

# STAT5003

Week 10 : Monte Carlo

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Goal



## Readings

- Easily accessible text in Shonkwiler and Mendivil (2009)

# Monte Carlo Methods



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# What are Monte Carlo methods?

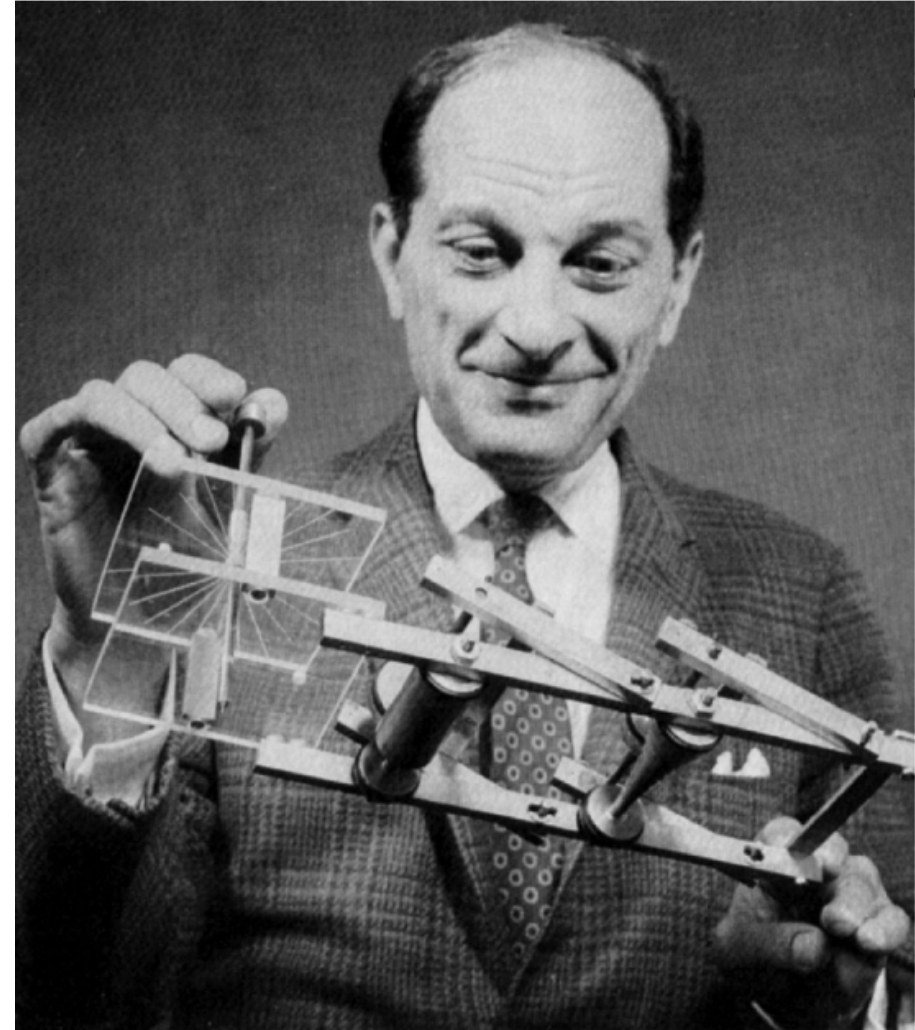
- Monte Carlo are a class of computational methods that can be applied to a wide range of problems
- Key aspect of Monte Carlo methods are that they rely on **random sampling**
- Generally provide approximate solutions
  - not exact solutions
- Used in cases where analytic solutions don't exist or are too difficult to implement
- Monte Carlo methods are sometimes referred to as stochastic simulation

# History of the Monte Carlo method

- Invented by a Polish mathematician called Stanislaw Ulam in the late 1940s
- Inspiration during recovery from illness with a thought experiment:

