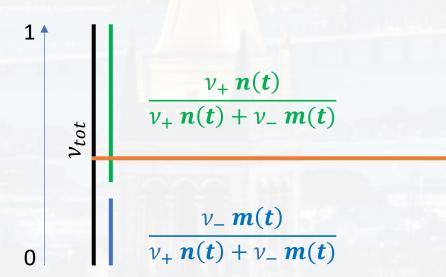
$$\nu(B) \rightarrow \nu_- m(t)$$

$$v_{tot} = v(A) + v(B) = v_{+} n(t) + v_{-} m(t)$$

$$\Delta t = -\frac{1}{\nu_+ n(t) + \nu_- m(t)} ln[\rho]$$

time that elapses until a reaction to occurs

next: deciding which reaction should occur



depending into which fraction this random number falls → this reaction occurs

generating a random number from a uniform distribution in the interval (0, 1)

4	$\stackrel{k_+}{\rightarrow}$	В
4	$\overset{\longleftarrow}{k_{-}}$	D

n: number of particles of A m: number of particles of B

different states

 ϑ : ho

 ${\it hopping\ rate\ } (probability/time)$

au: waiting time

n:

 $w(\tau)$:

waiting time distribution

Gillespie:

1) draw a random number ρ_1 from a uniform distribution in the interval (0,1)

2) calculate the time Δt that elapses until the next reaction

$$\Delta t = -\frac{1}{\nu_+ n(t) + \nu_- m(t)} \ln \rho_1$$

3) draw a second random number ρ_2 from a uniform distribution in the interval (0,1)

4) decide which reaction occurs:

if
$$\rho_2 < \frac{\nu_+ \, n(t)}{\nu_+ \, n(t) + \nu_- \, m(t)}$$
:

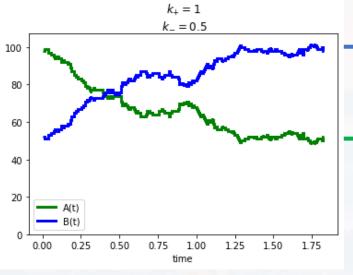
reaction A → B is more likely

$$n(t + \Delta t) = n(t) - 1$$

$$m(t + \Delta t) = m(t) + 1$$

else:

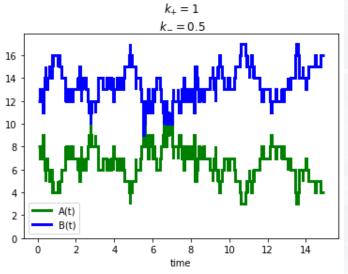
reaction B \rightarrow A is more likely $n(t + \Delta t) = n(t) + 1$ $m(t + \Delta t) = m(t) - 1$

