
MONTE CARLO METHOD AND VARIANCE REDUCTION TECHNIQUES.

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- **Monte Carlo integration:** estimate by simulation expectations of the form

$$\theta = E[\phi(X)] = E[\phi(X_1, \dots, X_k)],$$

where

1. $\phi : (\mathbf{R}^k, B_k) \longrightarrow (\mathbf{R}, B)$ is measurable.
 2. $X = (X_1, \dots, X_k)$ is a random variable with dimension k .
- **Estimation procedure:** Given the simulated sample

$$X^{(1)} = (X_1^{(1)}, \dots, X_k^{(1)}), \dots, X^{(n)} = (X_1^{(n)}, \dots, X_k^{(n)}),$$

estimator is

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi(X^{(i)}).$$

- By applying the Central Limit Theorem, we get

$$\hat{\theta} \sim N\left(\mu = \theta, \sigma^2 = \frac{\tau}{n}\right).$$

- A 95% confidence interval of θ is

$$\hat{\theta} \pm 1.96 \frac{\sqrt{\tau}}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

Remark:

1. The width of the interval is proportional to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$.
2. To reduce width to the its half, we have multiply the number of observations by 4.
3. Variance reduction techniques try to reduce the value of τ .
4. An adequate design of a simulation experiment can improve the precision of estimations for a given computational cost and viceversa.

Example: Estimate the integral

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx.$$

Note: The target of the presented examples is to analyze the precision of estimators. For this reason we will consider integrals with known numerical value. In this example, numerical value is $\frac{\pi}{4}$.

- Integral is the area in the first quadrant of the unity circle.
- We generate uniform random points in the unity square $(0, 1) \times (0, 1)$.

- n is the number of generated points.
- R is the number of points in the region A under the curve $y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ (number of hits).
- R/n is the estimation of the probability of hitting the region A .
- $\tilde{\pi} = 4R/n$ is the estimate of π .
- $V[\tilde{\pi}] = 2.697/n$

- Let $a < b \in \mathbf{R}$.
- Let $\phi : (a, b) \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^+$ be a measurable function such that $0 \leq \phi(x) \leq c$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.

We want to estimate

$$\theta = \int_a^b \phi(x) dx;$$

this is to say, the area under the curve $\phi(x)$.

- Generate pairs (U, V) , where $U \sim \mathcal{U}(a, b)$ y $V \sim \mathcal{U}(0, c)$.
- R is the number of points (U, V) under the curve $\phi(x)$.
- n is the number of generated points.

The hit or miss Monte Carlo estimators is

$$\tilde{\theta} = c(b - a)\hat{P}(V \leq \phi(U)) = c(b - a)\frac{R}{n}.$$

- $E[\tilde{\theta}] = \theta$
- $V[\tilde{\theta}] = \frac{\theta}{n}[c(b - a) - \theta]$

Let $\phi : (\mathbf{R}^k, \mathcal{B}_k) \longrightarrow (\mathbf{R}, \mathcal{B})$ be measurable. The **pure Monte Carlo method** estimates

$$\theta = E[\phi(X)] = \int_{\mathbf{R}^k} \phi(x) f(x) dx$$

with

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi(X^{(i)}),$$

where $X^{(1)}, \dots, X^{(n)}$ is a random sample simulated from $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n) \sim f(\cdot)$.

Corollary.

$$\bullet \quad E[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$$

$$\bullet \quad V[\hat{\theta}] = \frac{1}{n} \int_{\mathbf{R}^k} (\phi(x) - \theta)^2 f(x) dx$$

Example ($I = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx$, continuation).

- $\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} \cdot f_{\mathcal{U}(0,1)}(x) \cdot dx = E[\sqrt{1-U^2}]$

- $U \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

- Let U_1, \dots, U_n be i.i.d. $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

- $\hat{I} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sqrt{1-U_i^2}$

- $V[\hat{I}] = 0.0498/n$.

- $\hat{\pi} = 4\hat{I}$

- $V[\hat{\pi}] = 0.7968/n$.

Remark. The same amount of generated random numbers $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$ should be considered when comparing simulation methods.

$$V[\text{Hit or Miss Monte Carlo}] = \frac{2.697}{n}$$

$$V[\text{Pure Monte Carlo}] = \frac{0.7968}{2n} = \frac{0.398}{n}.$$

For hit or miss Monte Carlo the estimator variance is approximately 7 times greater than for pure Monte Carlo.

Proposition. Let $\phi : (a, b) \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^+$,

$$0 \leq \phi(\cdot) \leq c, \theta = \int_a^b \phi(x) dx. \text{ Then}$$

$$V[\hat{\theta}] \leq V[\tilde{\theta}]; \quad \text{with " = " } \iff \phi(\cdot) \equiv c.$$

Conclusion. Hit or miss Monte Carlo **never** should be used, because its variance is always greater than the one of pure Monte Carlo.

Problem: estimate

$$\theta = E[\phi(X)] = E[\phi(X_1, \dots, X_k)];$$

Basic solution:

- $Y_1 = \phi(X_1^{(1)}, \dots, X_k^{(1)}), \dots, Y_n = \phi(X_1^{(n)}, \dots, X_k^{(n)})$

- $\hat{\theta} = \bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$

- $E[\bar{Y}] = \theta$

- $V[\bar{Y}] = \frac{V[Y_i]}{n}$

Target: Reduce $V[\bar{Y}]$.

Idea: Let Y_1 e Y_2 be identically distributed random variables with $E[Y_i] = \theta$.
Then

$$E \left[\frac{Y_1 + Y_2}{2} \right] = \theta,$$
$$V \left[\frac{Y_1 + Y_2}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{2}V[Y_1] + \frac{1}{2}\text{Cov}(Y_1, Y_2).$$

Conclusion: It is preferred that Y_1 and Y_2 be negatively correlated than they be independent.

Definition.

- Let X_1, \dots, X_n be independent random variables such that $X_i \sim F_i$.
- $X_i = F_i^{-1}(U_i)$, where U_1, \dots, U_k i.i.d. $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

Y_1 and Y_2 are **antithetic** if and only if

$$Y_1 = \phi(F_1^{-1}(U_1), \dots, F_k^{-1}(U_k))$$

$$Y_2 = \phi(F_1^{-1}(1 - U_1), \dots, F_k^{-1}(1 - U_k)),$$

where $\phi : (\mathbf{R}^k, \mathcal{B}_k) \longrightarrow (\mathbf{R}, \mathcal{B})$:

- measurable
- be monotonously increasing (or decreasing) in all its arguments.

Corollary. If Y_1 and Y_2 are antithetic, then they are identically distributed and dependent.

Proposition. If Y_1 and Y_2 are antithetic, then $\text{Cov}(Y_1, Y_2) \leq 0$.

Definition. The antithetic estimator of θ is

$$\hat{\theta}_A = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(Y_i^{(1)} + Y_i^{(2)} \right),$$

$$Y_i^{(1)} = \phi(F_1^{-1}(U_1^{(i)}), \dots, F_k^{-1}(U_k^{(i)}))$$

$$Y_i^{(2)} = \phi(F_1^{-1}(1 - U_1^{(i)}), \dots, F_k^{-1}(1 - U_k^{(i)}))$$

$U_1^{(1)}, \dots, U_k^{(1)}, U_1^{(2)}, \dots, U_k^{(2)}, \dots, U_1^{(n)}, \dots, U_k^{(n)}$ son v.a.i.i.d. $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

Corollary.

$$E[\hat{\theta}_A] = \theta, \quad V[\hat{\theta}_A] = \frac{1}{2n} V[Y_i^{(1)}] + \frac{1}{2n} \text{Cov}(Y_i^{(1)}, Y_i^{(2)}).$$

Corollary. $V[\hat{\theta}_A] \leq \frac{1}{2} V[\hat{\theta}]$.

Remark. The estimator $\hat{\theta}_A$ is preferred to $\hat{\theta}$ because it has lower variance. Variance is reduced at least to a half.

