蒙特卡罗方法 (Monte Carlo simulation)

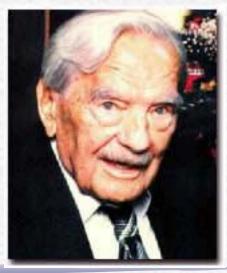
引置(Introduction)

Monte Carlo方法:

亦称统计模拟方法, statistical simulation method →利用随机数进行数值模拟的方法

Monte Carlo名字的由来:

- 是由Metropolis在二次世界大战期间提出的: Manhattan 计划,研究与原子弹有关的中子输运过程;
- Monte Carlo是摩纳哥 (monaco)的首都,该城以赌博闻名





Nicholas Metropolis (1915-1999)

Monte-Carlo, Monaco

Monte Carlo模拟的应用:

自然现象的模拟:

宇宙射线在地球大气中的传输过程;

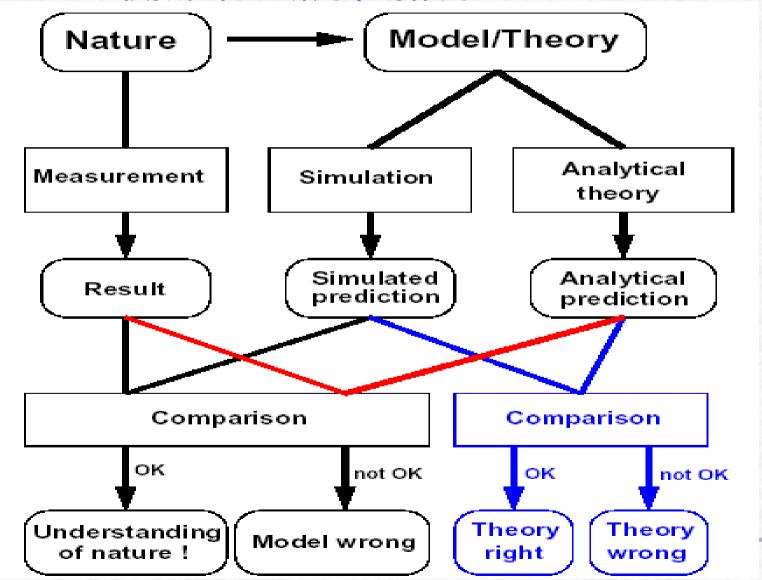
高能物理实验中的核相互作用过程;

实验探测器的模拟

数值分析:

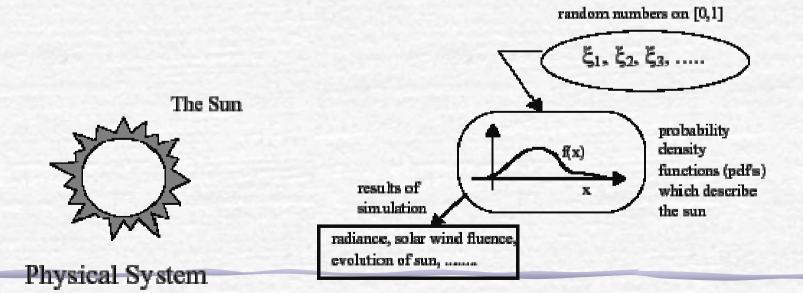
利用Monte Carlo方法求积分

Monte Carlo模拟在物理研究中的作用



Monte Carlo模拟的步骤:

- 1. 根据欲研究的物理系统的性质,建立能够描述该系统特性的理论模型,导出该模型的某些特征量的概率密度函数;
- 2. 从概率密度函数出发进行随机抽样,得到特征量的一些模拟结果;
- 3. 对模拟结果进行分析总结,预言物理系统的某些特性。



Statistical Simulation

注意以下两点:

- Monte Carlo方法与数值解法的不同:
 - ✓ Monte Carlo方法利用随机抽样的方法来求解物理问题;
 - ✓数值解法:从一个物理系统的数学模型出发,通过求解一系列的微分方程来的导出系统的未知状态;
- Monte Carlo方法并非只能用来解决包含随机的过程的问题:
 - ✓许多利用Monte Carlo方法进行求解的问题中并不包含附 机过程

例如:用Monte Carlo方法计算定积分.