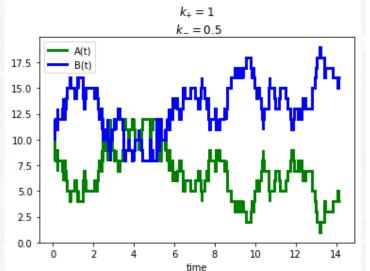


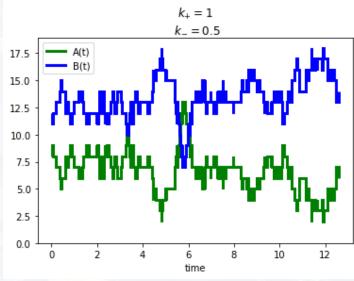
equilibrium at

$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{k_{-}}{k+}$$



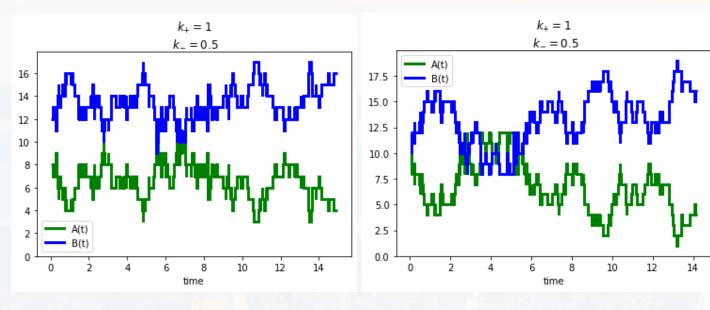


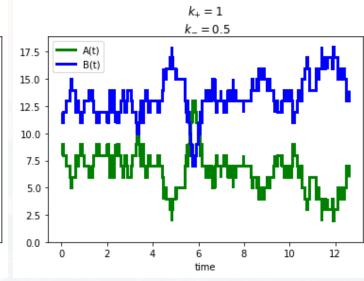


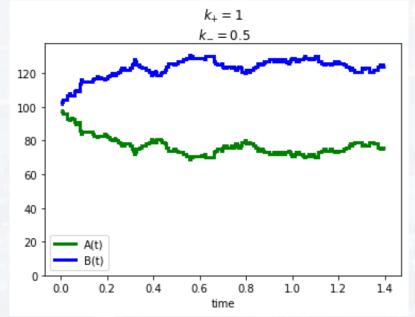




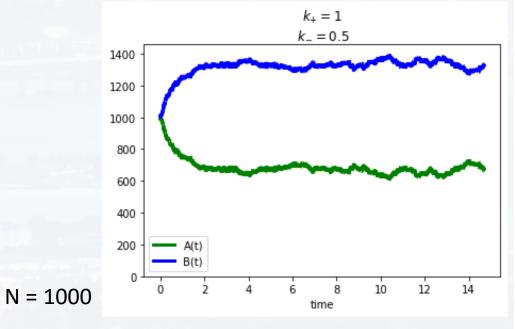


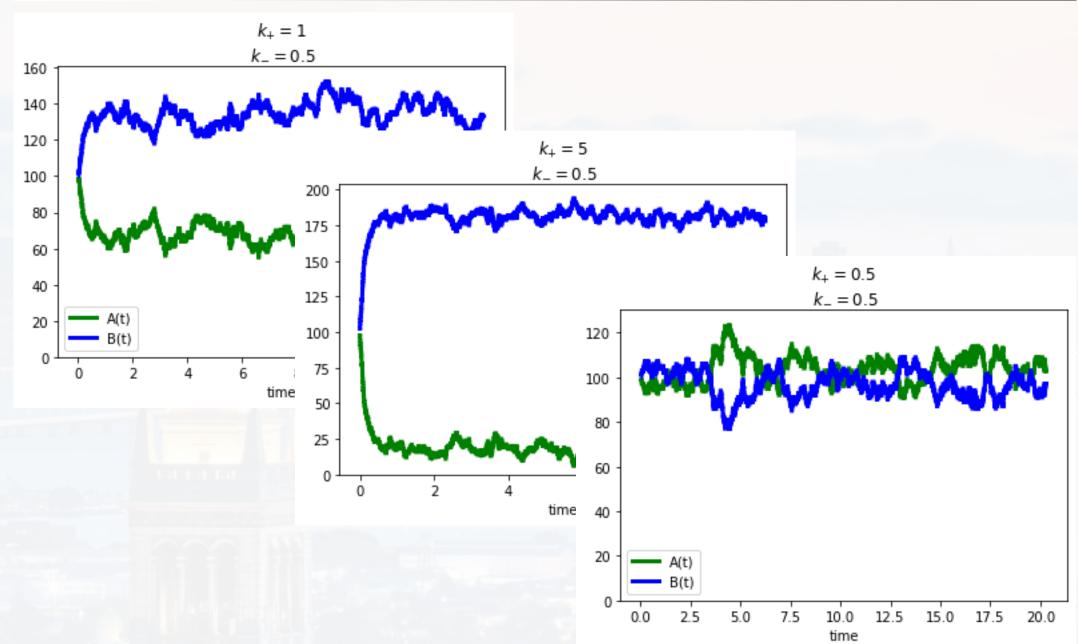














We also know how to solve the Predator-Prey model now!