Example. $\theta = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx$, continuation).

The antithetic estimator of θ is

$$\hat{\theta}_A = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sqrt{1-U_i^2} + \sqrt{1-(1-U_i)^2} \right).$$

$$E[\hat{\theta}_A] = \theta = \pi/4, \quad V[\hat{\theta}_A] = \frac{0.01355}{2n},$$

Observación. Based on n generated uniform random numbers, we have

$$V[\hat{\theta}] = 0.0498/n, \quad V[\hat{\theta}_A] = 0.006775/n.$$

Conclusion: Variance of $\hat{\theta}_A$ is approximately 7 times lower than variance of $\hat{\theta}$.

- We want to estimate $\theta = E[\phi(X_1, \dots, X_k)]$.
- We have a measurable function

$$\psi : (\mathbf{R}^k, \mathcal{B}_k) \longrightarrow (\mathbf{R}, \mathcal{B})$$

such that $E[\psi(X)] = E[\psi(X_1, \dots, X_k)] = \mu$ is known.

We define, for all $a \in \mathbf{R}$,

$$W(X_1, \dots, X_k) = \phi(X_1, \dots, X_k) - a(\psi(X_1, \dots, X_k) - \mu).$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[W(X_1, \dots, X_k)] &= \theta \\ V[W(X_1, \dots, X_k)] &= V[\phi(X)] + a^2 V[\psi(X)] \\ &\quad - 2a \text{Cov}(\phi(X), \psi(X)), \end{aligned}$$

where $X = (X_1, \dots, X_k)$.

Corollary. $V[W]$ is minimized in

$$a = \frac{\text{Cov}(\phi(X), \psi(X))}{V[\psi(X)]},$$

and for this value of a we get

$$V[W] = V[\phi(X)] - \frac{\text{Cov}(\phi(X), \psi(X))^2}{V[\psi(X)]}.$$

Definition. Let

$$\begin{aligned} X^{(1)} &= (X_1^{(1)}, \dots, X_k^{(1)}) \\ &\vdots \\ X^{(n)} &= (X_1^{(n)}, \dots, X_k^{(n)}) \end{aligned}$$

be a random sample simulated from $X = (X_1, \dots, X_k)$.

The **control estimator** of θ is

$$\hat{\theta}_C = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\phi(X^{(i)}) - a(\psi(X^{(i)}) - \mu) \right]$$

Definition. Given three control variates ψ_1 , ψ_2 and ψ_3 such that $E[\psi_1] = \mu_1$, $E[\psi_2] = \mu_2$ and $E[\psi_3] = \mu_3$, the **control estimator** is

$$\hat{\theta}_C = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\phi(X^{(i)}) - a_1(\psi_1(X^{(i)}) - \mu_1) - a_2(\psi_2(X^{(i)}) - \mu_2) - a_3(\psi_3(X^{(i)}) - \mu_3) \right]$$

Corollary.

1. $E[\hat{\theta}_C] = \theta$,
2. $V[\hat{\theta}_C] = \frac{V[\phi(X)]}{n} - \frac{\text{Cov}(\phi(X), \psi(X))^2}{nV[\psi(X)]}$, $V[\hat{\theta}_C] \leq V[\hat{\theta}]$.

Remark. Optimal value of a cannot be calculated because $\text{Cov}(\phi(X), \psi(X))$ is unknown.

This problem can be solved as follows:

1. Do previously a pilot simulation to estimate $\text{Cov}(\phi(X), \psi(X))$ and use the estimated value of “ a ”.
 2. Estimate “ a ” directly from the simulated data.
- First method has the disadvantage of being more slow.
 - Second method has the disadvantage that “ a ” is not a constant any more to became a function of $X = (X_1, \dots, X_k)$, so that $\hat{\theta}_C$ is not unbiased.

- We want to estimate by simulation

$$\theta = \int_a^b \phi(x) dx,$$

where $\phi : \mathcal{R} \longrightarrow \mathcal{R}$ is measurable and positive.

- We want to estimate the area under the curve $y = \phi(x)$, between $x = a$ and $x = b$.