对这样的问题可将其转换成相关的随机过程,然后用 Monte Carlo方法进行求解

Monte Carlo算法的主要组成部分

- ✓ 概率密度函数(pdf)— 必须给出描述一个物理系统的一组概率密度函数;
- ✓ 随机数产生器—能够产生在区间[0,1]上均匀分布的随机数
- ✓<u>抽样规则</u>—如何从在区间[0,1]上均匀分布的随机数出发,随机抽取服从给定的pdf的随机变量;
- ✓模拟结果记录—记录一些感兴趣的量的模拟结果
- ✓ 误差估计—必须确定统计误差(或方差)随模拟次数以及其它一些量的变化;
- ✓ <u>减少方差的技术</u>—利用该技术可减少模拟过程中计算的次数;
- ✓ 并行和矢量化—可以在先进的并行计算机上运行的有效算法

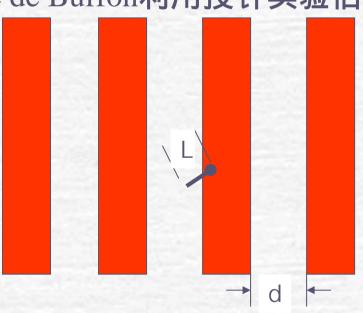
Monte Carlo方法简史

简单地介绍一下Monte Carlo方法的发展历史

1、Buffon投针实验:

1768年, 法国数学家Comte de Buffon利用投针实验估计π的值

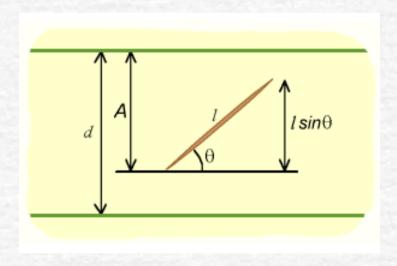




$$p = \frac{2L}{\pi d}$$

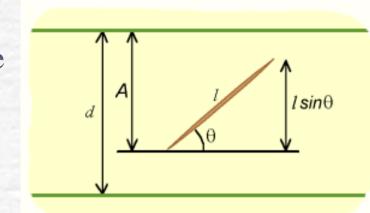
Problem of Buffon's needle:

If a needle of length l is dropped at random on the middle of a horizontal surface ruled with parallel lines a distance d>l apart, what is the probability that the needle will cross one of the lines?



Solution:

The positioning of the needle relative to nearby lines can be described with a random vector which has components:



$$A \in [0, d)$$

$$\theta \in [0,\pi)$$

 $\theta \in [0, \pi)$ The random vector is uniformly distributed on the region $[0,d) \times [0,\pi)$. Accordingly, it has probability density function $1/d\tau$

The probability that the needle will cross one of the lines is given by the integral

$$p = \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{l \sin \theta} \frac{1}{d\pi} dA d\theta = \frac{2l}{d\pi}$$

- 2、1930年, Enrico Fermi利用Monte Carlo方法研究中子的扩散,并设计了一个Monte Carlo机械装置, Fermiac,用于计算核反应堆的临界状态
- 3、Von Neumann是Monte Carlo方法的正式奠基者,他与Stanislaw Ulam合作建立了概率密度函数、反累积分布函数的数学基础,以及伪随机数产生器。在这些工作中,Stanislaw Ulam意识到了数字计算机的重要性

→合作起源于Manhattan工程:利用ENIAC(Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer)计算产额

随机数

什么是随机数?

- ▶单个的数字不是随机数
- ▶是指一个数列,其中的每一个体称为随机数,其值与数列中的其它数无关;
- ▶在一个均匀分布的随机数中,每一个体出现的概率是均等的;
 - ❖例如:在[0,1]区间上均匀分布的随机数序列中, 0.00001与0.5出现的机会均等

随机数应具有的基本特性

- > 考虑一个对高能粒子反应过程的模拟:需用随机数确定:
 - ❖出射粒子的属性:能量、方向、...
 - ❖粒子与介质的相互作用
- ▶ 对这一过程的模拟应满足以下要求(相空间产生过程):
 - ❖ 出射粒子的属性应是互不相关的,即每一粒子的属性的确定独立于其它的粒子的属性的确定;
 - ❖ 粒子的属性的分布应满足物理所要求的理论分布;
- >所模拟的物理过程要求随机数应具有下列特性:
 - ❖<u>随机数序列应是独立的、互不相关的(uncorrelated)</u>:

即序列中的任一子序列应与其它的子序列无关;

❖长的周期(long period):

实际应用中,随机数都是用数学方法计算出来的,这些算法具有周期性,即当序列达到一定长度后会重复;

❖均匀分布的随机数应满足均匀性(Uniformity):

随机数序列应是均匀的、无偏的,即:如果两个子区间的"面积"相等,则落于这两个子区间内的随机数的个数应相等。

例如:对[0,1)区间均匀分布的随机数,如果产生了足够多的随机数,而有一半的随机数落于区间[0,0.1]→不满足均匀性

如果均匀性不满足,则会出现序列中的多组随机数相 关的情况→均匀性与互不相关的特性是有联系的

❖有效性 (Efficiency):

模拟结果可靠

- →模拟产生的样本容量大
 - →所需的随机数的数量大
 - →随机数的产生必须快速、有效,最好能够进行并行计算。

线性乘同余方法

(Linear Congruential Method)

948年由Lehmer提出的一种产生伪随机数的方法,是最常用的方法

、递推公式:

$$I_{n+1} = (aI_n + c) \operatorname{mod} m$$

其中:

 I_0 : 初始值 (种子seed)

a: 乘法器 (multiplier)

c: 增值 (additive constant)

m: 模数 (modulus)

mod: 取模运算: (aI_n+c) 除以m后的余数

 $a, c \ge 0$

 $m > I_0, a, c$

a, c和m皆为整数

→产生整型的随机数序列,随机性来源于取模运算

如果c=0 \rightarrow 乘同余法:速度更快,也可产生长的随机数序列

、实型随机数序列:

$$r_{n} = \frac{I_{n}}{float (m)} \rightarrow [0,1)$$

$$r_{n} = \frac{I_{n}}{float (m-1)} \rightarrow [0,1]$$

$$I_n < m$$
$$I_n \le m - 1$$

特点:

- 1)最大容量为 $\mathbf{m}: 0 \le I_n \le m$
- 2) 独立性和均匀性取决于参数a和c的选择 例: $a=c=I_0=7$, m=10 → 7,6,9,0,7,6,9,0,...

、模数m的选择:

- m 应尽可能地大,因为序列的周期不可能大于m;
- 通常将m取为计算机所能表示的最大的整型量,在32位计算机上, $m=2^{31}=2\times10^9$

乘数因子a的选择:

1961年, M. Greenberger证明:用线性乘同余方法产生的随机数序列具有周期m的条件是:

- 1. c和m为互质数;
- 2. a-1是质数p的倍数,其中p是a-1和m的共约数;
- 3. 如果m是4的倍数, a-1也是4的倍数。

例: a=5,c=1,m=16,I0=1 → 周期=m=16 1,6,15,12,13,2,11,8,9,14,7,4,5,10,3,0,1,6,15, 12,13,2,...

Monte Carlo积分

Monte Carlo法的重要应用领域之一:计算积分和多重积分

适用于求解:

- 1. 被积函数、积分边界复杂,难以用解析方法或一般的数值方法求解;
- 2. 被积函数的具体形式未知,只知道由模拟返回的函数值。

本章内容:

用Monte Carlo法求定积分的几种方法: 均匀投点法、期望值估计法、重要抽样法、半解析 法、... Goal: Evaluate an integral:

$$I = \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx$$

Why use random methods?

Computation by "deterministic quadrature" can become expensive and inaccurate.

- grid points add up quickly in high dimensions
- bad choices of grid may misrepresent g(x)

☐ Monte Carlo method can be used to compute integral of any dimension d (d-fold integrals)

\Box Error comparison of *d*-fold integrals

Simpson's rule,...

$$E \propto N^{-1/d}$$

approximating the integral of a function f using quadratic polynomials

$$\int_{x_0}^{x} f(x)dx = \int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} f(x)dx \approx \frac{1}{3}h[f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)]$$
$$x_1 - x_0 = x_2 - x_1 = h$$

Monte Carlo method

$$E \propto N^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

 $E \propto N^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ purely statistical, not rely on the dimension!

•Monte Carlo method WINS, when d >> 3



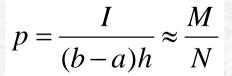
- Sample Mean Method
- Variance Reduction Technique
- Variance Reduction using Rejection Technique
- Importance Sampling Method

Evaluation of a definite integral

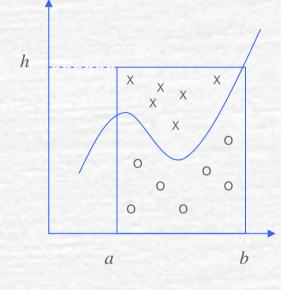
$$I = \int_{a}^{b} \rho(x) dx$$

$$h \ge \rho(x)$$
 for any x

 Probability that a random point reside inside the area



$$I \approx (b-a)h\frac{M}{N}$$



- N: Total number of points
- M : points that reside inside the region

Sample uniformly from the rectangular region [a,b]x[0,h]

The probability that we are below the curve is

$$p := \frac{I}{h(b-a)}$$

So, if we can estimate p, we can estimate I:

$$\hat{I} = \hat{p}h(b-a)$$

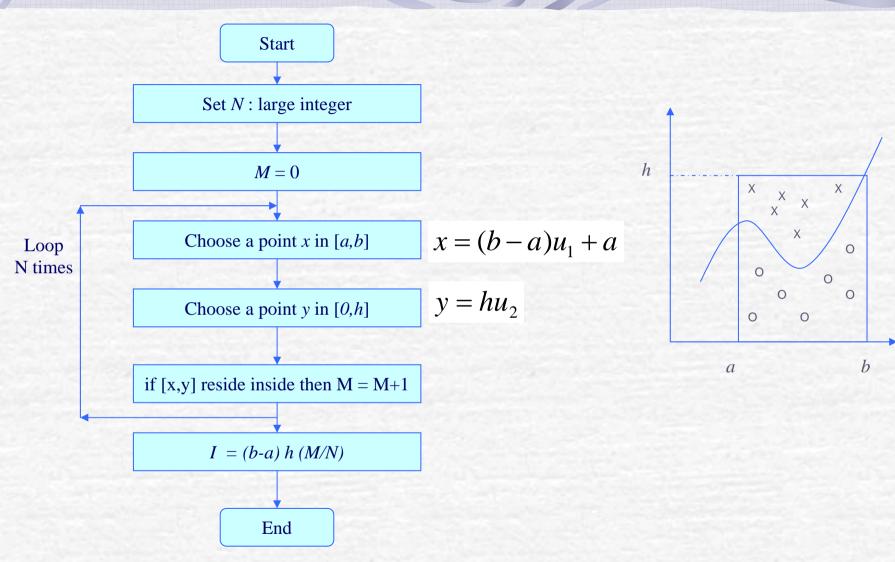
where p is our estimate of p

We can easily estimate p:

throw N "uniform darts" at the rectangle

❖ let M be the number of times you end up under the curve y=g(x)

$$•$$
 let $\hat{p} = \frac{M}{N}$



- **Error Analysis of the Hit-or-Miss Method**
 - It is important to know how accurate the result of simulations are
 - note that M is binomial(M,p)

$$E(M) = Np$$
 $\sigma^2(M) = Np(1-P)$

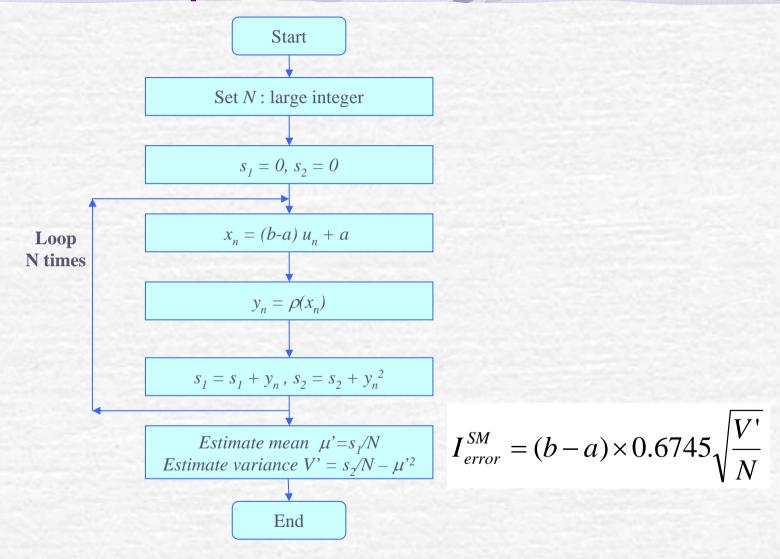
$$E(\hat{I}) = E[\hat{p}h(b-a)] = E\left[\frac{M}{N}h(b-a)\right] \qquad \sigma^{2}(\hat{I}) = \sigma^{2}[\hat{p}h(b-a)] = \sigma^{2}\left[\frac{M}{N}h(b-a)\right]$$

$$= \frac{h(b-a)}{N}E(M) = h(b-a)p = I \qquad = \frac{h^{2}(b-a)^{2}}{N^{2}}\sigma^{2}(M) = \frac{h^{2}(b-a)^{2}p(1-a)}{N}$$

$$\sigma(\hat{I}) = h(b-a)\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{N}} \propto N^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$p \approx \hat{p} = \frac{M}{N}$$

$$\sigma(\hat{I}) = \frac{h(b-a)}{N} \sqrt{M(1-\frac{M}{N})}$$



$$I = \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx$$

Write this as:

$$I = \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx = (b-a) \int_{a}^{b} g(x) \frac{1}{b-a} dx$$
$$= (b-a) E[g(X)] \qquad \text{where X-unif(a,b)}$$

$$I = (b - a) E[g(X)]$$
 where $X \sim unif(a,b)$

So, we will estimate I by estimating E[g(X)] with

$$\hat{E}[g(X)] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(X_i)$$

where $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ is a random sample from the uniform(a,b) distribution.

Example:

$$I = \int_{0}^{3} e^{x} dx$$

(we know that the answer is e^3-1 19.08554)

write this as

$$I = 3 \int_{0}^{3} e^{x} \frac{1}{3} dx = 3E[e^{x}]$$

where X~unif(0,3)

write this as

$$I = 3 \int_{0}^{3} e^{x} \frac{1}{3} dx = 3E[e^{x}]$$

where X~unif(0,3)

estimate this with

$$\hat{I} = 3\hat{E}[e^X] = 3\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n e^{x_i}$$

where $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are n independent unif(0,3)'s.

Simulation Results:

true = 19.08554, n=100,000

Simulation	Î
1	19.10724
2	19.08260
3	18.97227
4	19.06814
5	19.13261

Don't ever give an estimate without a confidence interval!

This estimator is "unbiased":

$$E[\hat{I}] = E\left[(b-a)\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}g(X_i)\right]$$

=
$$(b-a)\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}E[g(X_{i})]$$

$$= (b-a)\frac{1}{n}\int_{a}^{b}g(x)\frac{1}{b-a}dx = \int_{a}^{b}g(x)dx = I$$

$$\sigma_{\hat{I}}^2 := Var[\hat{I}] = Var \left[(b-a) \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g(X_i) \right]$$

$$= \frac{(b-a)^2}{n^2} Var \left[\sum_{i=1}^n g(X_i) \right]$$

$$= \frac{(b-a)^2}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n Var[g(X_i)]$$
 (indep)

$$= \frac{(b-a)^2}{n} Var[g(X_1)]$$
 (indent)

$$= \frac{(b-a)^{2}}{n} \int_{a}^{b} (g(x)-E[g(X)])^{2} \frac{1}{b-a} dx$$

$$= \frac{(b-a)^{2}}{n} \int_{a}^{b} \left(g(x) - \frac{I}{b-a} \right)^{2} \frac{1}{b-a} dx$$

an approximation

$$s_{\hat{I}}^{2} = \frac{(b-a)^{2}}{n} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(g(x_{i}) - \frac{\hat{I}}{b-a} \right)}{n-1}$$

$$\hat{I} = (b-a)\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}g(X_i)$$

$$X_1, X_2, ..., X_n \text{ iid } -> g(X_1), g(X_2), ..., g(X_n) \text{ iid}$$

$$\clubsuit$$
 Let $Y_i = g(X_i)$ for $i = 1, 2, ..., n$

Then

$$\hat{I} = (b-a)\overline{Y}$$

and we can once again invoke the CLT.

For n "large enough" (n>30),

$$\hat{\mathbf{I}} \approx \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{I}, \sigma_{\hat{\mathbf{I}}}^2)$$

So, a confidence interval for I is roughly given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{I}} \pm \mathbf{z}_{\alpha/2} \, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\hat{\mathbf{I}}}$$

but since we don't know $\sigma_{\hat{\mathbf{l}}}$, we'll have to be content with the further approximation:

$$\hat{\mathbf{I}} \pm \mathbf{Z}_{\alpha/2} \, \mathbf{S}_{\hat{\mathbf{I}}}$$

By the way...

No one ever said that you have to use the uniform distribution

Example:

$$I := \int_{a}^{b} x^{1/2} e^{-2x} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{1/2} 2e^{-2x} I_{[a,b]}(x) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} E \left[X^{1/2} I_{[a,b]}(X) \right]$$

where $X \sim \exp(\text{rate} = 2)$.

Comparison of Hit-and-Miss and Sample Mean Monte Carlo

- \clubsuit Let \hat{I}_{HM} be the hit-and-miss estimator of I
- \clubsuit Let \hat{I}_{SM} be the sample mean estimator of I

Then

$$Var(\hat{I}_{HM}) \ge Var(\hat{I}_{SM})$$

Comparison of Hit-and-Miss and Sample Mean Monte Carlo

Sample mean Monte Carlo is generally preferred over Hitand-Miss Monte Carlo because:

- * the estimator from SMMC has lower variance
- SMMC does not require a non-negative integrand (or adjustments)
- + H&M MC requires that you be able to put g(x) in a "box", so you need to figure out the max value of g(x) over [a,b] and you need to be integrating over a finite integral.



- Sample Mean Method
- **❖Variance Reduction Technique**
- Variance Reduction using Rejection Technique
- Importance Sampling Method

Introduction

- Monte Carlo Method and Sampling Distribution
 - Monte Carlo Method : Take values from random sample
 - From central limit theorem,

$$\overline{\mu} = \mu$$
 $\overline{\sigma}^2 = \sigma^2 / N$

3σ rule

$$P(\mu - 3\overline{\sigma} \le \overline{X} \le \mu - 3\overline{\sigma}) \approx 0.9973$$

Most probable error

$$Error \approx \pm \frac{0.6745\sigma}{\sqrt{N}}$$

Important characteristics

$$Error \propto 1/\sqrt{N}$$

Error
$$\propto \sigma$$

Variance Reduction Technique Introduction

- Reducing error
 - *100 samples reduces the error order of 10
 - Reducing variance → Variance Reduction Technique
- The value of variance is closely related to how samples are taken
 - Unbiased sampling
 - Biased sampling
 - More points are taken in important parts of the population

Variance Reduction Technique Motivation

- If we are using sample-mean Monte Carlo Method
 - Variance depends very much on the behavior of $\rho(x)$
 - $\rho(x)$ varies little \rightarrow variance is small
 - $\rho(x) = \text{const} \rightarrow \text{variance} = 0$
- Evaluation of a integral

$$I' = (b-a)\mu_{\overline{Y}} = \frac{b-a}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \rho(x_n)$$

- Near minimum points → contribute less to the summation
- Near maximum points → contribute more to the summation
- More points are sampled near the peak → "importance sampling strategy"

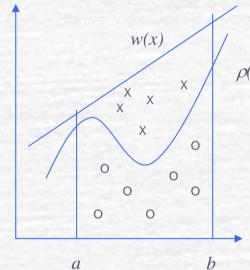
- Variance Reduction for Hit-or-Miss method
 - •In the domain [a,b] choose a comparison function

$$w(x) \ge \rho(x)$$

$$W(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} w(x) dx$$

$$A = \int_{a}^{b} w(x) dx$$

$$Au = w(x)$$
 \longrightarrow $x = W^{-1}(Au)$



- Points are generated on the area under w(x) function
 - Random variable that follows distribution w(x)

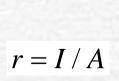
Points lying above $\rho(x)$ is rejected

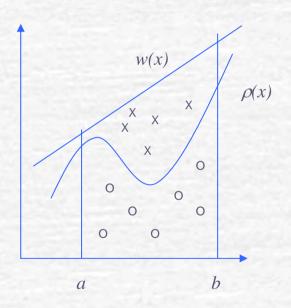
$$I \approx A \frac{N'}{N}$$

$$y_n = w(x_n)u_n$$

$$q_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y_n \le \rho(x_n) \\ 0 & \text{if } y_n > \rho(x_n) \end{cases}$$

9	1	0
P(q)	r	1-r





Error Analysis

$$E(Q) = r$$
, $V(Q) = r(1-r)$

$$I = Ar = AE(Q)$$

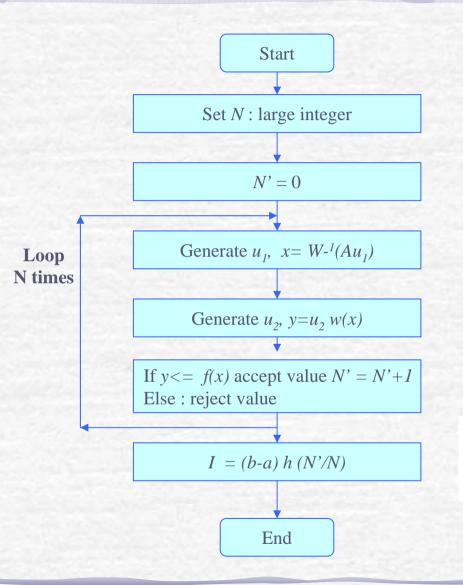
$$I_{error}^{RJ} \approx 0.67 \sqrt{\frac{I(A-I)}{N}}$$

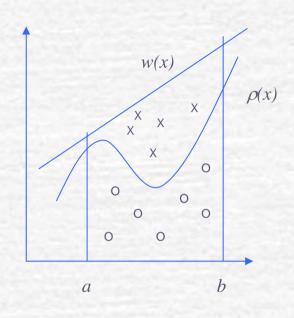
Hit or Miss method

$$A = (b-a)h$$

Error reduction

$$A \rightarrow I$$
 then Error $\rightarrow 0$





$$I_{error}^{RJ} \approx 0.67 \sqrt{\frac{I'(A-I')}{N}}$$

- Basic idea
 - Put more points near maximum
 - Put less points near minimum

F(x): transformation function (or weight function_

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x)dx$$
$$y = F(x)$$
$$x = F^{-1}(y)$$

$$dy/dx = f(x) \rightarrow dx = dy/f(x)$$

$$I = \int_a^b \frac{\rho(x)}{f(x)} dy = \int_a^b \left[\frac{\rho(x)}{f(x)} \right] f(x) dx$$

$$\gamma(x) = \frac{\rho(x)}{f(x)}$$

$$<\eta>_f = \int_a^b \eta(x) f(x) dx$$

if we choose $f(x) = c\rho(x)$, then variance will be small The magnitude of error depends on the choice of f(x)

$$I = \int_{a}^{b} \gamma(x) f(x) dx = \langle \gamma \rangle_{f}$$

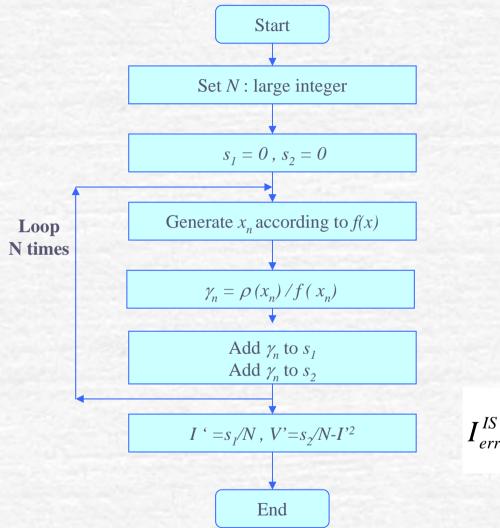
Estimate of error

$$I = <\gamma>_f \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma(x_n)$$

$$I_{error} = 0.67 \sqrt{\frac{V_f(\gamma)}{N}}$$

$$V_f(\gamma) = \langle \gamma^2 \rangle_f - (\langle \gamma \rangle_f)^2$$

$$I_{error}^{IS} = 0.67\sqrt{\frac{\langle \gamma^2 \rangle_f - I^2}{N}}$$



$$I_{error}^{IS} = 0.67 \sqrt{\frac{V'}{N}}$$