

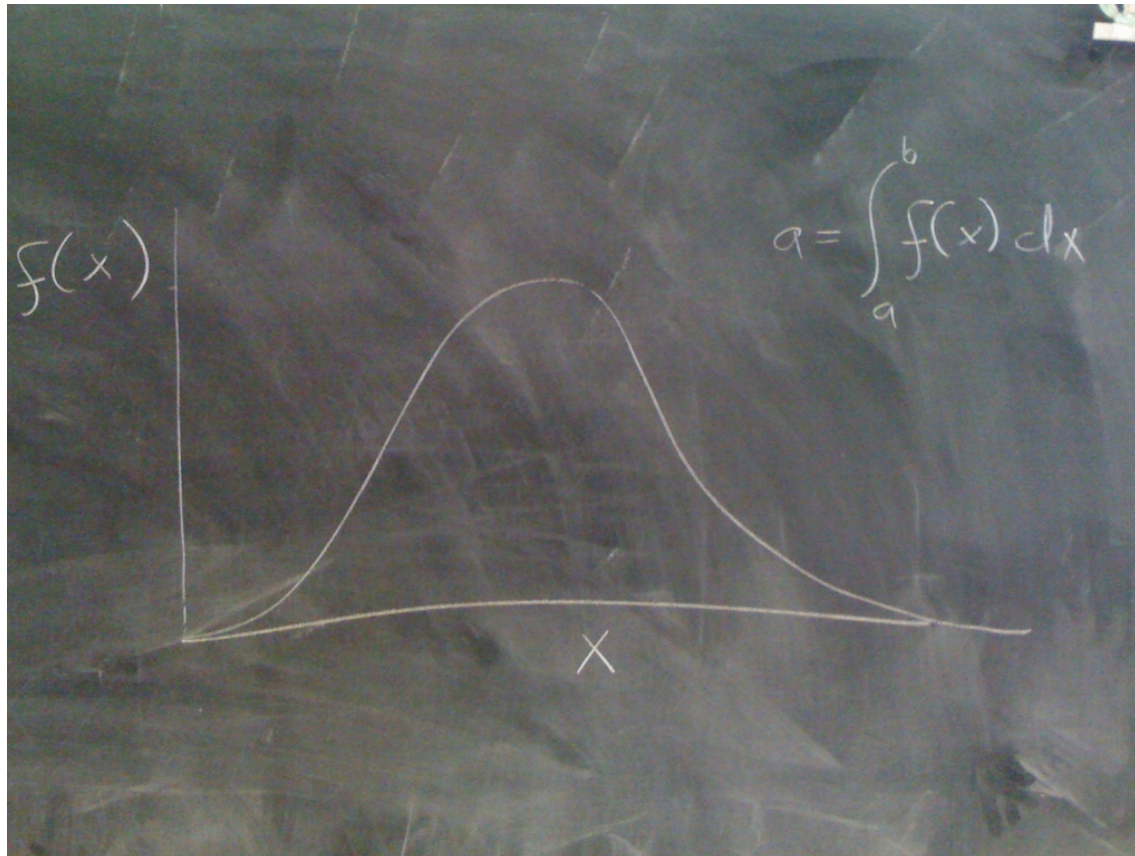
- A. Monte Carlo (History and Overview)
- B. A Monte Carlo method to calculate π
- C. General Monte Carlo integration

Monte Carlo



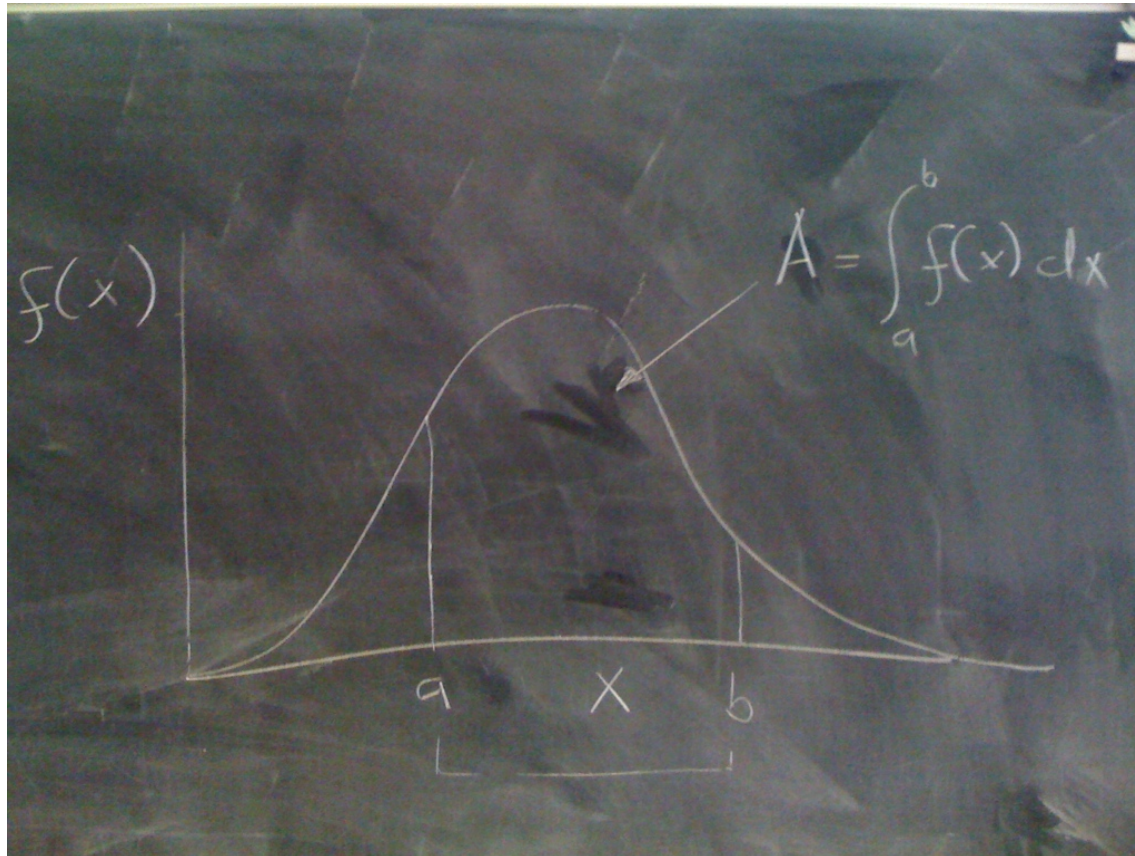
Numerical integration

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$



Numerical integration

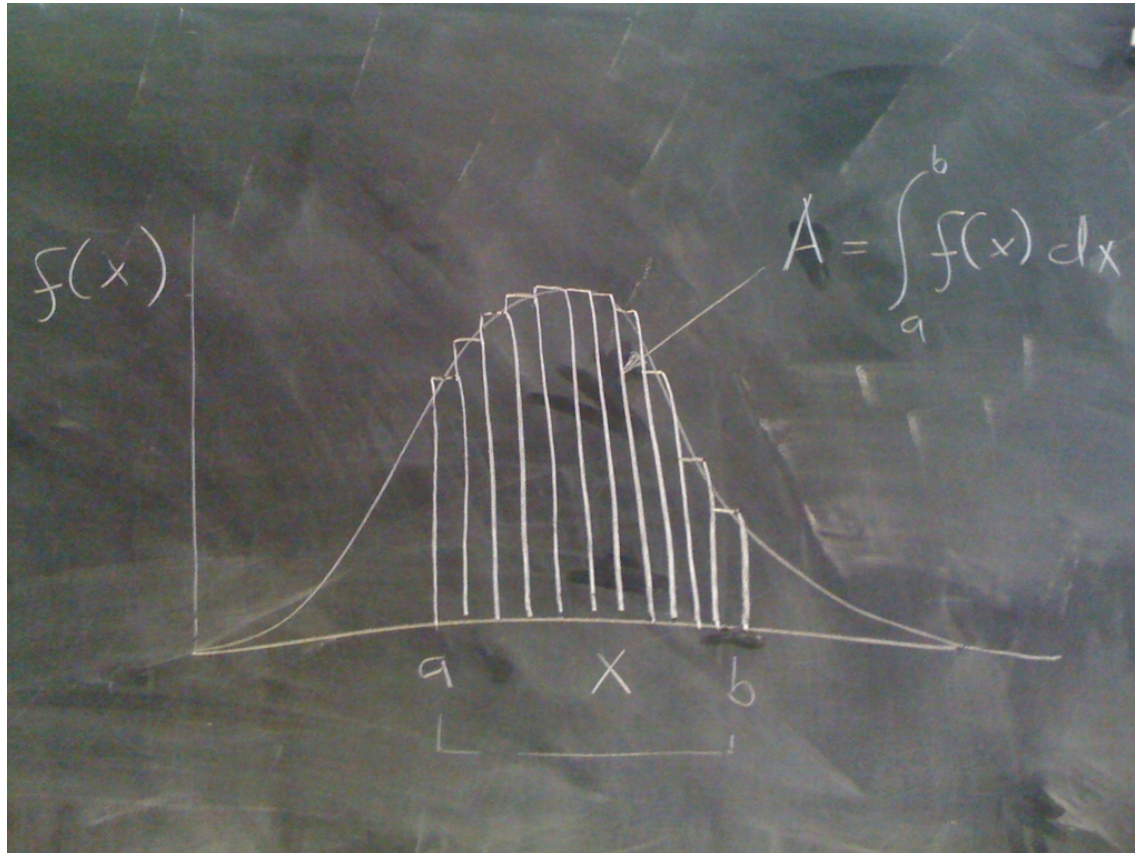
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$



Numerical integration

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

We can approximate the area with thin bars that have all the same width, and so fill the area between a and b