L: sheep (lambs)

wolfs

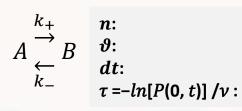
E: "empty"

W:

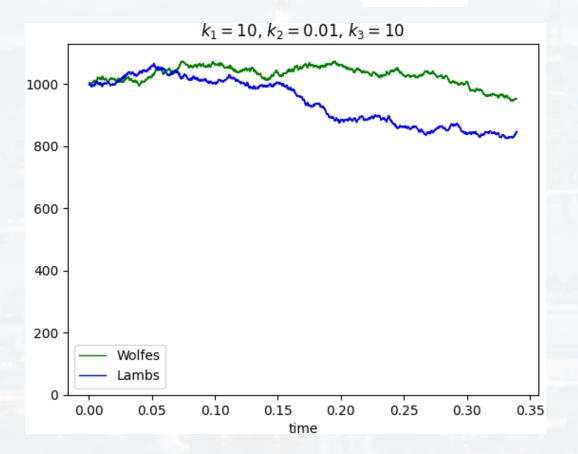
$$L\stackrel{k_1}{\longrightarrow} 2\,L$$

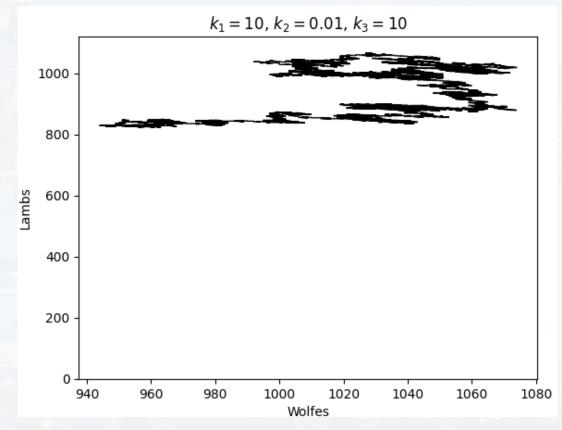
$$L+W\stackrel{k_2}{\longrightarrow} 2\,W$$

$$W \stackrel{k_3}{\longrightarrow} \Phi$$



different states hopping rate time increment waiting time







We also know how to solve the Predator-Prey model now!

L: sheep (lambs)

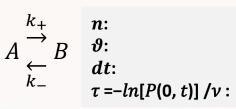
W: wolfs

E: "empty"

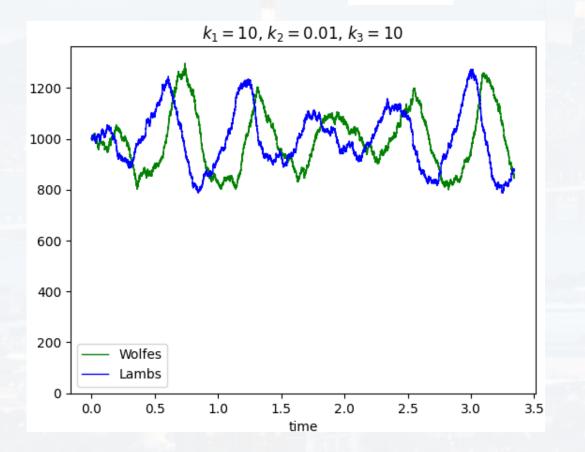
$$L\stackrel{k_1}{\longrightarrow} 2\,L$$

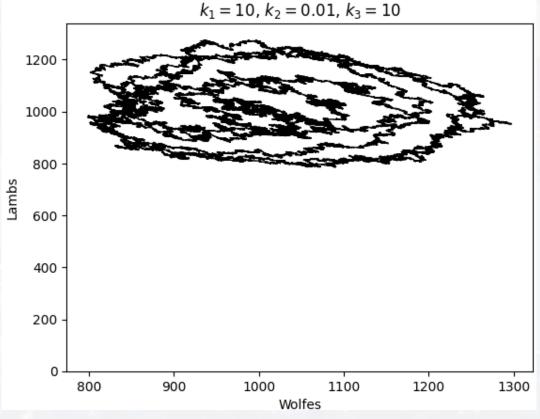
$$L+W\stackrel{k_2}{\longrightarrow} 2\,W$$

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different states hopping rate time increment waiting time







We also know how to solve the Predator-Prey model now!

sheep (lambs) L:

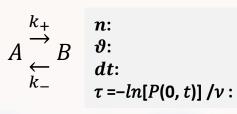
W: wolfs

"empty" E:

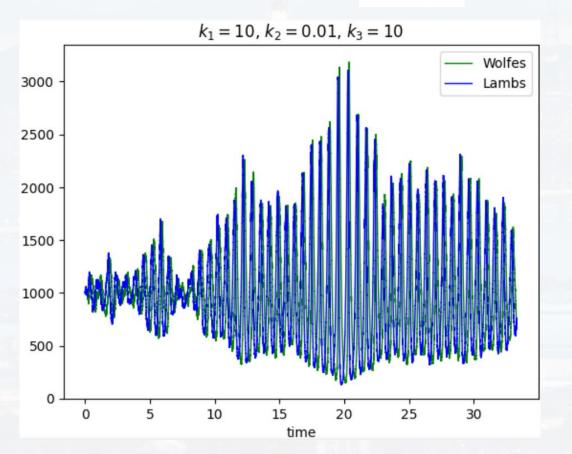
$$L\stackrel{k_1}{\longrightarrow} 2\,L$$

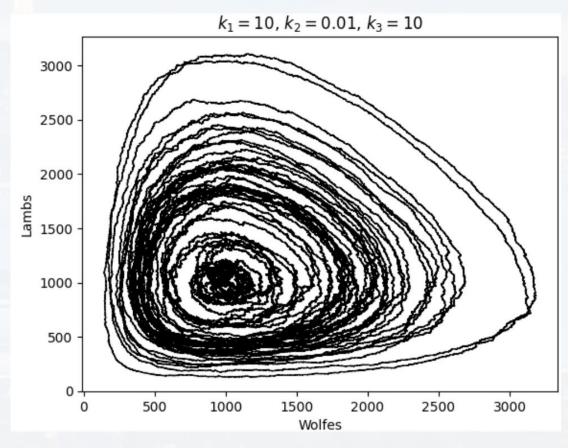
$$L+W\stackrel{k_2}{\longrightarrow} 2\,W$$

$$W \stackrel{k_3}{\longrightarrow} \Phi$$



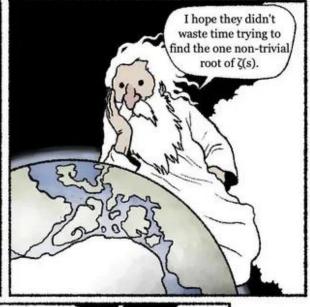
different states hopping rate time increment waiting time





CHECKING IN







<u>Outline</u>

Basic Idea & Finding Pi

Mapping Distributions & Gibbs Sampling

Gillespie Algorithm

Metropolis (- Hastings) Algorithm

Bootstrapping



Berkeley Monte Carlo Methods

problem: sometimes we need to draw from a probability distribution (= target) that is

difficult to sample from directly

idea: drawing from a proposal distribution

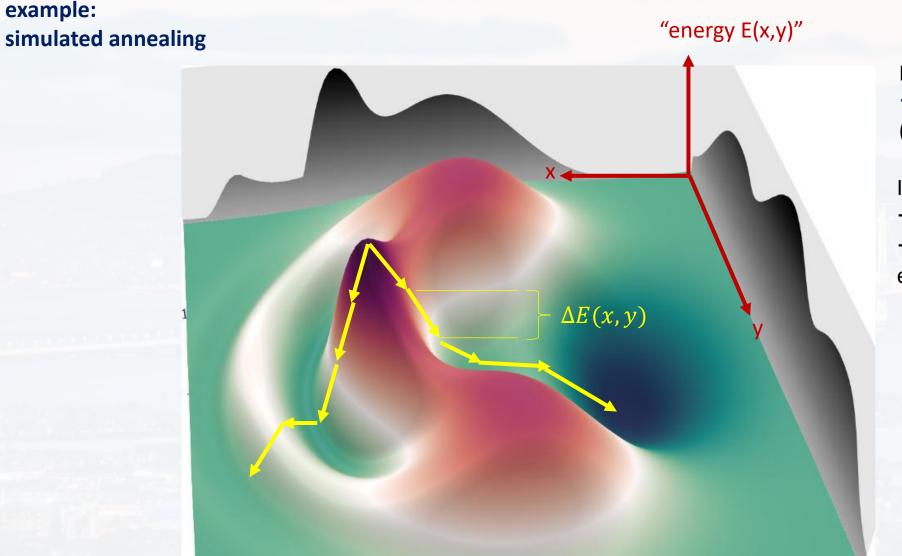
accept/reject the proposal based on an acceptance probability

application: in Physics: often energy-based models

sampling from $p_i(x|\vartheta) \sim exp\{-E(x,\vartheta)\}$

essentially samples the partition function ${\mathcal Z}$





If $\Delta E(x, y)$ is **negative**:

→ always move

(a ball always rolls down the hill)

If $\Delta E(x, y)$ is **positive**:

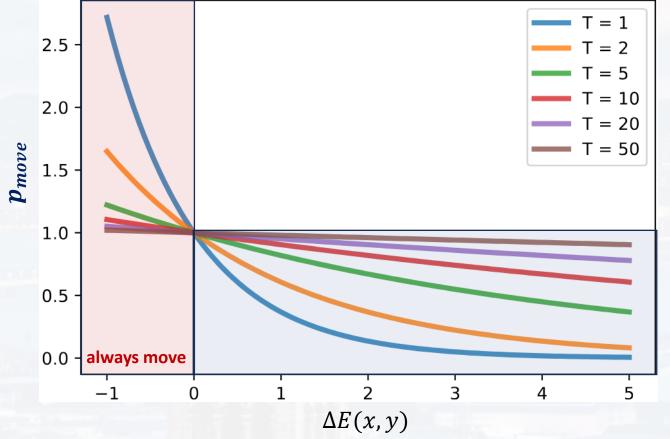
- → calculate the **probability to move**
- → leaves some chance to escape local minimum

T: temperature

Boltzmann factor

$$p_{move} \sim \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta E(x,y)}{T}\right]$$

example: simulated annealing



slowly reducing T \rightarrow making larger jumps ($\Delta E(x, y)$) less likely over time

If $\Delta E(x, y)$ is **negative**:

→ always move

(a ball always rolls down the hill)

If $\Delta E(x, y)$ is **positive**:

- → calculate the **probability to move**
- → leaves some chance to escape local minimum

T: temperature

Boltzmann factor

$$p_{move} \sim \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta E(x,y)}{T}\right]$$



Metropolis:

- 1) suggest a random move $\Delta \vec{r}$
- 2) calculate $\Delta E = E(\vec{r}) E(\vec{r} + \Delta \vec{r})$
- 3) move or not:
 - a) move if $\Delta E < 0$
 - b) if $\Delta E > 0$
 - draw a **random number** $oldsymbol{
 ho}$ from a **uniform distribution** in the interval $(\mathbf{0},\mathbf{1})$
 - move if $\rho < \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta E}{T}\right]$
- 4) reduce *T* and repeat



Metropolis: 1) suggest a random move $\Delta \vec{r}$

2) calculate $\Delta E = E(\vec{r}) - E(\vec{r} + \Delta \vec{r})$

3) move or not:

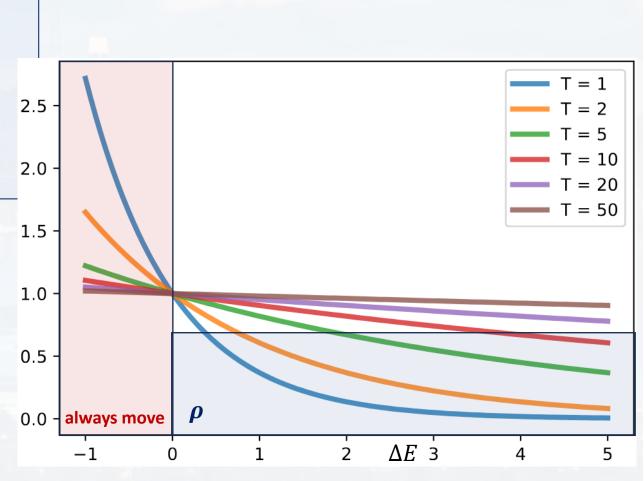
a) move if $\Delta E < 0$

b) if $\Delta E > 0$

- draw a random number ho from a uniform distribution in the interval (0,1)