Procedure:

1. Divide the interval (a, b) in k disjoint subintervals

$$(\alpha_0, \alpha_1], (\alpha_1, \alpha_2], \dots, (\alpha_{k-1}, \alpha_k),$$

with $\alpha_0 = a$ and $\alpha_k = b$.

2. Variability of $\phi(x)$ within each subinterval is lower than in the interval (a, b) .

Idea: Estimate by pure Monte Carlo method

$$\theta_j = \int_{\alpha_{j-1}}^{\alpha_j} \phi(x) dx,$$

to obtain $\theta = \sum_{j=1}^k \theta_j$.

Monte Carlo method to estimate θ_j

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_j &= (\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1}) \int_{\alpha_{j-1}}^{\alpha_j} \phi(x) \frac{1}{\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1}} dx \\ &= (\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1}) \int_{\alpha_{j-1}}^{\alpha_j} \phi(x) f_{\mathcal{U}(\alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_j)}(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

The estimator of θ_j is

$$\hat{\theta}_j = (\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1}) \frac{1}{n_j} \sum_{i=1}^{n_j} \phi(\alpha_{j-1} + (\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1})U_{ij})$$

where U_{ij} i.i.d. $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$

Definition: $\hat{\theta}_E = \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{\theta}_j.$

$$E[\hat{\theta}_E] = \sum_{j=1}^k E[\hat{\theta}_j] = \sum_{j=1}^k \theta_j = \theta$$

$$V[\hat{\theta}_E] = \sum_{j=1}^k V[\hat{\theta}_j] = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{(\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1})^2}{n_j} V[\phi(X_{ij})],$$

where $X_{ij} \sim \mathcal{U}(\alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_j)$, and because of

$$V[\phi(X_{ij})] = \frac{1}{\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1}} \int_{\alpha_{j-1}}^{\alpha_j} \phi^2(x) dx - \left(\frac{1}{\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1}} \int_{\alpha_{j-1}}^{\alpha_j} \phi(x) dx \right)^2,$$

it holds

$$V[\hat{\theta}_E] = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{n_j} \left\{ (\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1}) \int_{\alpha_{j-1}}^{\alpha_j} \phi^2(x) dx - \left(\int_{\alpha_{j-1}}^{\alpha_j} \phi(x) dx \right)^2 \right\}$$

Remark. When using stratified sampling we have to choose k , $\{\alpha_j\}$ and $\{n_j\}$.

Problem: Given n , k and $\{\alpha_j\}$. Find $\{n_j\}$ such that $V[\hat{\theta}_E]$ be minimized.

This is to say

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{minimize} \\ \text{Restricted to} \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} V[\hat{\theta}_E] = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{a_j}{n_j} \\ \sum_{j=1}^k n_j = n \end{array}$$

where $a_j = (\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1})^2 V[\phi(X_{ij})]$.

Solution:

$$n_j \propto \sqrt{a_j} = (\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1}) \sqrt{V[\phi(X_{ij})]},$$

where $X_j \sim \mathcal{U}(\alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_j)$

Remark. $V[\phi(X_{ij})]$ is unknown; however the conclusion is clear: n_j should be large if size of stratum is large or if variability within the stratum is large.

How to proceed:

1. First, select the $\{\alpha_j\}$ in such a way that the curve $y = \phi(x)$ be approximately constant in the intervals (α_{j-1}, α_j) . This is to say, in such a way that $V[\phi(X_{ij})] \cong \text{constant}$. Second, select n_j proportionally to the length of the interval $(\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1})$.
2. Estimate $V[\phi(X_j)]$ with a pilot simulation. Choose n_j according to the formula $n_j \propto (\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1}) \sqrt{\widehat{V}[\phi(X_{ij})]}$.

- We want to estimate by simulation

$$\theta = \int_a^b \phi(x) dx,$$

where $\phi: \mathbf{R} \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^+$ is measurable and positive.