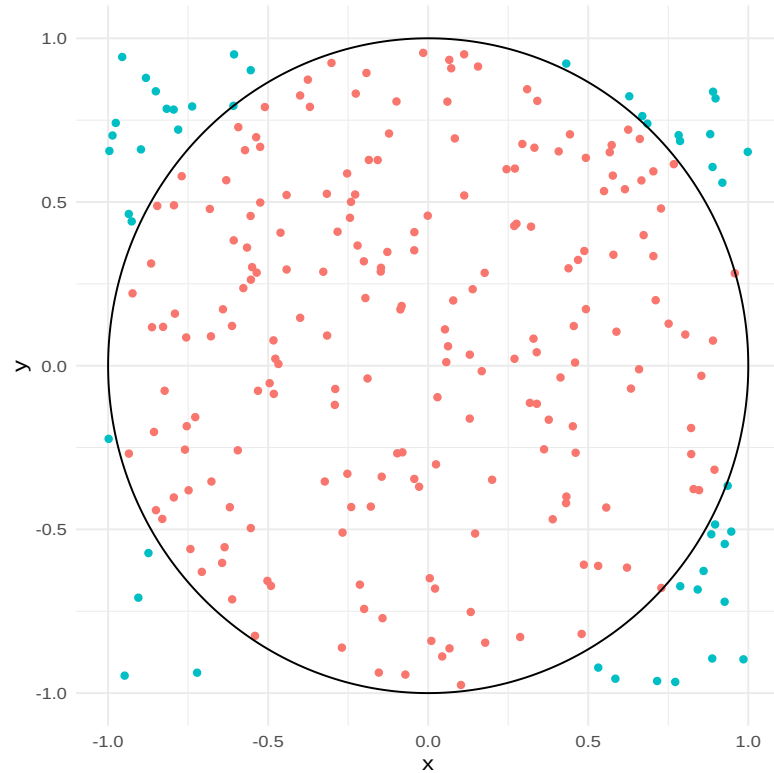
The question was what are the chances that a Canfield Solitaire laid out with 52 cards will come out successfully? After spending a lot of time trying to estimate them by pure combinatorial calculations, I wondered whether a more practical method than "abstract thinking" might not be to lay it out say one hundred times and simply observe and count the number of successful plays.

- Monte Carlo was the code name given for the project.
  - Inspired by the Monte Carlo casino in Monaco where Ulam's uncle would borrow family money to gamble.



# Monte Carlo estimation of $\pi$

```
## Warning: Using the `size` aesthetic in this geom was deprecated in ggplot2 3.4.0.  
## i Please use `linewidth` in the `default_aes` field and elsewhere instead.
```



- Area of circle =  $\pi r^2$  and area of square =  $4r^2$ 
  - ( $r$  is the radius)

- A Monte Carlo method to estimate  $\pi$ :

1. Randomly draw  $N$  points within unit square at random
2. Count the  $R$  points which are inside the unit circle
3. Compute the ratio  $R/N$  and estimate  $\pi$  as  $4R/N$

# Using Monte Carlo to estimate $\pi$

In this example, the mathematical statistics of the procedure is:

- Write the parameter we want to estimate ( $\pi$  here) as an expectation
- Represent the parameter as a sample approximation

$$\mathbb{E}X = \int t f(t) dt \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$$

- The law of large numbers **guarantees** that as the number of samples we draw increase, the parameter converges to the true parameter value.

# Expectation of a random variable

From last slide, we can write the expected value of a random variable  $X$  as a sum:

$$\mathbb{E}X = \int_A t \cdot f(t) dt \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$$

We can replace  $X$  with a function  $g(X)$ . Then the previous equation becomes:

$$\mathbb{E}g(X) = \int_A g(t) \cdot f(t) dt \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N g(X_i)$$

Where we assume to draw  $x_i \sim f$



# Monte Carlo Integration example

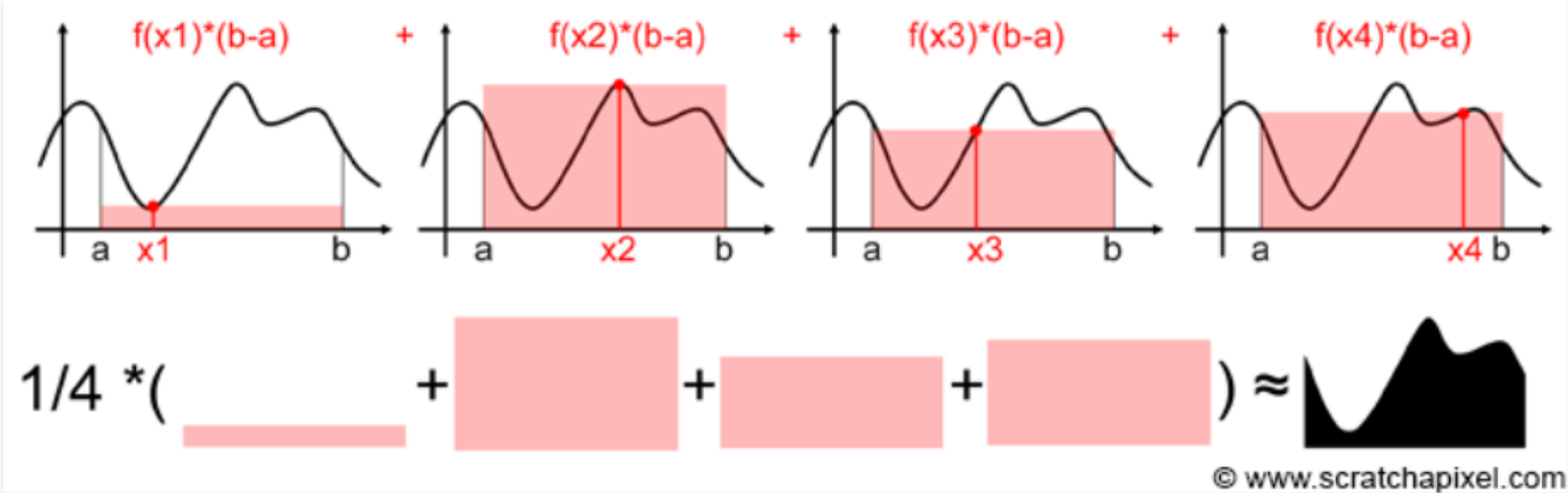
Goal is to evaluate the following definite integral

$$\int_0^1 e^{-x^2/2} dx (\approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N g(X_i)).$$

Find a random variable such that the above holds. Need to be careful such that,

- Domain of the random variable and  $g$  agree with the above definition.
- One example is,
  - $g(x) = e^{-x^2/2}$
  - $X_i$  is a uniform random variable on  $(0,1)$
  - Then  $\mathbb{E}g(X) = \int_0^1 e^{-x^2/2} dx \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n g(X_i)$

# Monte Carlo visually



# Simulating random variable

- Let's say we know how to simulate random variables that has a uniform distribution on some interval  $U \sim [0, 1]$ 
  - Can do that in R with `runif`

How do we simulate random variables that can have any probability distribution?

In R, we can draw random Gaussian variables using the function `rnorm` but how do these functions really work?

Two methods (others exist):

1. Inverse-transform method
2. Acceptance-rejection method

# Inverse transform method

- Let's say  $X$  is a random variable that has a cumulative distribution function (cdf)  $F$ .
- Remember that cdf is the integral of the pdf i.e.

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt$$

- If the inverse of  $F(x)$  exists, then we can generate  $X$  as:

$$X = F^{-1}(U)$$

## Example - Exponential distribution

The exponential distribution has a pdf of the form:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

and a cdf of the form:

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\lambda x} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

The inverse cdf is:

$$F^{-1}(x) = -\frac{\log(1-x)}{\lambda}$$

To sample from the exponential distribution, we can do the following:

1. Sample  $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$
2. Set  $X = -\frac{\log(1-U)}{\lambda}$

# Acceptance-Rejection method

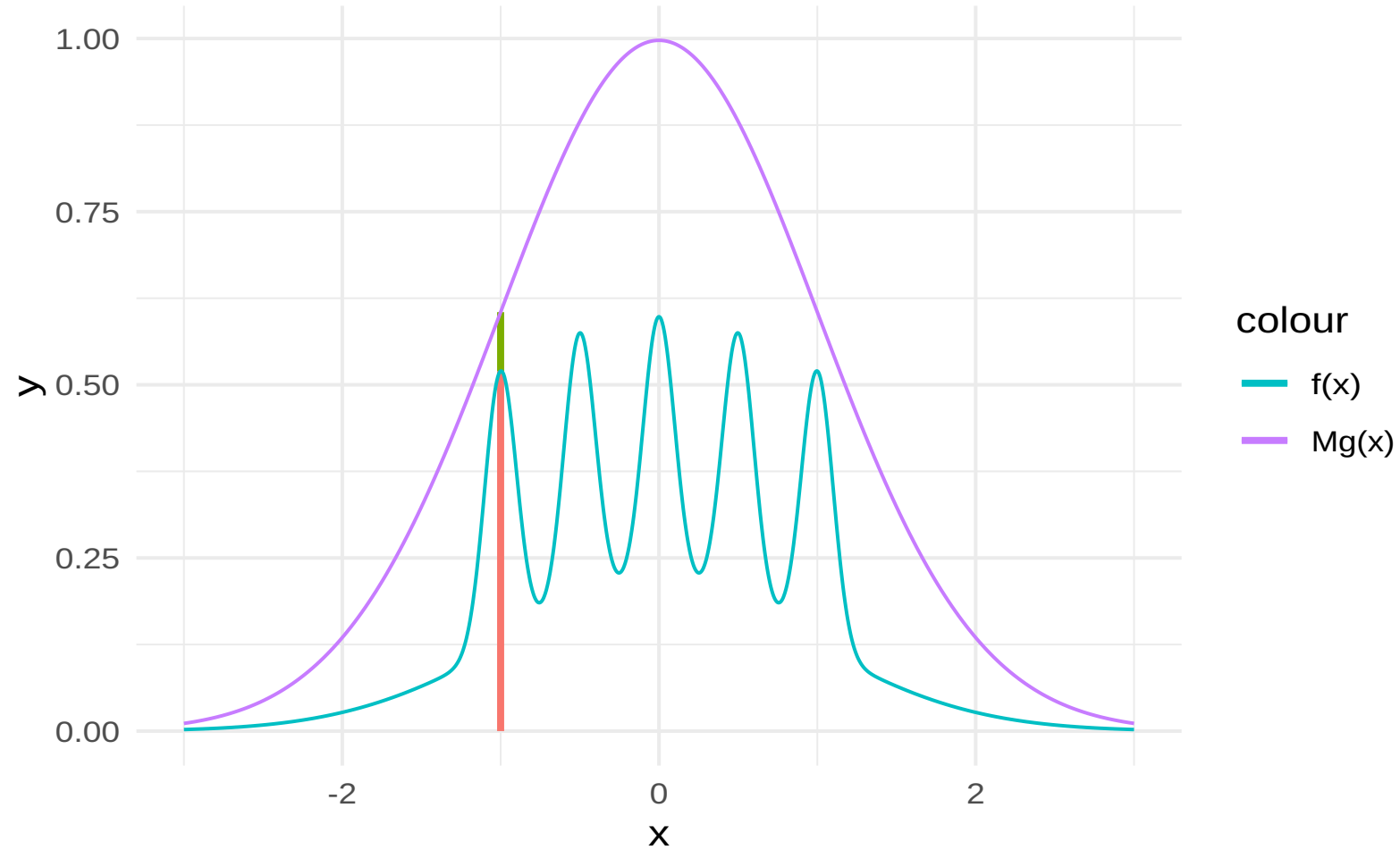
- The problem with the inverse transform method is that you need to know the functional form of the inverse of the cdf
- Acceptance-rejection method is a more general method can simulate 'difficult' distributions

# Acceptance rejection method

- Given two probability densities  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$ , with  $f(x) < Mg(x)$  for all  $x$
- If  $g(x)$  is a distribution that can be easily sampled, then we can sample  $f(x)$  using the following procedure:
  1. Draw a random variable  $X \sim g(x)$
  2. Accept  $X$  with probability  $\frac{f(x)}{Mg(x)}$
  3. Repeat steps 1 and 2 until you have the desired number of random samples

# Acceptance-rejection plot

```
## Warning: Using `size` aesthetic for lines was deprecated in ggplot2 3.4.0.  
## i Please use `linewidth` instead.
```





# Problems with the Acceptance-rejection method

- The envelop distribution  $g(x)$  needs to closely resemble  $f(x)$  for this method to work well
- If  $g(x)$  does not match  $f(x)$  well,
  - the method will draw a lot of unwanted samples hence is not very efficient
  - becomes very problematic when the data is high-dimensional.
  - Even at dimensions of  $\sim 10$ , this method become very inefficient – i.e. you need to draw lots of samples before one sample is accepted

# Monte Carlo simulation examples



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# Collecting Coles or Woolworths kids toys

- Collect one little shop when you spend \$30
- How many \$30 shops do I need to collect all 30 items?