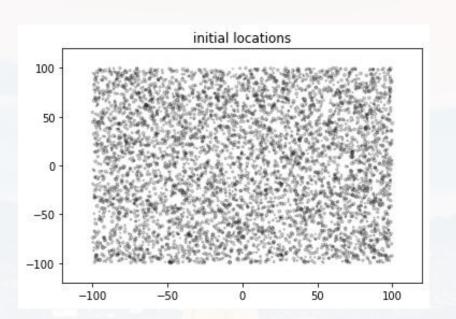
- move if $ho < \exp\left[-rac{\Delta E}{T}
ight]$

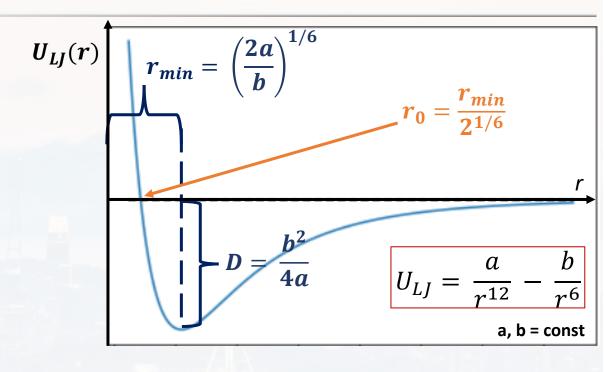
4) reduce T and repeat





example: alternative to finite differences





simulating many particles

Naïve solution: solving Newton's equation of motion

$$x_{t+\Delta t} = x_t + v(x)_t \cdot \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} a(x)_t \Delta t^2$$

$$y_{t+\Delta t} = y_t + v(y)_t \cdot \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} a(y)_t \Delta t^2$$

total force/potential that acts on the particle

$$a(x) = \frac{F(x)_{tot}}{m} = \frac{1}{m} \frac{\partial U_{tot}(x, y)_{LJ}}{\partial x}$$

$$a(y) = \frac{F(y)_{tot}}{m} = \frac{1}{m} \frac{\partial U_{tot}(x, y)_{LJ}}{\partial y}$$

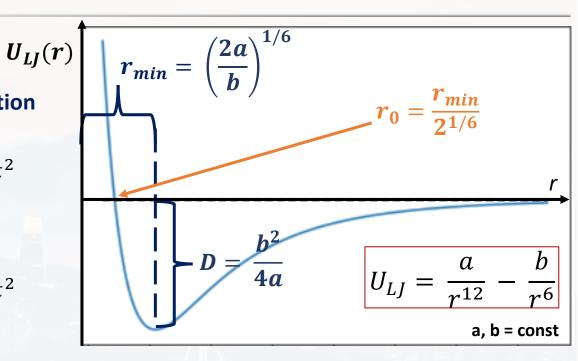


example: alternative to finite differences

Naïve solution: solving **Newton's equation of motion**

$$x_{t+\Delta t} = \left. x_t + v(x)_t \cdot \Delta t + \frac{1}{2m} \frac{\partial U_{tot}(x, y)_{LJ}}{\partial x} \right|_t \Delta t^2$$

$$y_{t+\Delta t} = y_t + v(y)_t \cdot \Delta t + \frac{1}{2m} \frac{\partial U_{tot}(x, y)_{LJ}}{\partial y} \bigg|_t \Delta t^2$$



We pick a specific value for Δt and update locations, velocities and acceleration

for particles with $r \approx r_0$:

$$-\frac{\partial U(x,y)_{LJ}}{\partial y}$$
 or $\frac{\partial U(x,y)_{LJ}}{\partial x}$ explode

- particles get kicked out
- wouldn't have gotten so close in the first place \rightarrow Δt too large

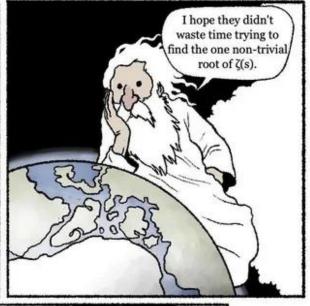
for particles with $r\gg r_0$:

$$-\frac{\partial U(x,y)_{LJ}}{\partial y} \text{ or } \frac{\partial U(x,y)_{LJ}}{\partial x} \approx 0$$

- nothing happens, very inefficient $\rightarrow \Delta t$ too small

CHECKING IN







<u>Outline</u>

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Mapping Distributions & Gibbs Sampling

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Metropolis (- Hastings) Algorithm

