## Independent Trials and Trial Size Computational Physics Exercise 1

Gabriel Remiszewki Rojin Aksu

25<sup>th</sup> October 2024

In this paper a stochastic method for computing  $\pi$  is introduced and analyzed. The Idea is that the area of the unit circle is given by  $\pi \approx 3.1416$  and the area of a square with a width of 2 is 4. Using this it is possible to calculate  $\pi$  by generating P two-dimensional points (from a uniform distribution) inside the square and counting how many of them also are located inside the unit circle.

The points are labeled  $\vec{r}_p = (x_p, y_p)$  with  $\vec{r}_p \in [-1, 1] \times [-1, 1]$ . By using the Iverson Bracket

$$[X] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if X is true} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We can write the formula for  $\pi_x$ , where the x stands for the experiment, as

$$\pi_x = \mathbb{E}[4[X^2 + Y^2 \le 1]] = \frac{4}{P} \sum_{p=1}^{P} [x_p^2 + y_p^2 \le 1]. \tag{1}$$

The experiment can be repeated X times, so that we get a final answer

$$\pi_{\rm f} = \frac{1}{X} \sum_{x=1}^{X} \pi_x \qquad \Delta \pi_{\rm f} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{X-1} \sum_{x=1}^{X} (\pi_{\rm f} - \pi_x)^2}.$$
(2)

## 1 One big experiment

Let  $P = 10\,000$  and X = 1. Since only one experiment is done, eq. (2) cannot be used to calculate the uncertainty. Because of that the uncertainty is defined as

$$\Delta \pi_x = 4\sqrt{\text{Var}([X^2 + Y^2 \le 1])}$$

with Var(X) being the variance of the random variable X. Letting the experiment run results in a value of

$$\pi_x = 3.1 \pm 1.7,$$
 (3)

which is considering the uncertainty of approximately 53 % close to the real value.

When doing just one experiment, the distribution of the generated points is of interest. For this the histogram of the radii  $R = \sqrt{X^2 + Y^2}$  and the squared radii are plotted in figs. 1 and 2. For the radii we can

see a linear rising distribution with a maximum at r = 1, after which the distribution drops. This drop is also visible for the squared radii, but in the region [0,1] a constant distribution is visible. The drop after r = 1 is easily explainable with the fact that points insied a  $2 \times 2$  square we generated and a circle with radius 1 is the biggest circle that fits inside. Whith this in mind the amount of points generated on the circumference of a circle with bigger radius has to get smaller. **TO BE CONTINUED** 

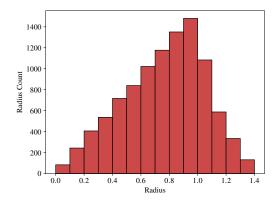


Figure 1: Histogram of radii from all the generated points of one big experiment with P = 10000.

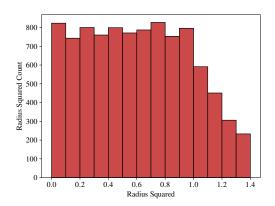


Figure 2: Histogram of the squared radii from all the generated points of one big experiment with P = 10000.

## 2 Rearranging Calculations

The number of calculations is now split into P = 100 and X = 100. In this case we get a value of

$$\pi_f = 3.15 \pm 0.16. \tag{4}$$

This value has a much smaller error (5.1%) compared to section 1. A histogram for the distribution of  $\pi_x$  is shown in fig. 4. With P = 1 and  $X = 10\,000$  we get a value of

$$\pi_f = 3.2 \pm 1.7,$$
 (5)

which is identical to the calculation from section 1.