# Theoretical aspect (before we see the Monte Carlo)

Expected number of shops you need to do:

$$\mathbb{E}T = n \left( \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \right) \approx n \log n + 0.5772n + 0.5$$

n = 30

- where,  $T$  is the time to collect all items,  $n$  is the number of items to collect

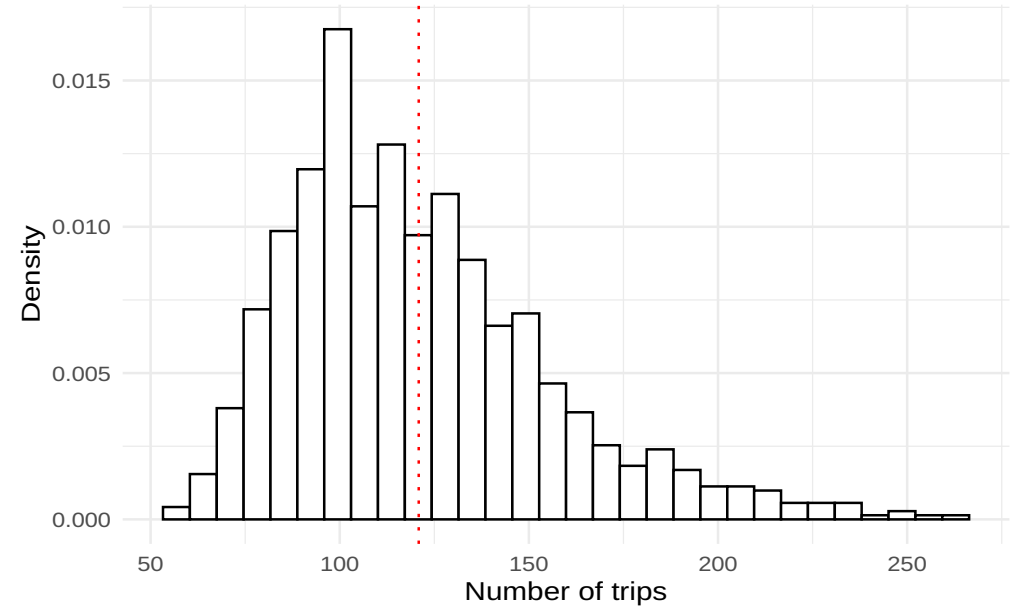
So, for a Coles little shop would expect,  $\mathbb{E}(T) \approx 120$

# Monte Carlo simulation of Cole's little shop

```
n.shops.sim <- c()
for(i in 1:1000) {
  collected <- c()
  n.shops <- 0
  while(length(collected) < 30) {
    newitem <- sample(30,1)
    collected <- union(collected, newitem)
    n.shops <- n.shops + 1
  }
  n.shops.sim <- c(n.shops.sim, n.shops)
}
mean.sim <- mean(n.shops.sim)
ggplot(data.frame(x = n.shops.sim)) +
  theme_minimal() +
  geom_histogram(aes(x = x, y = ..density..),
    colour = "black",
    fill = "white") +
  labs(x = "Number of trips", y = "Density") +
  geom_vline(xintercept = mean.sim,
    linetype = "dotted",
    colour = "red")
```