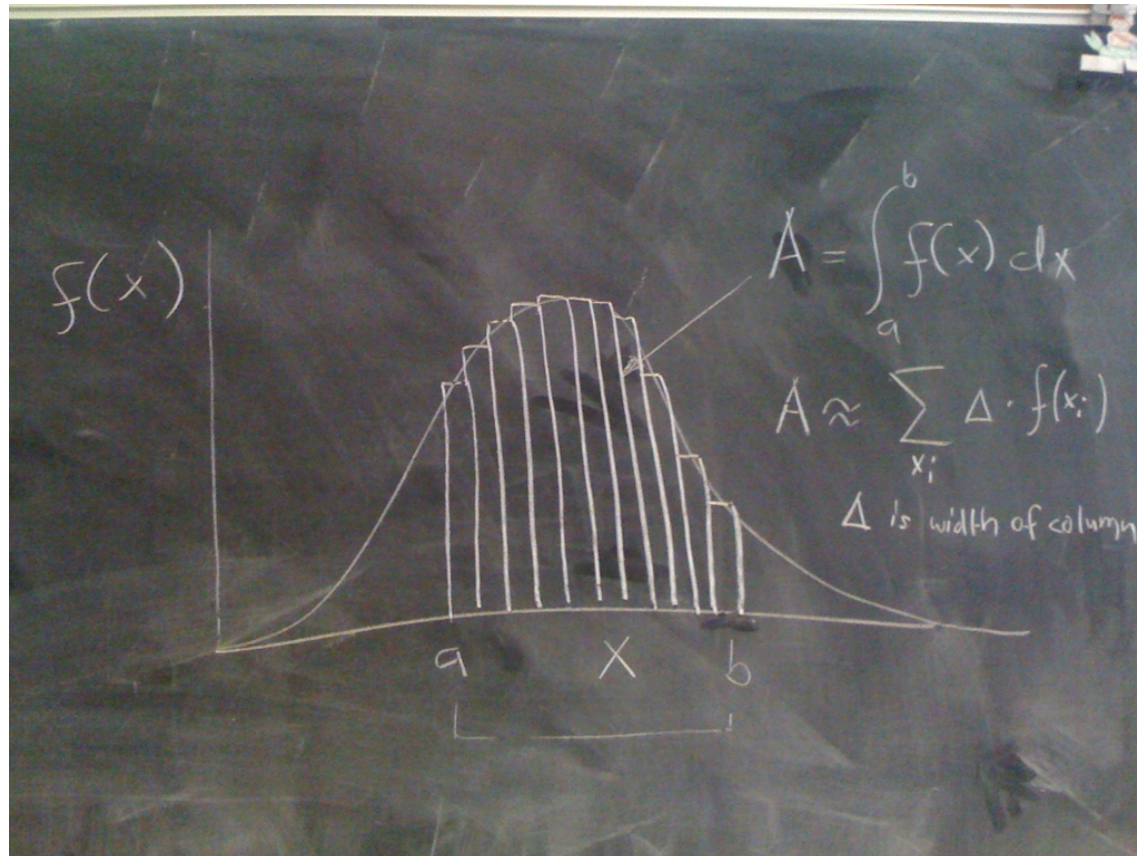
Numerical integration

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

We can approximate the area with thin bars that have all the same width, and so fill the area between a and b

$$\sum_{a+\frac{\Delta}{2}}^{b-\frac{\Delta}{2}} \Delta f(x)$$

$$x_i = x_{i-1} + \Delta$$



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THE MONTE CARLO METHOD

NICHOLAS METROPOLIS AND S. ULAM

Los Alamos Laboratory

We shall present here the motivation and a general description of a method dealing with a class of problems in mathematical physics. The method is, essentially, a statistical approach to the study of differential equations, or more generally, of integro-differential equations that occur in various branches of the natural sciences.

Flow diagram for converting memory 210-228 to decimals and printing results.

```

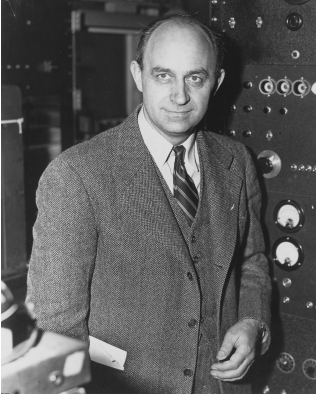
graph TD
    Start([Start 15A]) --> 1[210 to lambda_0 to 155]
    1 --> 2[N2 to N to 156  
010 to S to 159]
    2 --> 3[N to N- to 158]
    3 --> 4[000 to d to 158]
    4 --> 5[|N| to b to 157]
    5 --> 6[b - 1/10 to b]
    6 --> 7[10b to b]
    7 --> 8[2^-43 to S]
    8 --> 9[S - 2^-39 to S]
    9 --> 10[Print d]
    10 --> 11[lambda_0 + b to lambda_0]
    11 --> 12[lambda_0 - 229 to lambda_0]
    12 --> Stop([Stop])
  
```

Address	Operation	Address	Operation	Address	Operation
15A	m to AC	150		164	L
15B	a to AC	151		165	L
15C	m to AC	152		166	A to m
15D	m to AC	153		167	R
15E	C	154		168	m to A h
15F	A to m	155		169	Print
160	a to AC	156		16A	m to A h
161	m to AC	157		16B	m to A h
162	m to AC	158		16C	T
163	C	159		16D	A to m
164	L	160		16E	m to A h
165	L	161		16F	T
166	A to m	162			
167	R	163			
168	m to A h	164			
169	Print	165			
16A	m to A h	166			
16B	m to A h	167			
16C	T	168			
16D	A to m	169			
16E	m to A h	170			
16F	T	171			
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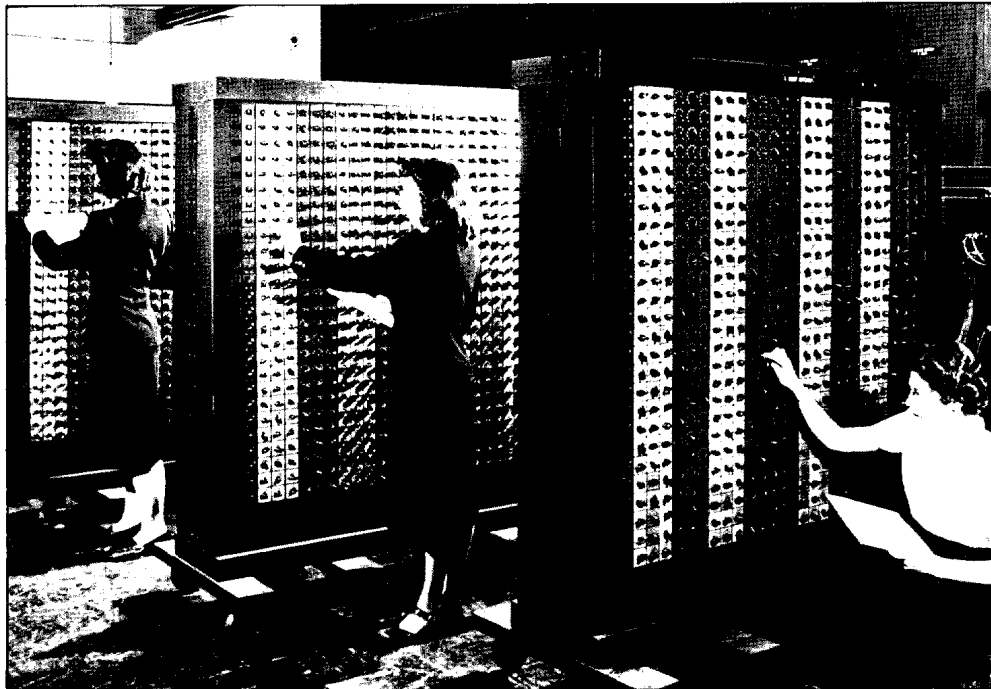
[illegible]