## 3 Uncertainty Dependency of X and P

Now we focus on how the uncertainty changes as a function of X and P. The  $\pi$  values were calculated for 16 different combinations of point- and experiment count. The results are shown in table 1 with the corresponding histograms for the  $\pi_x$  distributions. It is easy to see that for a constant P the uncertainty does not change with higher X which is surprising, because it means that for a given number of generated points the  $\pi$  value cannot be made more precise with higher experiment count. The uncertainties for every

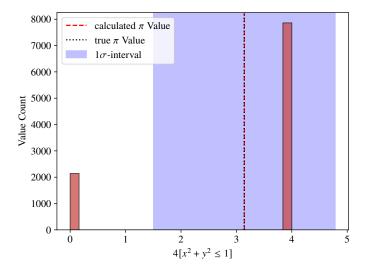


Figure 3: Histogram of the indicator variable  $[X^2 + Y^2 \le 1]$  for an experiment with  $P = 10\,000$ .

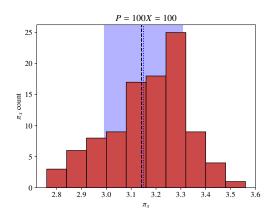


Figure 4: Histogram of calculated  $\pi$  values with P=100 and X=100.

Figure 5: Histogram of calculated  $\pi$  values with P=1 and  $X=10\,000$ .

P are shown in fig. 7. On the other hand are correlation between the uncertainty and P for constant X is visible. For the log-log plot in fig. 8 a linear function would be a good approximation and thus we can write

$$\log \operatorname{err}(P) = -n \log P + b$$

with b, n > 0. This results in the relation

$$\operatorname{err}(P) = \frac{\mathrm{e}^b}{P^n}$$

Table 1: Calcuated  $\pi$  values for different P and X.

$X \setminus P$	10	100	1000	10000
10	$3.160 \pm 0.488$	$3.208 \pm 0.156$	$3.156 \pm 0.046$	$3.144 \pm 0.018$
100	$3.100 \pm 0.608$	$3.138\pm0.161$	$3.139 \pm 0.055$	$3.142 \pm 0.016$
1000	$3.135 \pm 0.519$	$3.143 \pm 0.160$	$3.142 \pm 0.052$	$3.141\pm0.016$
10000	$3.134 \pm 0.518$	$3.140 \pm 0.164$	$3.141 \pm 0.052$	$3.142 \pm 0.016$

for the uncertainty. This function will not be fitted to the data but from visual inspections it is clear that the same relation with same parameters b and n will hold for every X.

With this information we can conclude that the most efficient way to calculate pi with a given PX is to maximize P and keep X small, although From section 1 it is known that X has to be at least bigger than 1.

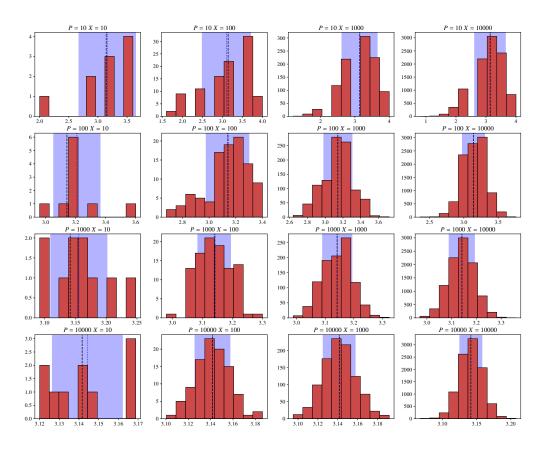


Figure 6:  $\pi_x$  distributions for different combinations of P and X.

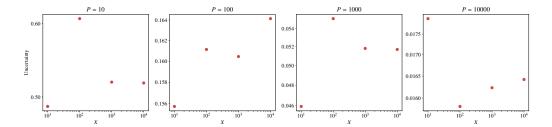


Figure 7:

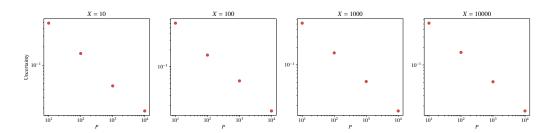


Figure 8: