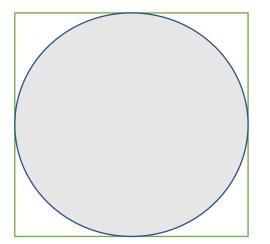
Probability and statistics, 2022, Computer Science Algorithmics, Undergraduate Course, Part II, lecturer: Mirosław Kutyłowski

2. Monte Carlo methods

Computing π on a desert:

Option 1: use Taylor series

Option 2: random experiment



General situation

a subset A of all values of a random variable X,
 what is the probability p that X falls into A?

We run *n* independent experiments and get *n* values of *X*

Estimation:
$$\hat{p} = \widehat{P} \{ X \in A \} = \frac{\text{number of } X_1, \dots, X_N \in A}{N},$$

$$\mathbf{E}(\hat{p}) = \frac{1}{N}(Np) = p, \text{ and}$$

Std $(\hat{p}) = \frac{1}{N}\sqrt{Np(1-p)} = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{N}}.$

How good it is this method?

We need guarantees like:

"the probability that is at most

To simplify the computation we can work on normal distribution:

$$\frac{N\hat{p} - Np}{\sqrt{Np(1-p)}} = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{N}}} \approx \text{ Normal}(0,1),$$

For normal distribution:

$$\mathbf{P}\left\{|\hat{p}-p|>\varepsilon\right\} = \mathbf{P}\left\{\frac{|\hat{p}-p|}{\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{N}}} > \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{N}}}\right\} \approx 2\Phi\left(-\frac{\varepsilon\sqrt{N}}{\sqrt{p(1-p)}}\right).$$

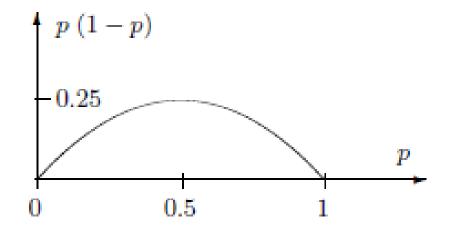
$$\Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^{2}/2} dz, \text{ Standard Normal cdf}$$

problem: we do not know *p* to perform this computation

A solution:

1) calculations for an intelligent guess for p

2) taking the worst possible p : make p(1-p) as big as possible (it happens for p=0.5)



A solution:

approach 1:

$$2\Phi\left(-\frac{\varepsilon\sqrt{N}}{\sqrt{p^*(1-p^*)}}\right) \leq \alpha$$

approach 2:

$$2\Phi\left(-2\varepsilon\sqrt{N}\right) \leq \alpha$$

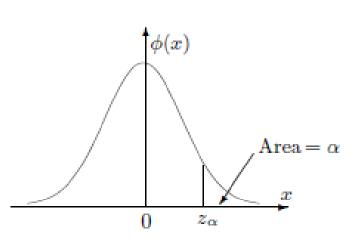
Finally:

$$N \ge p^*(1-p^*)\left(\frac{z_{\alpha/2}}{\varepsilon}\right)^2$$

approach 2:

approach 1:

$$N \ge 0.25 \left(\frac{z_{\alpha/2}}{\varepsilon}\right)^2$$



Why we approximate by Normal distribution? Why it leads to reasonable results?

This is a very frequent approach in many situations!

Central Limit Theorem : behavior of the sum of independent random variables:

$$S_n = X_1 + \ldots + X_n,$$

Let $\mu = \mathbf{E}(X_i)$ and $\sigma = \operatorname{Std}(X_i)$ for all $i = 1, \ldots, n.$

$$\operatorname{Var}(S_n) = n\sigma^2 \to \infty,$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(S_n/n) = \operatorname{Var}(S_n)/n^2 = n\sigma^2/n^2 = \sigma^2/n \to 0,$$

Theorem 1 (CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM) Let X_1, X_2, \ldots be independent random variables with the same expectation $\mu = \mathbf{E}(X_i)$ and the same standard deviation $\sigma = \text{Std}(X_i)$, and let

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = X_1 + \ldots + X_n.$$

As $n \to \infty$, the standardized sum

$$Z_n = \frac{S_n - \mathbf{E}(S_n)}{\operatorname{Std}(S_n)} = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}$$

converges in distribution to a Standard Normal random variable, that is,

$$F_{Z_n}(z) = \mathbf{P}\left\{\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \le z\right\} \to \Phi(z) \tag{4.18}$$

for all z.