## Warning: The dot-dot notation (`..density..`) was deprecated in ggplot2 3.4.0.

## i Please use `after\_stat(density)` instead.



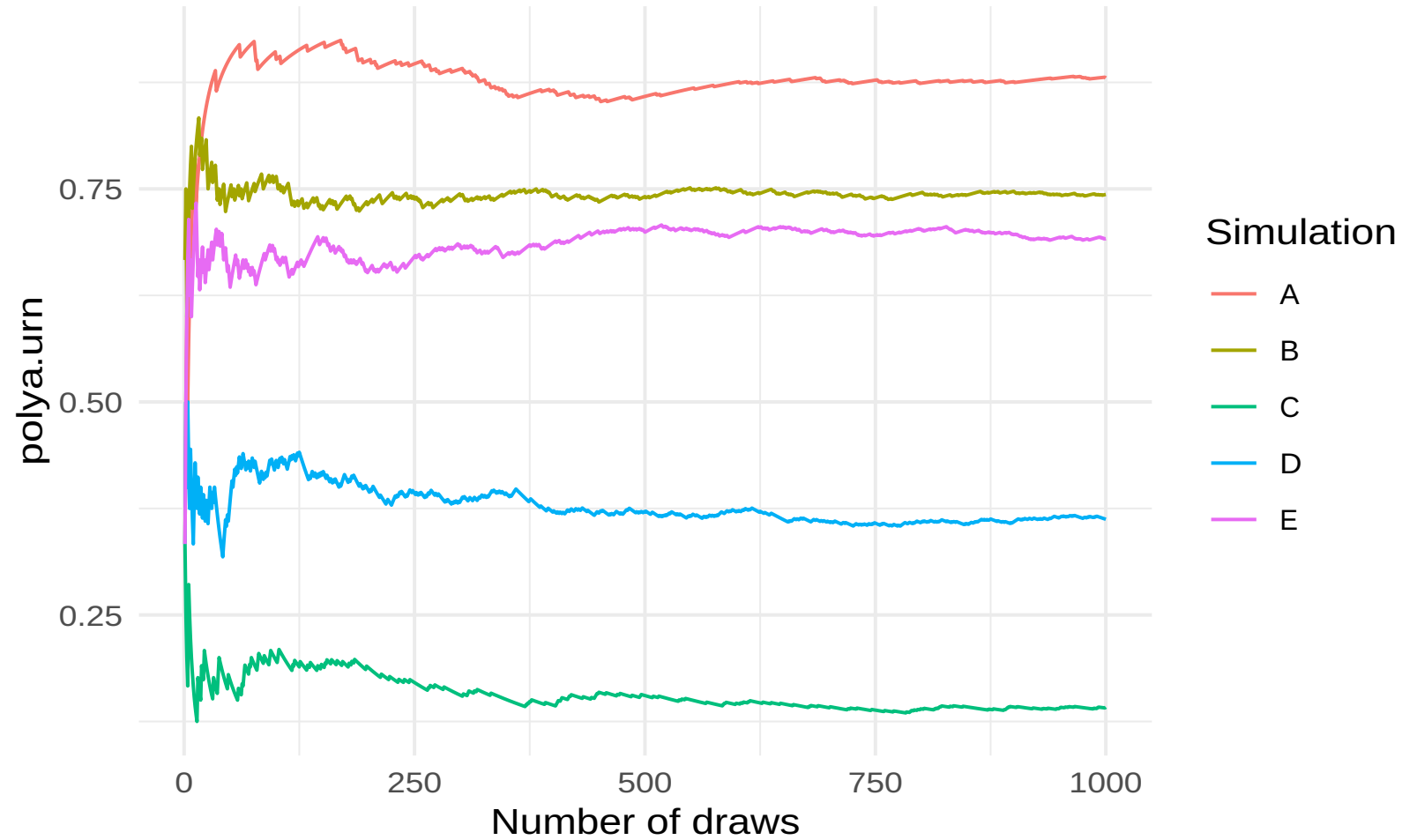
# Polya urn problem

- Let an urn start with 1 black ball and 1 white ball.
- Repeatedly draw a single ball from the urn
- Each time a ball is drawn
  - you put back that ball plus one extra ball of the same colour back into the urn.