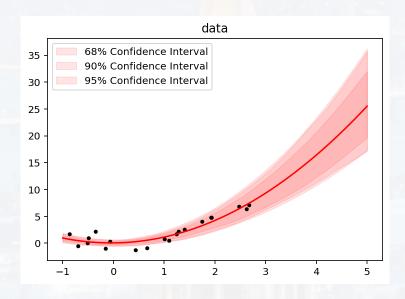
Bootstrapping

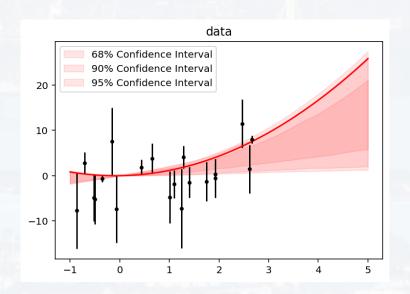


problem: sometimes datapoints x_i don't have error bars

 \rightarrow sampling from x_i in order to estimate **confidence intervals** idea: $x_i | model \sim ?$

> if x_i have error bars σ_i , usually sampling from normal distribution $x_i | \sigma \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{x}_i, \sigma_i^2)$





```
Physics 77/88
```

```
from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
def fun_to_fit(x, a, b, c):
        return a*x**2 + b*x + c
ValsBest, Cov = curve_fit(fun_to_fit, x, y)
```

Berkeley Monte Carlo Methods

Physics 77/88

```
from scipy.optimize import curve_fit

def fun_to_fit(x, a, b, c):
    return a*x**2 + b*x + c

ValsBest, Cov = curve_fit(fun_to_fit, x, y)
```

bootstrapping:

if no errors of y_i known

- \rightarrow assuming that fitted parameters follow a **normal distribution**, i.e. $a=1.37\pm0.39$ where $\mu_a=1.37$ and $\sigma_a=0.39$ and so on...
- \rightarrow varying the parameters within their errors using np.random.normal(μ_a , σ_a , N) N times
- → for each N, generating a curve fit
- → from set of N curve fits → calculating percentiles for confidence band/ interval

Berkeley Monte Carlo Methods

Physics 77/88

```
from scipy.optimize import curve_fit

def fun_to_fit(x, a, b, c):
    return a*x**2 + b*x + c

ValsBest, Cov = curve_fit(fun_to_fit, x, y)
```

bootstrapping:

if errors of y_i known

- \rightarrow assuming that errors of y_i follow a normal distribution, i.e. $y_i(boot) = y_i \pm \sigma_i$
- \rightarrow varying all y_i within their errors using np.random.normal (y_i, σ_i, N) N times
- → for each N, generating a curve fit
- → from set of N curve fits → calculating percentiles for confidence band/ interval

Berkeley Monte Carlo Methods

bootstrapping

ConfidenceInterval.py



```
USAGE:
····generating·a·test·sample:
\cdots \times \cdots = -np.linspace(-1,3,20)
\cdotserr\cdots=·np.random.normal(0,·1,·(len(x),))#1sigma·errorbars
····errorbars·=·abs(err)
····1) · plotting · data
\cdots F1 = FitData(x, y)
\cdots F2 = FitData(x, y, errorbars)
····F3·=·FitData(x,·y,·errorbars,·time·=·'[s]',·pressure·=·'[MPa]')
\cdots 2) · fitting · data · (returns · best · values · of · fitted · params, · 1sigma · confidence · and
    ·····reduced·chi2·if·errorbars·given, ·MSE·else)
\cdotsres1 \cdots = F1.Fit()
····res2··=·F2.Fit()
····res2··=·F3.Fit()
\cdotsres12·=·F1.Fit("a*x**2",·[1],·(-0.5,·10))
····3)·Bootstrapping·(either·varying·within·errorbars·or·within·conf·of·fitted
       ····params)
····F1.RunBootStrap()
····F2.RunBootStrap()
····F3.RunBootStrap()
\cdotsF1.RunBootStrap(100, \cdot[90, \cdot95], \cdotnp.linspace(-1,5,200))
\cdotsF3. RunBootStrap(100, \cdot[90, \cdot95], \cdotnp. linspace(-1, 5, 200))
```

Thank you very much for your attention!