Important properties:

- it does not matter which probability distribution has X the result is always the normal distribution

- convergence is strong: "in probability"

Important properties:

Proof: there are elementary ones but ... an elegant and really convincing argument is the one with generating functions

idea: transformation to a strange form of a power series where:

- -- the first coefficient is zero (as the expected value of normalized X is 0)
- -- the 2nd coefficient does not disappear and is normalized
- -- the higher coefficients converge to 0 with N

-- for normal distribution, everything disappears right away

Estimating means and standard deviations:

- CLT: when computing the sum of iid random variables then the result converges to normal distribution
- However: the parameters of normal distribution depend on Expectation and Variance:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{N} \left(X_1 + \ldots + X_N \right)$$

$$\mathbf{E}(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{E}X_1 + \dots + \mathbf{E}X_N) = \frac{1}{N} (N\mu) = \mu, \text{ and}$$
$$\operatorname{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{N^2} (\operatorname{Var}X_1 + \dots + \operatorname{Var}X_N) = \frac{1}{N^2} (N\sigma^2) = \frac{\sigma^2}{N}.$$

Expected value:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{N} \left(X_1 + \ldots + X_N \right) \qquad \mathbf{E}(\bar{X}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathbf{E}}$$

So we have an *unbiased estimator*

Variance:

The situation is more complicated:

$$\operatorname{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{N^2} (\operatorname{Var}X_1 + \ldots + \operatorname{Var}X_N) = \frac{1}{N^2} (N\sigma^2) = \frac{\sigma^2}{N}.$$

But we need to compute variance $VarX_1$, ...

Impossible, since we have only an estimator for the expected value

Solution (to be explained later) -- an unbiased estimator:

$$s^{2} = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(X_{i} - \bar{X} \right)^{2}$$

2-Monte Carlo

Estimating volume:

Naïve approach: take grid points and check how many of them fall into a set A

Problem cases:

(Very) Complicated cases:

Spaces where alone finding the elements as well as finding random elements is hard

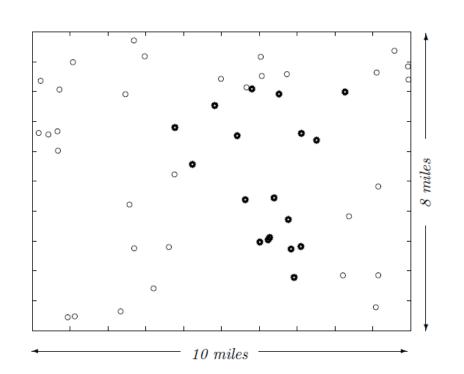
Example: maximal matchings in a graph G that contain an edge (u,v)

General approach:

- 1. N random variables, Y(i) is an element of the space chosen with uniform probability
- 2. X(i)=1 iff Y(i) belongs to A, otherwise X(i)=0

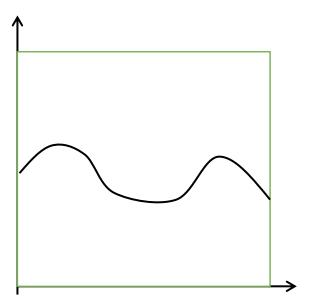
Volume of A = E[$\frac{1}{N}(X_1 + ... + X_N)$]

Easier than interpretation of a picture and drawing boundaries:



Monte Carlo integration:

- = 1000; Ν
- U
- % Number of simulations
- = rand(N,1); % (U,V) is a random point
- V = rand(N,1); % in the bounding box
- I = mean(V < g(U)) % Estimator of integral I





$$\operatorname{Std}\left(\hat{\mathcal{I}}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{\mathcal{I}(1-\mathcal{I})}{N}}$$

Monte Carlo integration - improved:

$$\mathcal{I} = \int_{a}^{b} g(x)dx = \int_{a}^{b} \frac{g(x)}{f(x)}f(x)\,dx = \mathbf{E}\left(\frac{g(X)}{f(X)}\right)$$

- N = 1000; Z = randn(N,1); f = 1/sqrt(2*Pi) * exp(-Z.^2/2); Iest = mean(g(Z)./f(Z))
- % Number of simulations % Standard Normal variables % Standard Normal density % Estimator of $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \, dx$

Accuracy:

choose f such that g(X)/f(X) is nearly constant then variance of a random variable R=g(X)/f(X) is small

 \rightarrow so the average has smaller variation as well

For f=1

$$\sigma^2 = \operatorname{Var} R = \operatorname{Var} g(X) = \operatorname{E} g^2(X) - \operatorname{E}^2 g(X) = \int_0^1 g^2(x) dx - \mathcal{I}^2 \leq \mathcal{I} - \mathcal{I}^2,$$

$$\int g^2 \leq g \text{ for } 0 \leq g \leq 1.$$