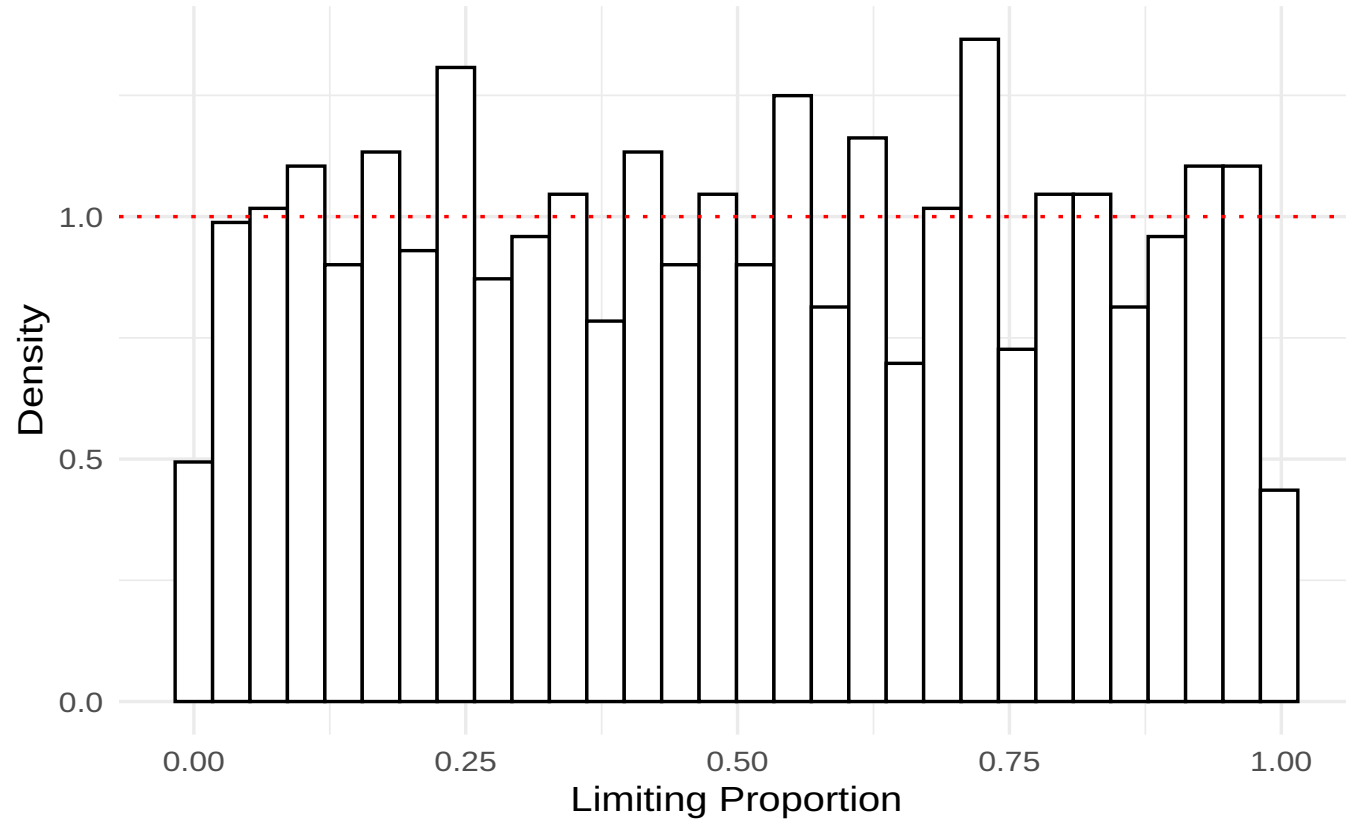
After 1000 draws, how many balls of each colour do you expect to be in the urn?