- Let $f(\cdot)$ be a density function with support in the interval (a, b) , then

$$\theta = \int_a^b \phi(x) dx = \int_a^b \frac{\phi(x)}{f(x)} f(x) dx = E \left[\frac{\phi(X)}{f(X)} \right],$$

where $X \sim f(\cdot)$.

- If X_1, \dots, X_n is a simulated random sample from $f(\cdot)$, we can estimate θ by the pure Monte Carlo method. We have

$$\hat{\theta}_I = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\phi(X_i)}{f(X_i)}$$

$$(1) \quad E \left[\widehat{\theta}_I \right] = \theta$$

$$(2) \quad V \left[\widehat{\theta}_I \right] = \frac{1}{n} \left\{ \int_a^b \frac{\phi^2(x)}{f(x)} dx - \theta^2 \right\}$$

Remarks.

- If $f(x) = \frac{\phi(x)}{\theta} \Rightarrow V \left[\widehat{\theta}_I \right] = 0$.

$f(x) = \frac{\phi(x)}{\theta} I_{(a,b)}(x)$ is the optimal selection.

As θ is unknown, we can choose $f(x)$ with a shape similar to $\phi(x)$.

- The “importance sampling method” is so called because $\phi(\cdot)$ is evaluated more frequently in the places where it is more beneficial.

Remark.

- Stratified sampling estimation method is a particular case of the importance sampling method, when f is a mixture of uniform distributions

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{n_j}{n} \frac{1}{(\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1})} I_{(\alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_j)}(x)$$

Example (Estimation of $P(\mathcal{N}(0, 1) < a)$)

We want to estimate

$$\theta = \int_{-\infty}^a \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx = \int_{-\infty}^a \phi(x) dx.$$

A probability density function with shape similar to $\phi(\cdot)$ is the logistic p.d.f. with mean 0 and variance 1; this is to say

$$f(x) = \frac{\pi e^{-\frac{\pi x}{\sqrt{3}}}}{\sqrt{3} \left(1 + e^{-\frac{\pi x}{\sqrt{3}}}\right)^2}.$$

We can write

$$\theta = \int_{-\infty}^a \frac{k\phi(x)}{f(x)} \frac{f(x)}{k} dx,$$

where $k \in \mathbf{R}$ is such that $g(x) = \frac{f(x)}{k}$ is a p.d.f. in $(-\infty, a)$. Therefore

$$k = \int_{-\infty}^a \frac{\pi e^{-\frac{\pi x}{\sqrt{3}}}}{\sqrt{3} \left(1 + e^{-\frac{\pi x}{\sqrt{3}}}\right)^2} dx = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\frac{\pi a}{\sqrt{3}}}}.$$

Finally, the estimator of θ is

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n \left(1 + e^{-\frac{\pi x}{\sqrt{3}}}\right)} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\phi(x_i)}{f(x_i)},$$

where x_1, \dots, x_n are random numbers from the p.d.f. $g(\cdot)$.

Generation of $X \sim g(\cdot)$.

To generate X we can combine the *rejection* and the *inversion* methods.

1. We apply the inversion method to generate logistic random numbers with mean 0 and variance 1.

$$u = F(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\frac{\pi x}{\sqrt{3}}}} \Leftrightarrow \frac{\pi x}{\sqrt{3}} = -\log \frac{1-u}{u}.$$

Generation formula is

$$x = F^{-1}(u) = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{\pi} \log \frac{1-u}{u}.$$

2. We apply a rejection criterium to obtain values of X with logistic distribution truncated at $(-\infty, a)$.

Algorithm:

1. Generate $U \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$
2. Do $X = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{\pi} \ln \frac{1-u}{u}$
3. If $X > a$, go to 1.
4. Output: X

Problem: estimate

$$\theta = E[Y] = E[\phi(X)] = E[\phi(X_1, \dots, X_k)],$$

where $\phi : (\mathbf{R}^k, B_k) \longrightarrow (\mathbf{R}, B)$ is measurable

Basic solution:

- $X^{(1)} = (X_1^{(1)}, \dots, X_k^{(1)}), \dots, X^{(n)} = (X_1^{(n)}, \dots, X_k^{(n)})$ is a random sample from X .
- *Monte Carlo Estimator*

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi(X^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y^{(i)}.$$

Target: Reduce $V[\hat{\theta}]$.

Idea: Conditioning.

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y] &= E[E[Y / Z]], \\ V[Y] &= E[V[Y / Z]] + V[E[Y / Z]], \end{aligned}$$

Let $Z^{(1)}, \dots, Z^{(n)}$ be random variables such that $E[Y^{(i)} / Z^{(i)}]$ can be easily calculated. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} E[E[Y^{(i)} / Z^{(i)}]] &= E[Y^{(i)}] = \theta, \\ V[E[Y^{(i)} / Z^{(i)}]] &= V[Y^{(i)}] - E[V[Y^{(i)} / Z^{(i)}]] \\ &\leq V[Y^{(i)}]. \end{aligned}$$

The *conditional Monte Carlo estimator* of θ is:

$$\hat{\theta}_Z = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E[Y^{(i)} / Z^{(i)}].$$

For the conditional estimator, it holds

$$V[\hat{\theta}_Z] \leq V[\hat{\theta}].$$

Example 8.1.

$W \sim \mathcal{P}o(\lambda)$ and $X \sim \mathcal{B}e(W, W^2 + 1)$.

The algorithm to calculate the *Monte Carlo estimator* is:

1. Generate n pairs $(W^{(i)}, X^{(i)})$, $i = 1, \dots, n$;

$$W^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{P}o(\lambda), X^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{B}e(W^{(i)}, W^{(i)2} + 1).$$

2. Calculate $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X^{(i)}$.

Conditional Monte Carlo method:

$$E[X / W = w] = \frac{w}{w^2 + w + 1}$$

$$\theta = \sum_{w=0}^{\infty} E[X / W = w] \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^w}{w!}.$$

The algorithm to calculate the *conditional Monte Carlo estimator* is:

1. Generate n values $W^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{P}o(\lambda)$.

2. Calculate $\hat{\theta}_W = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{W^{(i)}}{W^{(i)2} + W^{(i)} + 1}$.

Another case:

- For $j = 1, 2, \dots$, there exist random variables $Z_j^{(1)}, \dots, Z_j^{(n)}$ such that $E[Y^{(i)} / Z_j^{(i)}]$ be calculable.
- Let p_1, p_2, \dots be such that $p_j \geq 0, \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j = 1$.
- The *conditional Monte Carlo estimator* of θ is:

$$\hat{\theta}_{p,Z} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E[Y^{(i)} / Z_j^{(i)}]$$

Proposition.

$$E \left[\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j E[y / Z_j] \right] = E[Y], \quad V \left[\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j E[y / Z_j] \right] \leq V[Y].$$

Example 8.2. Let X_1, X_2, \dots be independent exponential random variables with parameters $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots$ respectively. Estimate

$$\theta = P(X_1 + \dots + X_k \leq t) = E[\phi(X_1, \dots, X_k)],$$

where

$$Y = \phi(X_1, \dots, X_k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sum_{\ell=1}^k X_\ell \leq t \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Solution: Let the random sample

$$\begin{aligned} X^{(1)} &= (X_1^{(1)}, \dots, X_k^{(1)}) \\ &\vdots \\ X^{(n)} &= (X_1^{(n)}, \dots, X_k^{(n)}) \end{aligned}$$

simulated from $X = (X_1, \dots, X_k)$.

Pure Monte Carlo estimator is:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\theta}_1 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi(X^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \\ &= \frac{\text{number of samples such that } \sum_{\ell=1}^n X_{\ell} \leq t}{n} \end{aligned}$$

We are interested in finding the *Monte Carlo estimator conditioned to*

$$\varepsilon_j(X) = (X_1, \dots, X_{j-1}, X_{j+1}, \dots, X_k)$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[Y / \varepsilon_j(X)] &= P \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^k X_{\ell} \leq t / \varepsilon_j(X) \right) \\
 &= F_j \left(t - \sum_{\ell \neq j}^k X_{\ell} \right),
 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$F_j(s) = 1 - \exp\{-\lambda_j s\}, \quad s > 0.$$

The **conditional Monte Carlo estimator** is:

$$\hat{\theta}_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k p_j F_j \left(t - \sum_{\ell \neq j}^k X_{\ell}^{(i)} \right)$$

where $p_j \geq 0$, $j = 1, \dots, k$ y $\sum_{j=1}^k p_j = 1$.