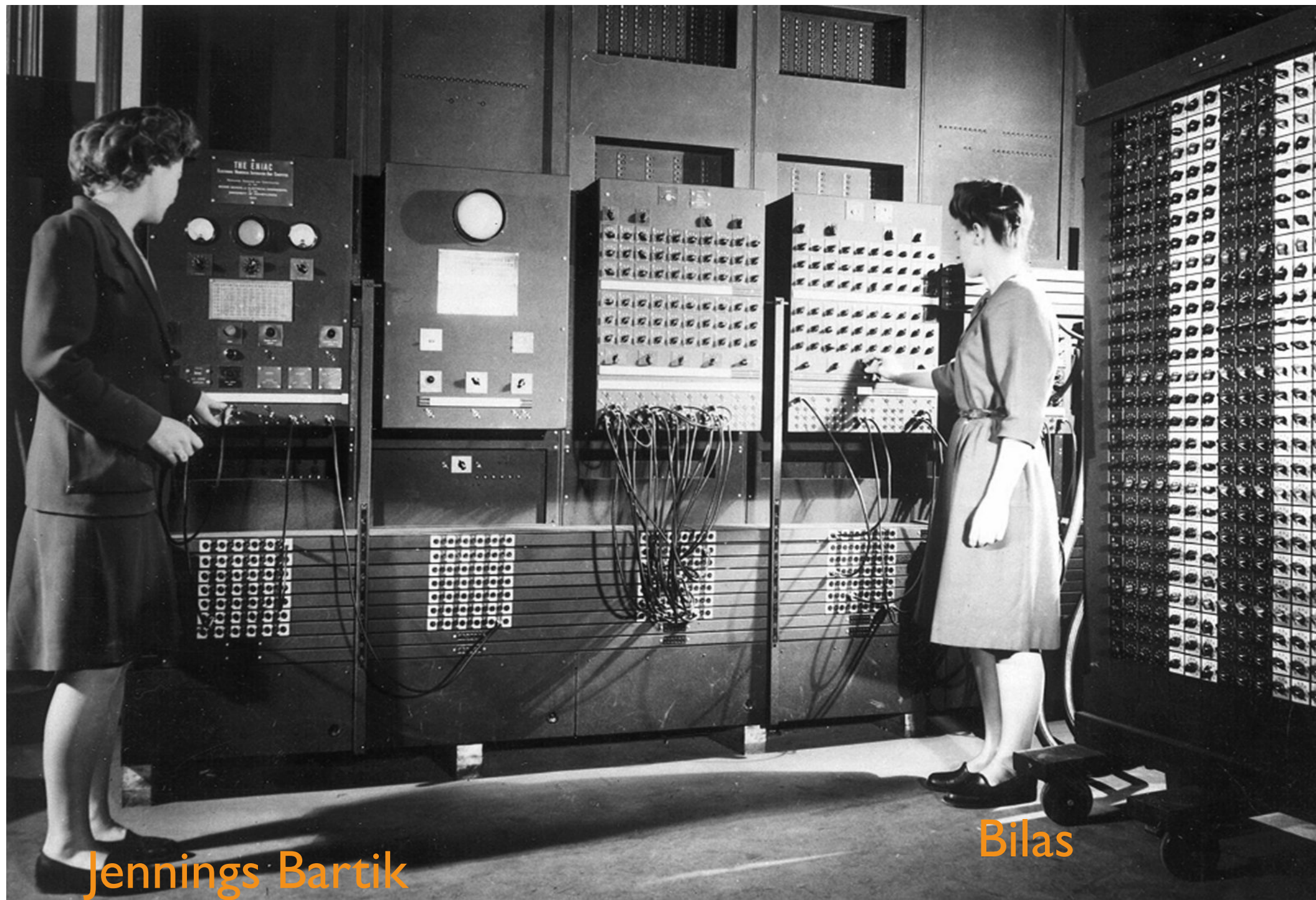
Fig. 5. A portion of the printout of the program containing the subprograms described in Figs. 3 and 4. The program is written in machine language in hexadecimal numbers.

Monte Carlo method is tied to first electronic computers and the development of the atomic bomb.



Stan Ulam, Enrico Fermi, John von Neumann, Nicolas Metropolis, Edward Teller, Marshall Rosenbluth
Augusta Harkanyi Teller, and Arianna Rosenbluth





Jennings Bartik

Bilas

Recipe

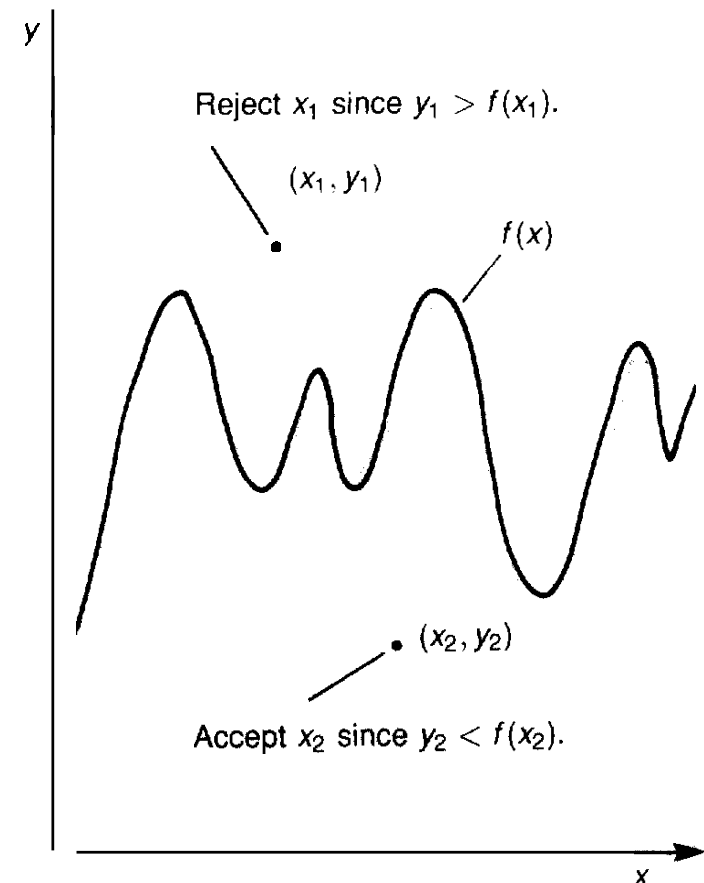
Do this many times:

- Draw a random number x using the distribution $f(x)$ between a and b
- Save x

Create a histogram of all the x values

THE ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION METHOD

Fig. 4. If two independent sets of random numbers are used, one of which (x^i) extends uniformly over the range of the distribution function f and the other (y^i) extends over the domain of f , then an acceptance-rejection technique based on whether or not $y^i \leq f(x^i)$ will generate a distribution for (x^i) whose density is $f(x^i) dx^i$.



Random numbers

Physical random number generators

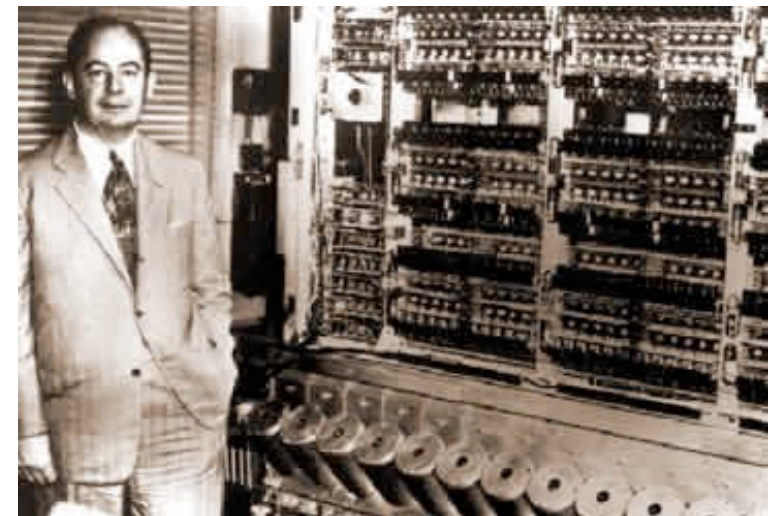
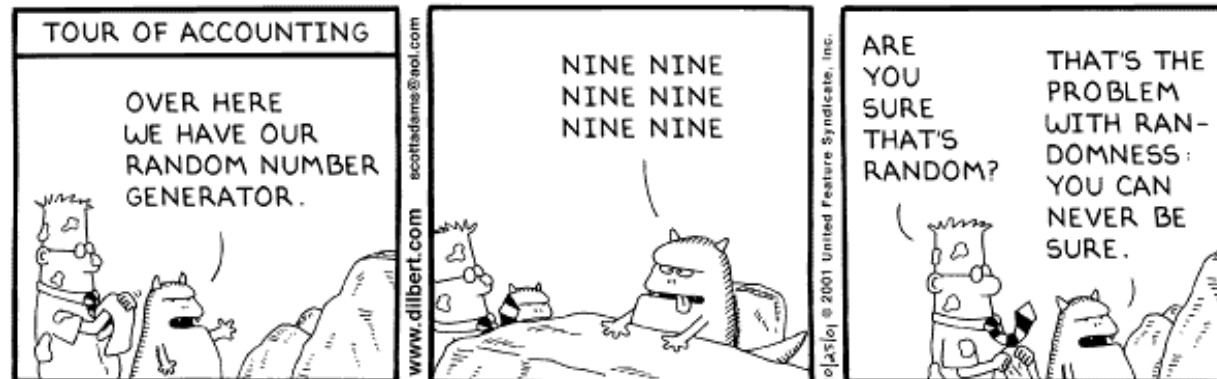
Lava-lamps

Geiger counter

Devices that combine
multiple events `/dev/random`

Pseudorandom numbers

John von Neumann proposed using the following method as one of the first random number generators. Suppose we want to create eight-digit numbers. Begin with an eight-digit number X_0 , which we call the *seed*, and create the next integer in the sequence by removing the middle eight digits from X_0^2 .



Pseudocode for von Neuman random number generator

```
initialize vector x
seed = input(a number with 8 digits)
for i in 1,n:
    x0 = seed * seed
    seed = take middle 8 digits of x0
    x[i] = seed
```

Example

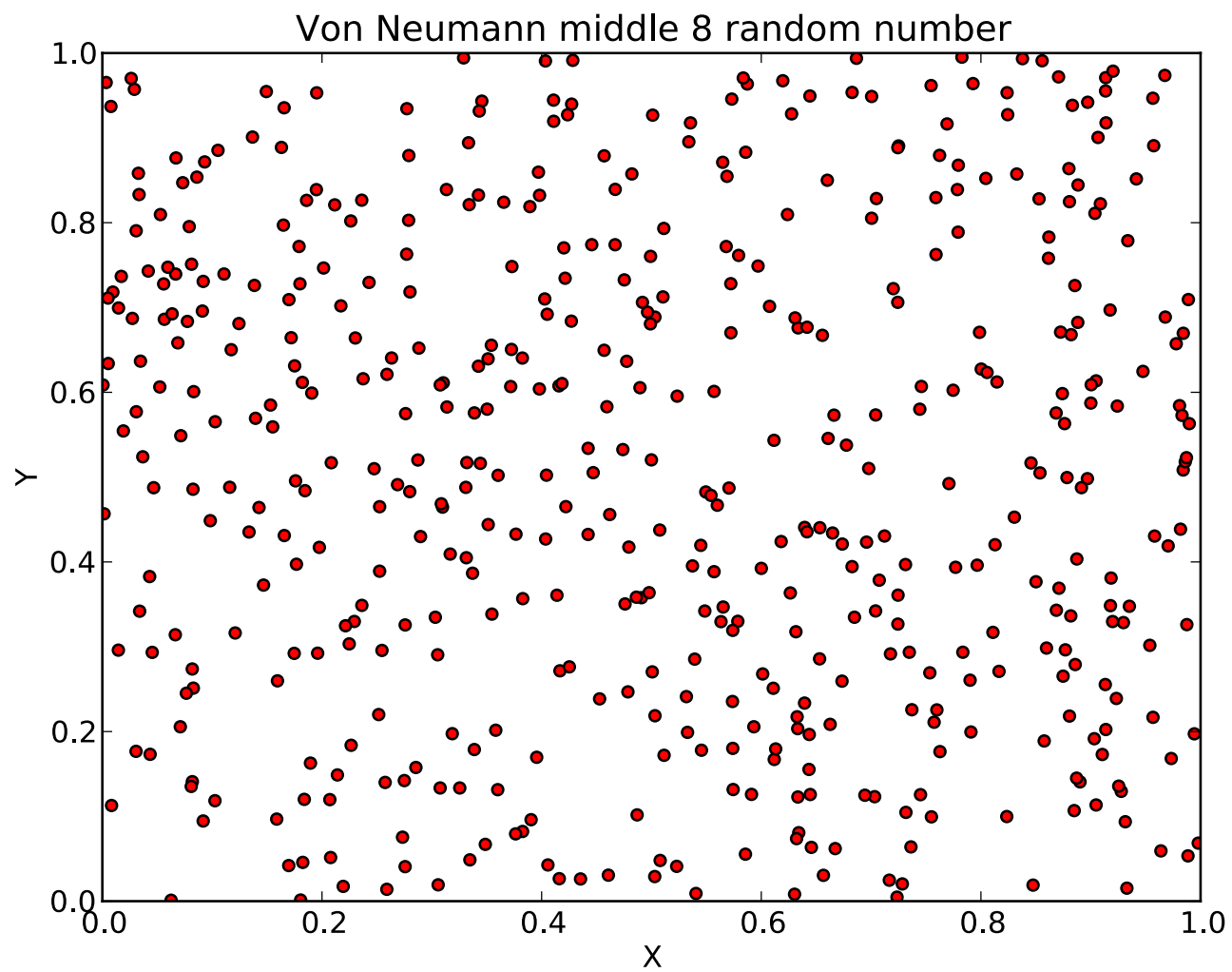
81989672

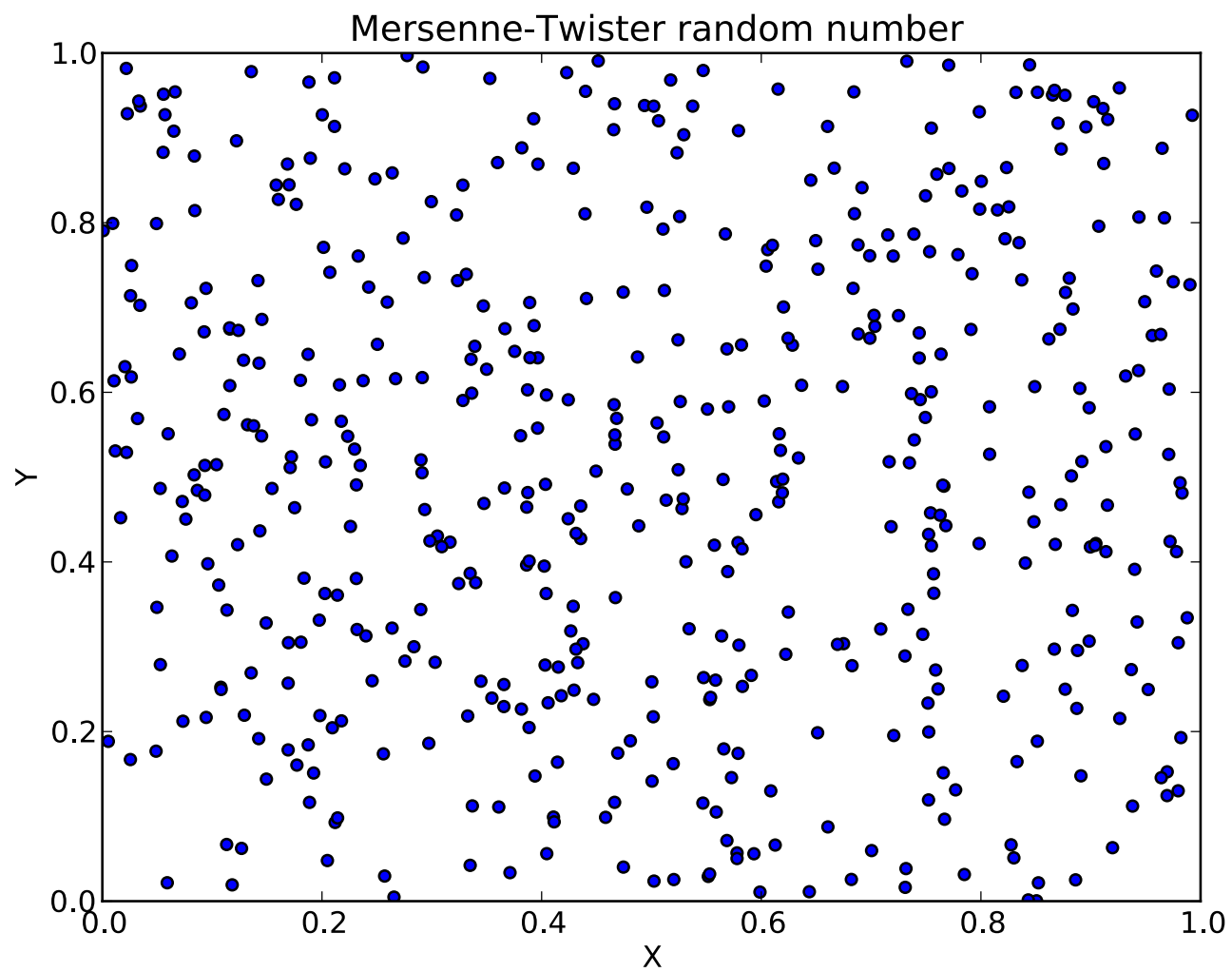
81989672×81989672

6722306314667584

30631466

30631466×30631466





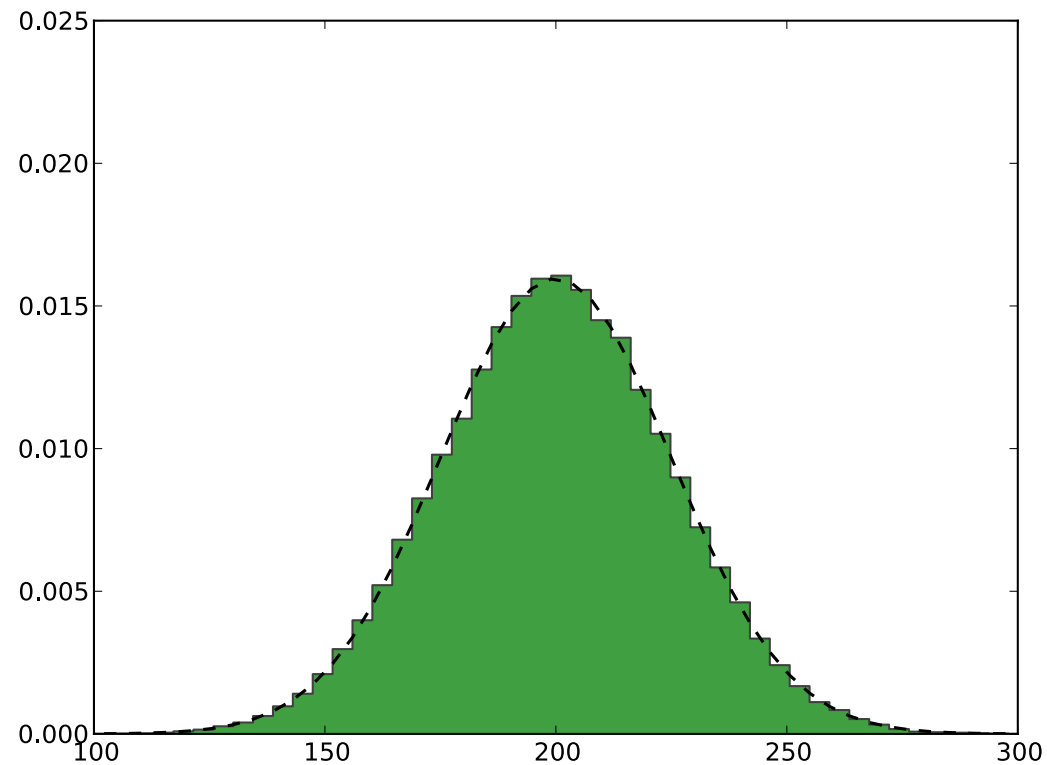
Monte Carlo

Recipe

Do this many times:

- Draw a random number x using the distribution $f(x)$ between a and b
- Save x

Create a histogram of all the x values



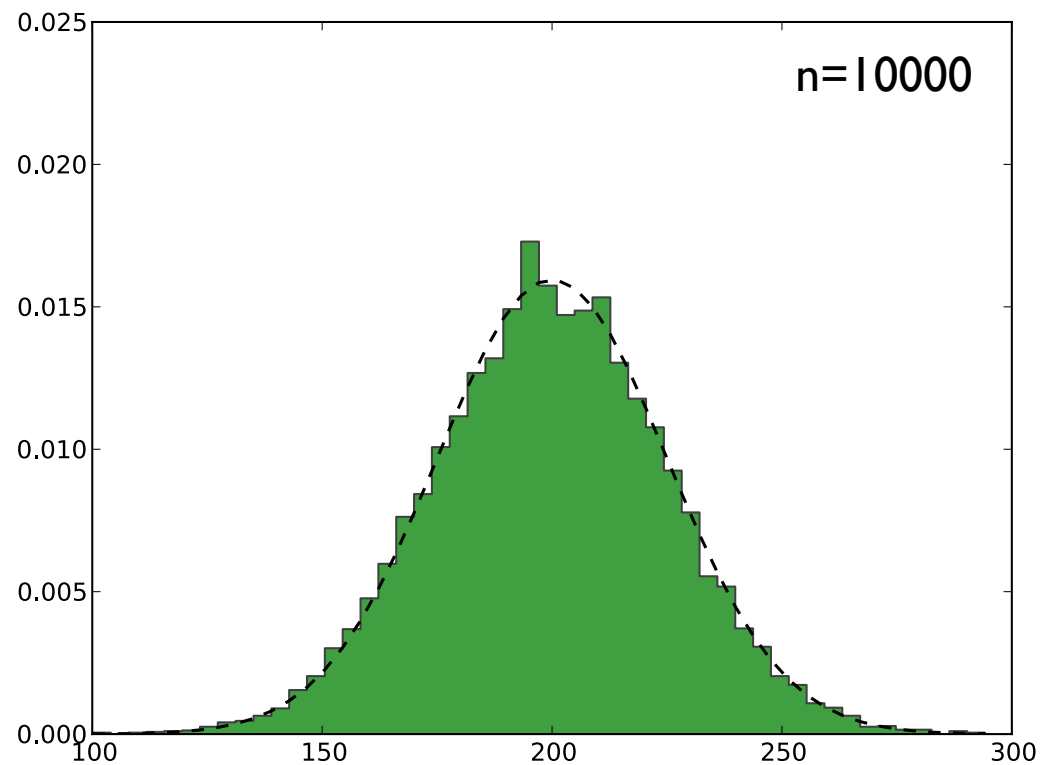
Monte Carlo

Recipe

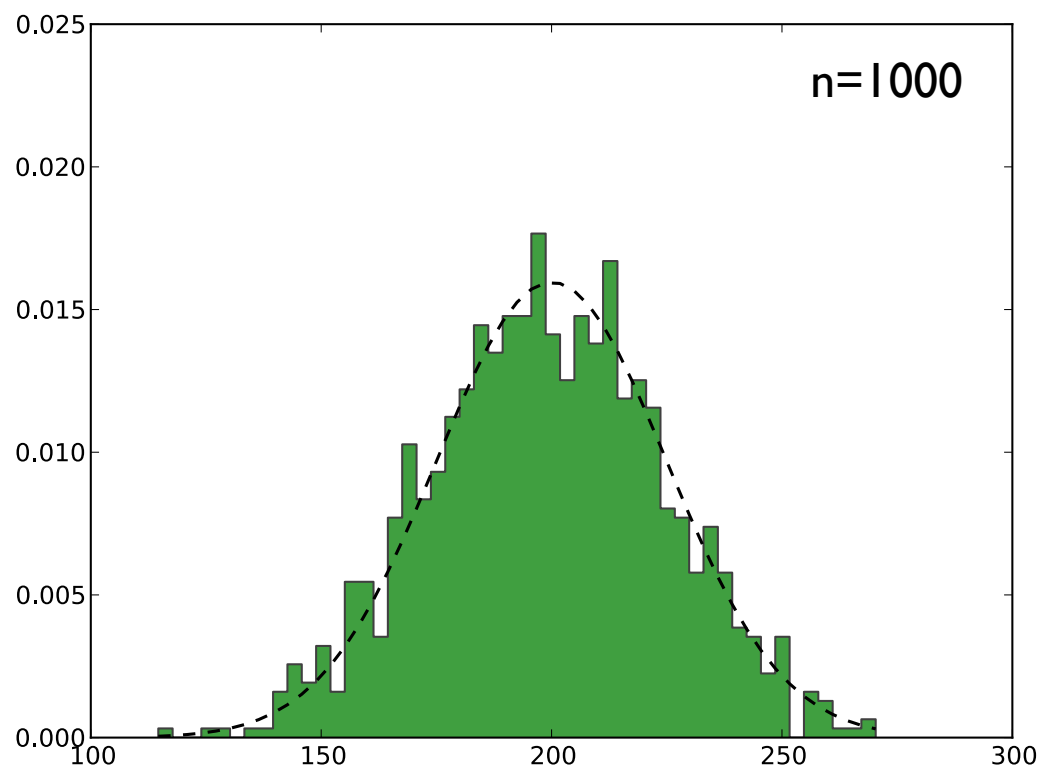
Do this many times:

- Draw a random number x using the distribution $f(x)$ between a and b
- Save x

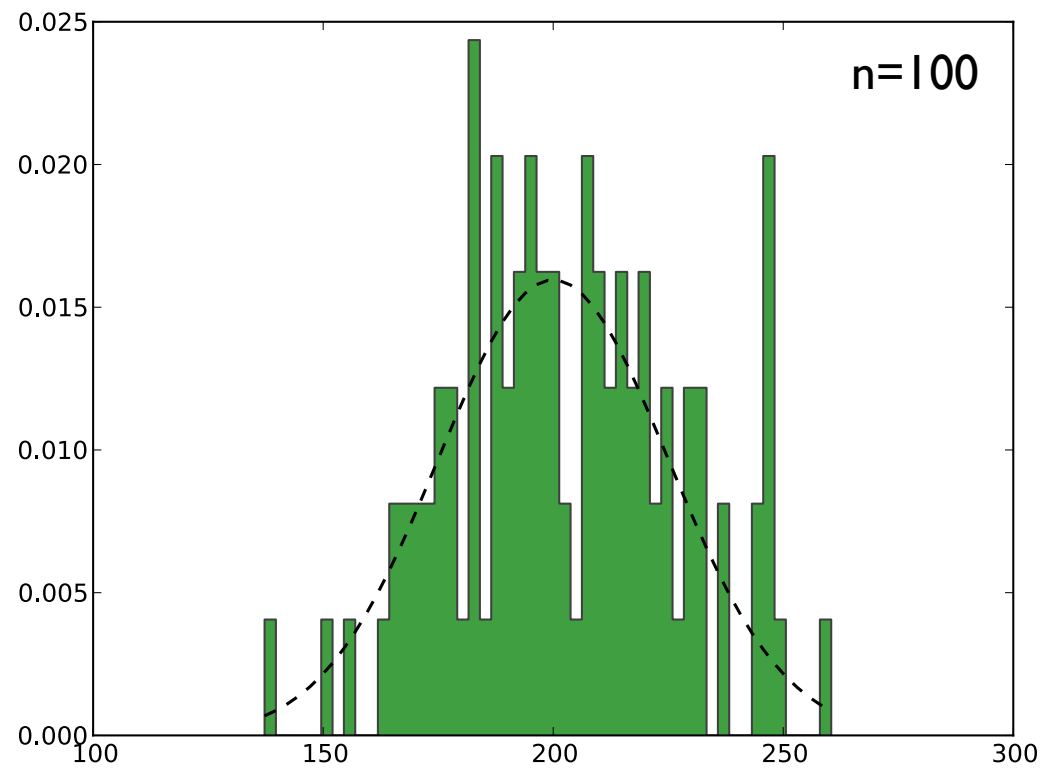
Create a histogram of all the x values



Monte Carlo



Monte Carlo



Monte Carlo Rules

- *Probability distribution functions (pdf's)* — the physical (or mathematical) system must be described by a set of pdf's.
- *Random number generator* — a source of random numbers uniformly distributed on the unit interval must be available.
- *Sampling rule* — a prescription for sampling from the specified pdf's, assuming the availability of random numbers on the unit interval, must be given.
- *Scoring (or tallying)* — the outcomes must be accumulated into overall tallies or scores for the quantities of interest.

Monte Carlo Examples

Nuclear reactor design

Quantum chromodynamics

Radiation cancer therapy

Traffic flow

Stellar evolution

Econometrics

Dow-Jones forecasting

Oil well exploration

VLSI design

Phylogeny inference

Population genetics inference

How to calculate π

?

How to calculate π

We know that the area of a circle is

$$\pi r^2$$

Looking only at the upper right corner

we can see a green square with side r

and we can calculate the area of the square as

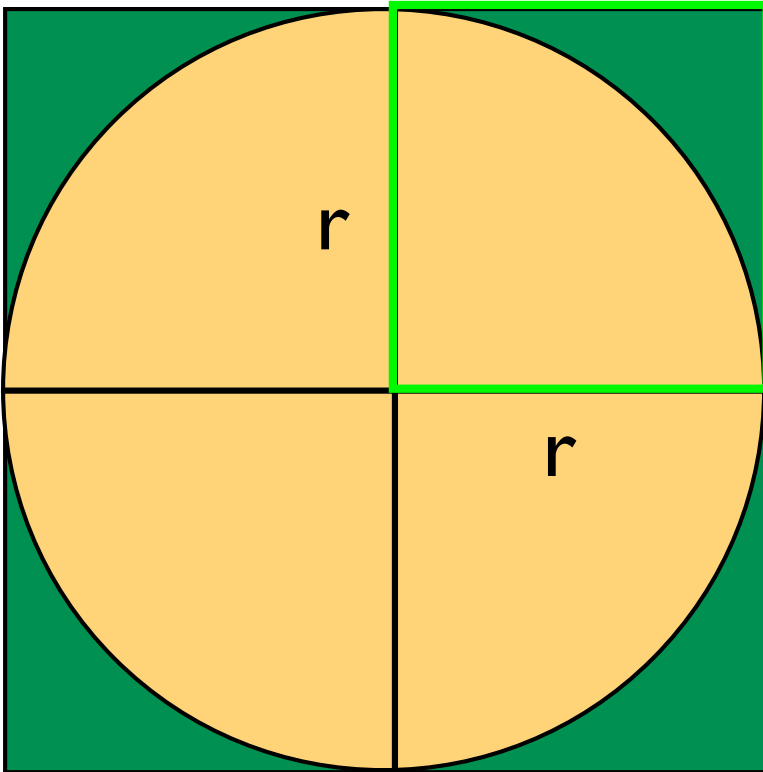
$$A_s = r^2$$

The quarter circle has the area

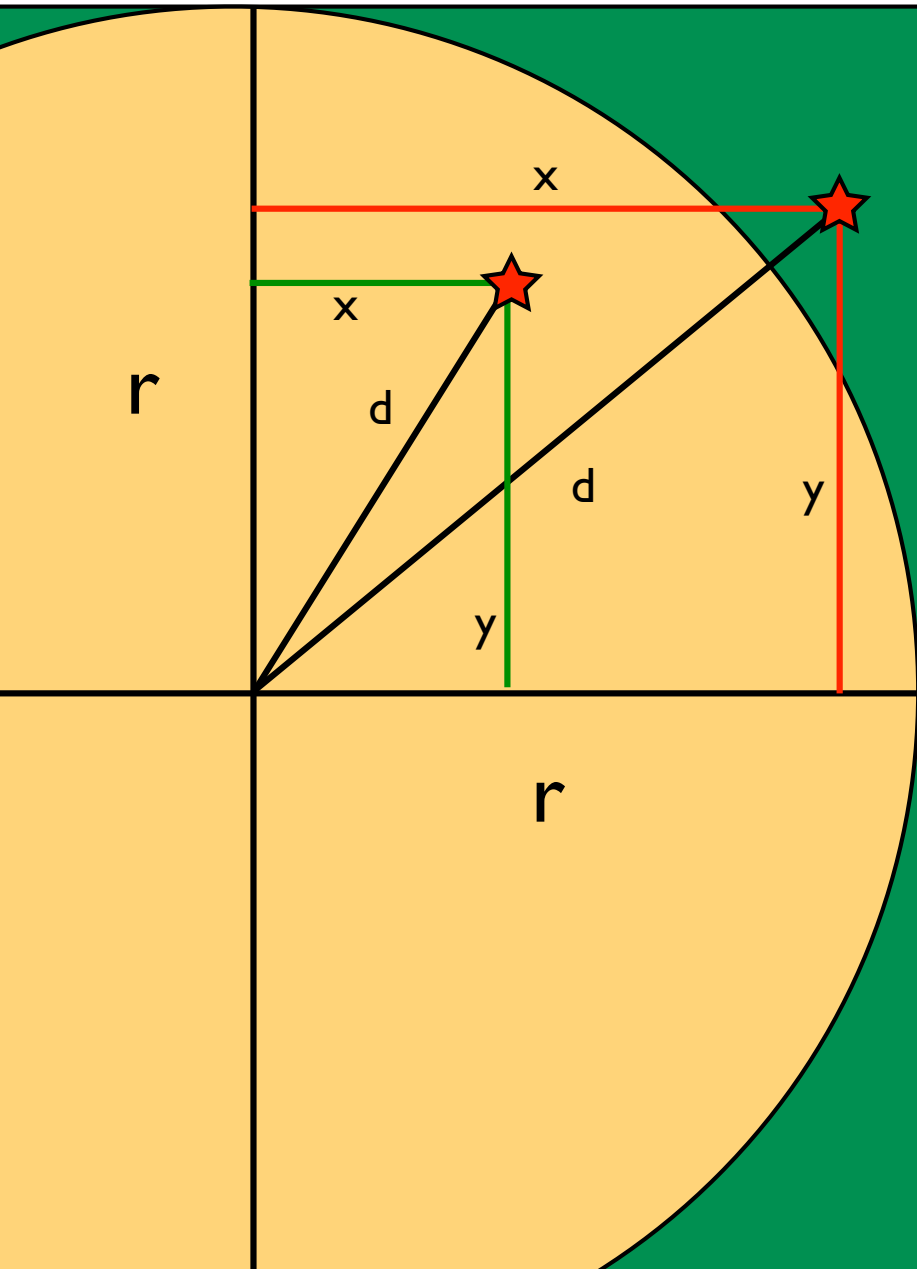
$$A_c = \frac{\pi}{4} r^2$$

So we can calculate the ratio of the two areas as

$$\frac{A_c}{A_s} = \frac{r^2}{\frac{\pi}{4} r^2} = \frac{\pi}{4}$$



How to calculate π



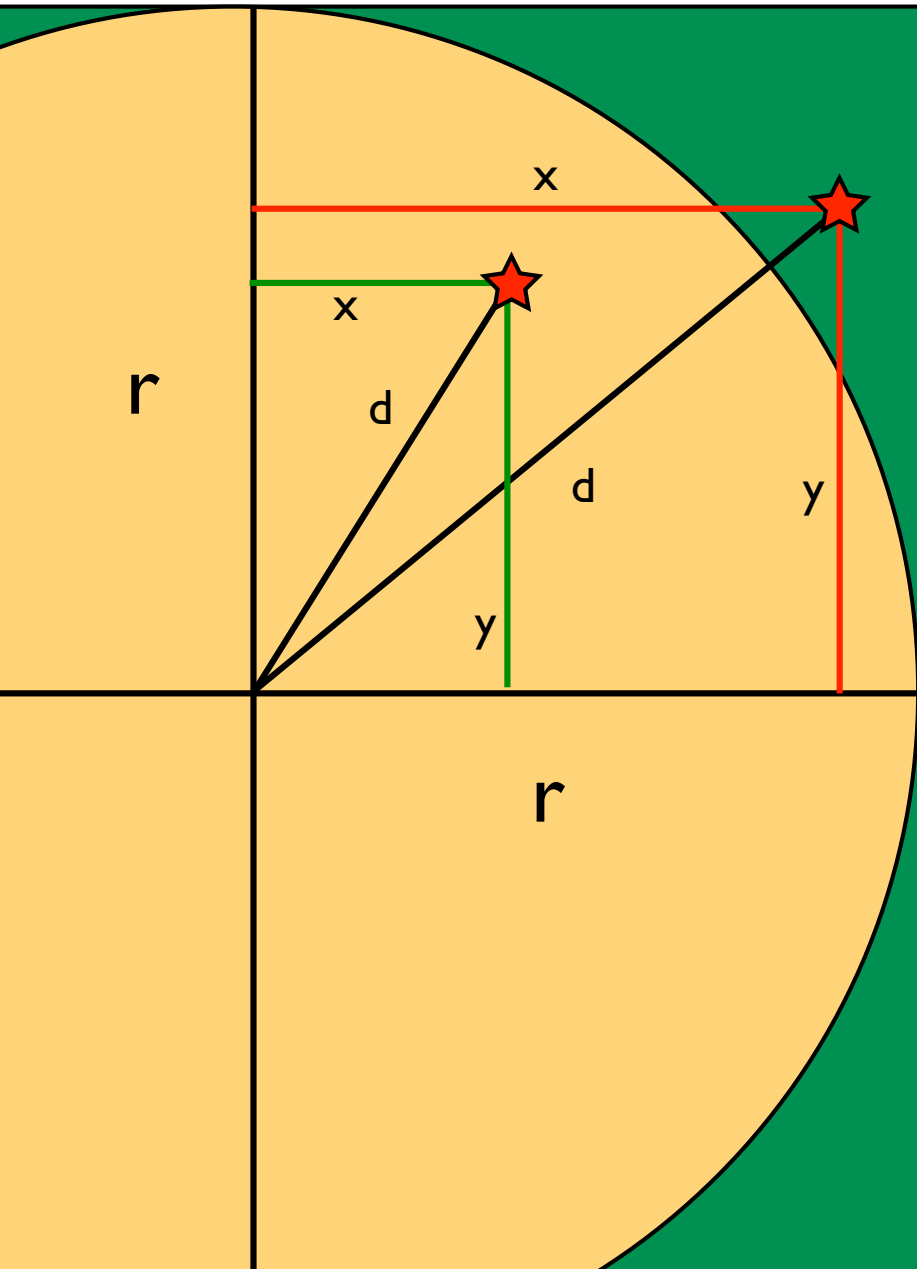
$$\frac{A_c}{A_s} = \frac{r^2}{\frac{\pi}{4}r^2} = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

The goal is now to estimate the ratio of the areas. We can devise an algorithm that draws random coordinates from the square and marks whether the coordinate fell into the circle or not. We can calculate the distance from the circle center using Pythagoras:

$$d = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

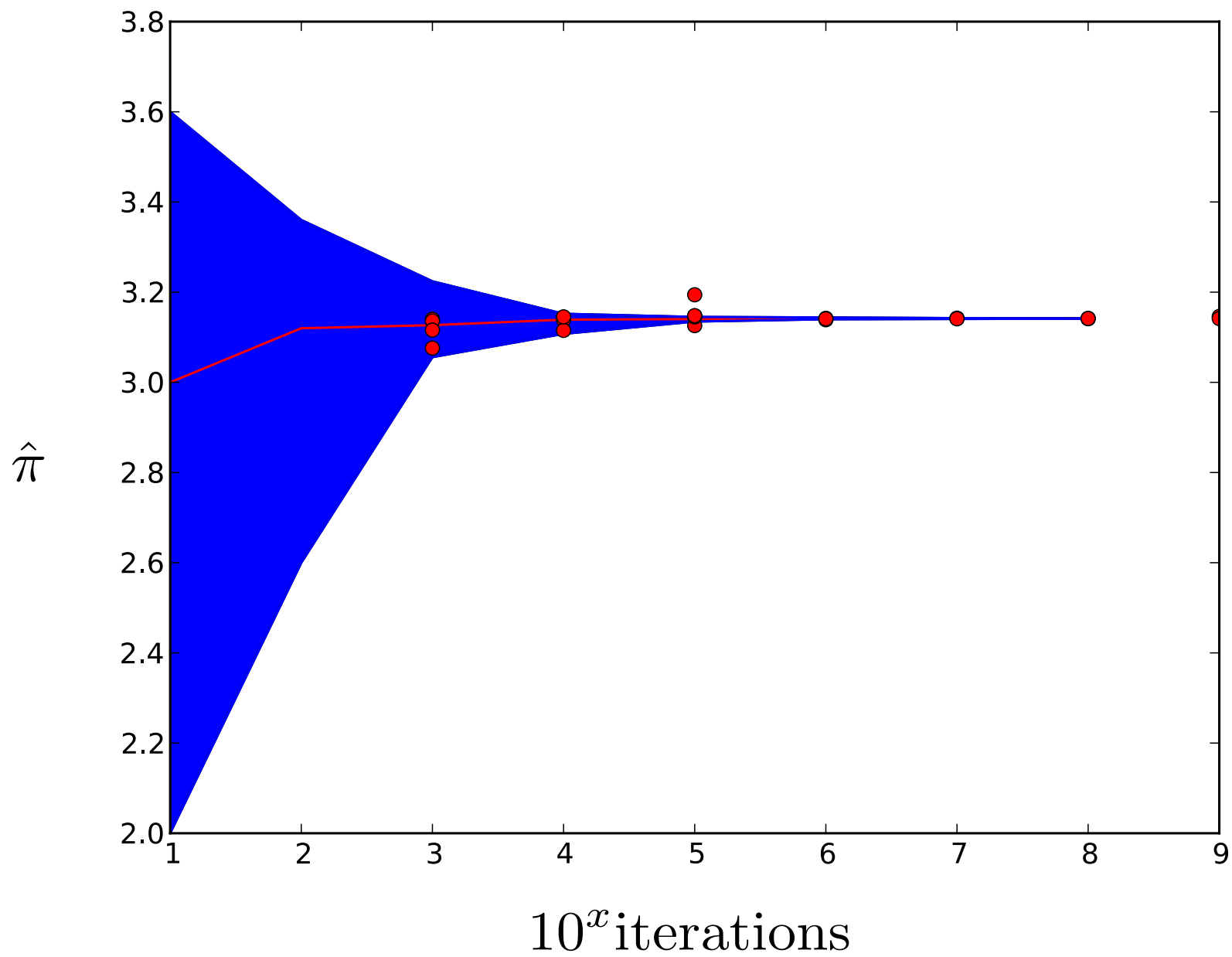
If d is smaller than r then we know the coordinate is in the circle otherwise only in the square. We can now create an algorithm for our program.

How to calculate π



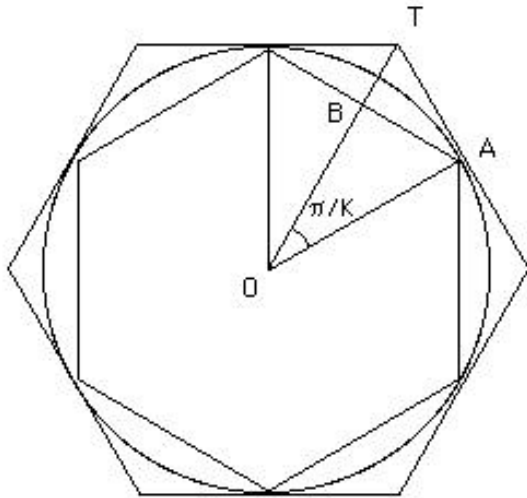
```
// Algorithm in pseudo code
// Do many times:
//   draw x, y coordinate
//   calculate d from center
//   check whether d < r:
//     True: add 1 to circle
//     False: do nothing
//   add 1 to square
//
// print pi: ratio circle/square * 4
```


Our Pi estimates



History of π

Archimedes (300 BC)
using 96-side polygons



$$223/71 < \pi < 22/7$$

3.140845070422535

3.1428571428571428

Ptolemy (c. 150 AD) 3.1416

Zu Chongzhi (430-501 AD) $355/113$

al-Khwarizmi (c. 800) 3.1416

al-Kashi (c. 1430) 14 places

Viète (1540-1603) 9 places

Roomen (1561-1615) 17 places

Van Ceulen (c. 1600) 35 places

James Gregory
1638-1675

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \dots$$

History of π

1699: Sharp used Gregory's result to get 71 correct digits

1701: Machin used an improvement to get 100 digits and the following used his methods:

1719: de Lagny found 112 correct digits

1789: Vega got 126 places and in 1794 got 136

1841: Rutherford calculated 152 digits and in 1853 got 440

1873: Shanks calculated 707 places of which 527 were correct

Very soon after Shanks' calculation a curious statistical freak was noticed by De Morgan, who found that in the last of 707 digits there was a suspicious shortage of 7's. He mentions this in his Budget of Paradoxes of 1872 and a curiosity it remained until 1945 when Ferguson discovered that Shanks had made an error in the

528th place, after which all his digits were wrong. In 1949 a computer was used to calculate π to 2000 places. In this and all subsequent computer expansions the number of 7's does not differ significantly from its expectation, and indeed the sequence of digits has so far passed all statistical tests for randomness.

Buffon's needle experiment. If we have a uniform grid of parallel lines, unit distance apart and if we drop a needle of length $k < 1$ on the grid, the probability that the needle falls across a line is $2k/\pi$. Various people have tried to calculate π by throwing needles. The most remarkable result was that of Lazzerini (1901), who made 34080 tosses and got

$$\pi = 355/113 = 3.1415929$$

which, incidentally, is the value found by Zu Chongzhi. This outcome is suspiciously good, and the game is given away by the strange number 34080 of tosses. Kendall and Moran comment that a good value can be obtained by stopping the experiment at an optimal moment. If you set in advance how many throws there are to be then this is a very inaccurate way of computing π . Kendall and Moran comment that you would do better to cut out a large circle of wood and use a tape measure to find its circumference and diameter.

π

In the State of Indiana in 1897 the House of Representatives unanimously passed a Bill introducing a new mathematical truth:

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Indiana: It has been found that a circular area is to the square on a line equal to the quadrant of the circumference, as the area of an equilateral rectangle is to the square of one side. (Section I, House Bill No. 246, 1897)

The Senate of Indiana showed a little more sense and postponed indefinitely the adoption of the Act!

3.14159265358979323846264338327950288419716939937510582097494459230781640628620899
8628034825342117067982148086513282306647093844609550582231725359408128481117450284
1027019385211055596446229489549303819644288109756659334461284756482337867831652712
0190914564856692346034861045432664821339360726024914127372458700660631558817488152
0920962829254091715364367892590360011330530548820466521384146951941511609433057270
3657595919530921861173819326117931051185480744623799627495673518857527248912279381
8301194912983367336244065664308602139494639522473719070217986094370277053921717629
3176752384674818467669405132000568127145263560827785771342757789609173637178721468
4409012249534301465495853710507922796892589235420199561121290219608640344181598136
2977477130996051870721134999999837297804995105973173281609631859502445945534690830
2642522308253344685035261931188171010003137838752886587533208381420617177669147303
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0983817546374649393192550604009277016711390098488240128583616035637076601047101819
429555961989467678374494482553797747268471040475346462080466842590694912...

Using Monte Carlo to approximate an integral

- Suppose we want to evaluate $\int_a^b f(x) dx$
- If $f(x) \geq 0$ for $a \leq x \leq b$ then we know that this integral represents the area under the curve $y = f(x)$ and above the x -axis.
- Standard **deterministic** numerical integration rules approximate this integral by evaluating the integrand $f(x)$ at a set number of points and multiplying by appropriate weights.

– For example, the midpoint rule is

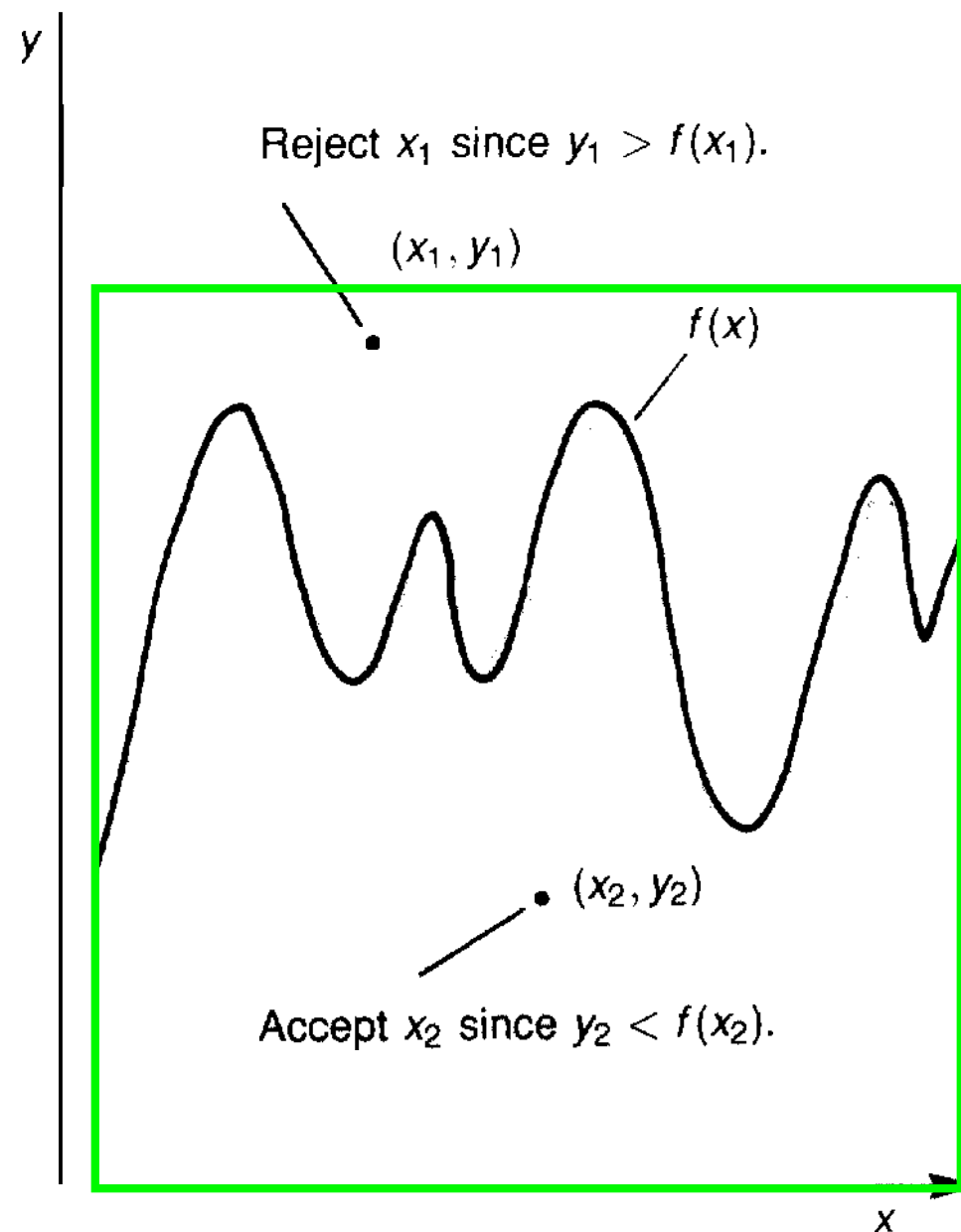
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) (b-a)$$

– Simpson's rule is

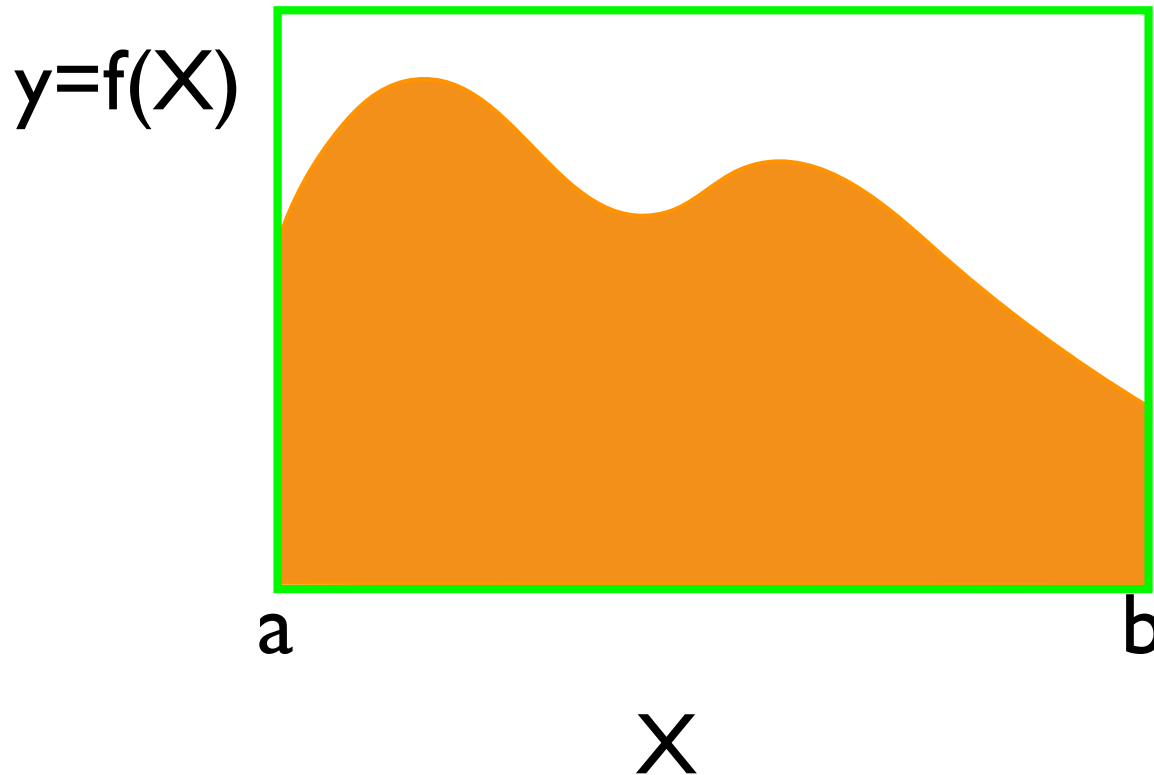
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{b-a}{6} \left[f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right]$$

THE ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION METHOD

Fig. 4. If two independent sets of random numbers are used, one of which (x') extends uniformly over the range of the distribution function f and the other (y') extends over the domain of f , then an acceptance-rejection technique based on whether or not $y^i \leq f(x^i)$ will generate a distribution for (x^i) whose density is $f(x^i) dx^i$.



Acceptance-Rejection method



M

Bounding box

Area

$$A_b = M (b-a)$$

Area under curve

$$A_b \frac{\#inside}{\#bounding\ box}$$

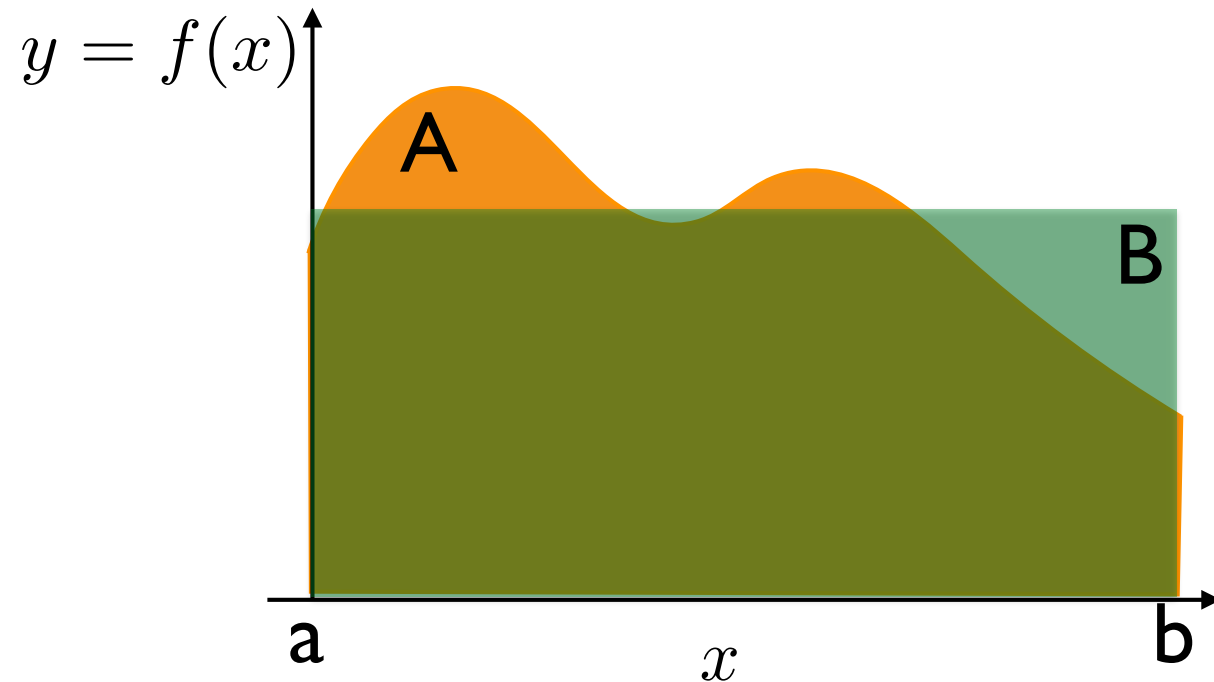
We need to be able to calculate $f(x)$ for any possible x with the range a and b .

We draw 2 random values, one for x and one for y . then evaluate $f(x)$, if $y < f(x)$ then we count this as $\#inside$. The $\#bounding\ box$ is the total number of draws.

Problem with the Acceptance-Rejection method

- How to choose the bounding box? It need to be big enough to contain the whole function. But if it is too big then we draw often random numbers above the function. If the bounding box is much larger than the area under the curve then we need many draws (or steps) to get a good accuracy.
- We need to draw two random numbers and 'discard' the draws that are above the function.

Usual Monte Carlo Integration



$$A = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$B = (b - a) f(c)$$

There must be an $f(c)$ that satisfies $A = B$.

Find $f(c)$ and we are done!

$$f(c) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)$$

where x_i are drawn uniformly between a and b

Monte Carlo Integration Algorithm

- Draw many x_i between the boundaries a and b
- Calculate the average \bar{x} of the collected x_i
- Calculate the area as $(b-a) \bar{x}$

Evaluation of Monte Carlo error

We will discuss how to calculate error at the end of the semester when we again talk about Monte Carlo.