- This is an example of using Monte Carlo to simulate a process

# Monte Carlo simulation of the Polya urn problem



## Asymptotic Uniform distribution of the proportion of black balls



- In the limit the distribution is  $U(0, 1)$



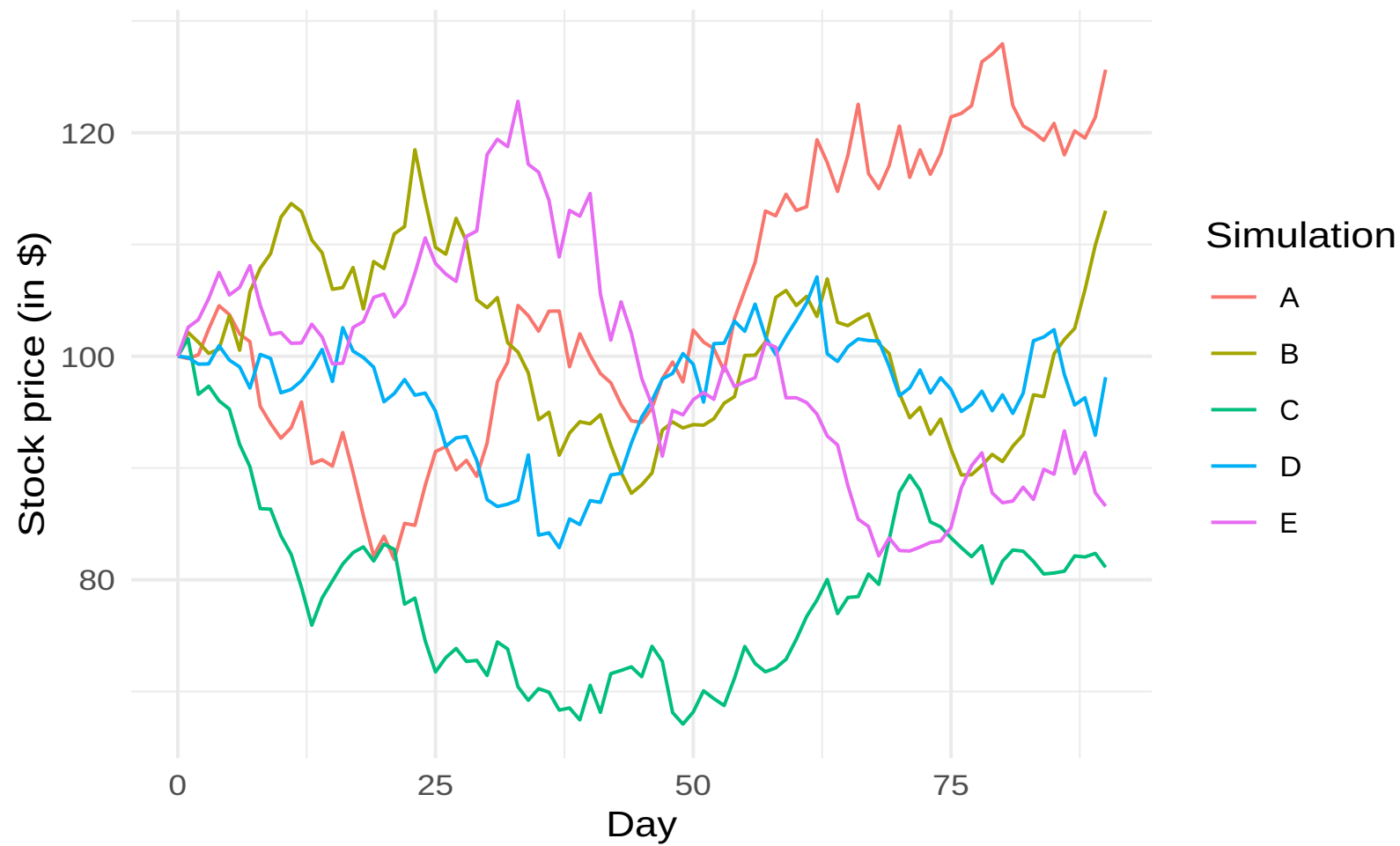
# Simulate stock price as a random (stochastic) model

Equation for the future price  $S$  of a stock:

$$dS = S(\mu dT + \sigma \sqrt{dT} \mathcal{N})$$

- $\mu$  is the growth rate of the stock price
- $\sigma$  is known as the volatility.
  - Think of this as the variance of the stock price
- $\mathcal{N}$  is a normal random variable
- $dT$  is one unit of time

# Examples of a stock price



# Options

A **call** option gives you the right to buy a stock at a particular price at expiry

E.g. 90 day call option with \$105 strike. Let's say your stock is currently priced at \$100, if it hits \$108 at day 90, then you can exercise the option and make a \$3 profit. If its price is below \$105 at day 90, then you make nothing.

A **put** option gives you the right to sell a stock at a particular price at expiry

# Option pricing with Monte Carlo

- How much would you pay for a call option? Think of this as the amount of insurance premium.
- Using Monte Carlo simulation, simulate many realisations of the stock price. For each realisation, calculate the option payoff
- The price you should pay for the option is the expected value of the profit you should make

# References

Shonkwiler, R. W. and F. Mendivil (2009). *Explorations in Monte Carlo Methods*. Springer Science & Business Media.