- Generate n i.i.d. random variables, $Y^{(1)}, \dots, Y^{(n)}$, with mean μ and variance σ^2 .
- Use $\bar{Y}_n = \frac{1}{n} (Y^{(1)} + \dots + Y^{(n)})$ to estimate μ .
- The precision of the estimator can be measure with its variance

$$V[\bar{Y}_n] = E [(\bar{Y}_n - \mu)^2] = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$$

Problem: Find the sample size n such that $V[\bar{Y}_n]$ be sufficiently small.

Solution: If random variables $Y^{(i)}$ are normal, the problem can be solved with a 95% confidence interval for μ

$$\bar{Y}_n \pm \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

“find n such that $\frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \varepsilon$ ”.

Procedure:

As σ^2 is unknown, simulate initially m variables $Y^{(1)}, \dots, Y^{(m)}$, where $m \geq 30$ (in order to make the Central Limit Theorem applicable) and estimate σ^2 with

$$\hat{\sigma}_m^2 = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(Y^{(i)} - \bar{Y}_m \right)^2.$$

If ε the desired precision level, then

$$\frac{1.96^2 \hat{\sigma}_m^2}{n} \leq \varepsilon^2 \iff n \geq \left(\frac{1.96 \hat{\sigma}_m}{\varepsilon} \right)^2 ;$$

this is to say,

$$n = \left\lceil \left(\frac{1.96 \hat{\sigma}_m}{\varepsilon} \right)^2 \right\rceil + 1.$$

Finally,

- If $n > m$, then generate $n - m$ new random variables $Y^{(i)}$.
- If $n \leq m$, then do not generate new random variables $Y^{(i)}$.

Example.

Estimate by simulation the parameter

$$\theta = P(\mathcal{N}(0, 1) < 1),$$

whose value is known to be $\theta = 0.8413$.

Example 10.1.

$$\theta = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) f_{\mathcal{N}(0,1)}(x) dx,$$

where $\phi(x) = I_{(-\infty,1)}(x)$.

In this case, Monte Carlo estimator is

$$\hat{\theta}_1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi(X_i) = \frac{\text{Núm. de } X_i < 1}{n},$$

where X_1, \dots, X_n are i.i.d. $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. We have

$$V \left[\hat{\theta}_1 \right] = \frac{0,1335}{n}.$$

To obtain a precision of 10^{-3} with a 95% confidence we need

$$n = \left[(1.96)^2 0.1335 \cdot 10^6 \right] + 1 = 512854 \text{ simulated random variables.}$$

Example 10.2.

$$\theta = 1 - \frac{1}{2}P(|\mathcal{N}(0, 1)| > 1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) f_{\mathcal{N}(0,1)}(x) dx,$$

where $\phi(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{2}I_{(-\infty, -1) \cup (1, \infty)}(x)$.

In this case, Monte Carlo estimator is

$$\hat{\theta}_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi(x_i) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{R_2}{n},$$

where the x_i are random numbers from a $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ pd.f. and R_2 is the number of x_i such that $|x_i| > 1$. We have

$$V[\hat{\theta}_2] = \frac{0.05416}{n}$$

To obtain a precision of 10^{-3} with a 95% confidence we need

$$n = \lceil (1.96)^2 0.05416 \cdot 10^6 \rceil + 1 = 208062 \text{ simulated random variables.}$$

Example 10.3. $\theta = \frac{1}{2} + I,$

$$I = P(0 < \mathcal{N}(0, 1) < 1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) f_{\mathcal{N}(0,1)}(x) dx$$

where $\phi(x) = I_{(0,1)}(x).$

In this case, Monte Carlo estimator is $\hat{\theta}_3 = \frac{1}{2} + \hat{I}_3,$ where

- $\hat{I}_3 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi(x_i) = \frac{R_3}{n}$

- x_1, \dots, x_n are $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ random numbers.

- R_3 is the number of $x_i \in (0, 1).$

We have

$$V[\hat{\theta}_3] = \frac{0.2248}{n}$$

To obtain a precision of 10^{-3} with a 95% confidence we need

$$n = \lceil (1.96)^2 0.2248 \cdot 10^6 \rceil + 1 = 863647 \text{ simulated random variables.}$$

Example 10.4. $\theta = \frac{1}{2} + I$,

$$I = P(0 < \mathcal{N}(0, 1) < 1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) f_{\mathcal{U}(0,1)}(x) dx$$

where $f_{\mathcal{U}(0,1)}(x) = I_{(0,1)}(x)$ y $\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}$.

Monte Carlo estimator of θ is

$$\hat{\theta}_4 = \frac{1}{2} + \hat{I}_4$$

where

$$\hat{I}_4 = \frac{1}{n\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{-\frac{1}{2}U_i^2}$$

and U_1, \dots, U_n are i.i.d. $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

We get

$$V[\hat{\theta}_4] = \frac{0.00238931}{n}.$$

To obtain a precision of 10^{-3} with a 95% confidence we need $n = [(1.96)^2 0.0023893 \cdot 10^6] + 1 = 9179$ simulated random variables.

Note: In Examples 10.5 and 10.6 estimator $\hat{\theta}_4$ has been improved.

Example 10.5. $\theta = \frac{1}{2} + I$,

$$I = P(0 < \mathcal{N}(0, 1) < 1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) f_{\mathcal{U}(0,1)}(x) dx$$

where $f_{\mathcal{U}(0,1)}(x) = I_{(0,1)}(x)$ y $\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}$.

Antithetic estimator of θ is

$$\hat{\theta}_5 = \frac{1}{2} + \hat{I}_5$$

where

$$\hat{I}_5 = \frac{1}{2n\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ e^{-\frac{1}{2}U_i^2} + e^{-\frac{1}{2}(1-U_i)^2} \right\}$$

and U_1, \dots, U_n are i.i.d. $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

Variance of estimator is

$$V[\hat{\theta}_5] = V[\hat{I}_5] = \frac{1}{2}V[\hat{I}] + \frac{1}{2n}\text{Cov}\left(\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}U^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}(1-U)^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) = \frac{0.0001278}{n}$$

To obtain a precision of 10^{-3} with a 95% confidence we need

$n = \lceil (1.96)^2 0.0001278 \cdot 10^6 \rceil + 1 = 491$ random variables simulated from a $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$ distribution.

Example 10.6. Antithetic estimator in Example 9.5 can be improved by using control variates.

Observe that

$$e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} + e^{-\frac{(1-x)^2}{2}} \approx -x^2 + x + \frac{3}{2},$$

in a neighborhood of the origin.

Let

- $\psi(x) = -x^2 + x$ be a control function
- $\phi(x) = \phi_1(x) + \phi_2(x)$
- $\phi_1(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$
- $\phi_2(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(1-x)^2}{2}}$

The Control antithetic estimator is

$$\hat{\theta}_6 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{\phi(U_i) - a(\psi(U_i) - \mu)\},$$

where

- U_1, \dots, U_n are i.i.d. $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$
- $\mu = E[\psi(U_i)]$.

We have

$$\mu = E[\psi] = -E[U^2] + E[U] = -\int_0^1 u^2 du + \int_0^1 u du = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$V[\hat{\theta}_6] = \frac{V[\phi]}{n} - \frac{Cov(\phi, \psi)^2}{V[\psi]} = \frac{0.0000244}{n},$$

To obtain a precision of 10^{-3} with a 95% confidence we need

$n = [(1.96)^2 0.0000244 \cdot 10^6] + 1 = 94$ random variables simulated from a $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$ distribution.