#### **IEOR E4703: Monte-Carlo Simulation**

#### **Output Analysis for Monte-Carlo**

**Martin Haugh** 

Department of Industrial Engineering and Operations Research Columbia University Email: martin.b.haugh@gmail.com

#### **Output Analysis**

Recall our simulation framework for estimating  $\theta := \mathbb{E}[h(\mathbf{X})]$  where  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

We first simulate  $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$  IID and then set

$$\widehat{\theta}_n = \frac{h(\mathbf{X}_1) + \ldots + h(\mathbf{X}_n)}{n}.$$

The Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN) implies

$$\widehat{\theta}_n \to \theta \ \, \text{as} \ \, n \to \infty \text{ w.p. } 1.$$

But how large n should be so that we can have confidence in our estimator,  $\hat{\theta}_n$ ?

We can figure this out through the use of confidence intervals.

## Output Analysis

Suppose then that we wish to estimate  $\theta$  and we have a random vector  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$  whose distribution depends on  $\theta$ .

We seek  $L(\mathbf{Y})$  and  $U(\mathbf{Y})$  such that

 $P(L(\mathbf{Y}) \le \theta \le U(\mathbf{Y})) = 1 - \alpha$ 

where  $0 \le \alpha \le 1$  is a pre-specified number.

We then say that  $[L(\mathbf{Y}), U(\mathbf{Y})]$  is a  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\theta$ .

Note that  $[L(\mathbf{Y}), U(\mathbf{Y})]$  is a random interval.

However, once we replace  ${\bf Y}$  with a sample vector,  ${\bf y},$  then  $[L({\bf y}),\,U({\bf y})]$  becomes a real interval.

**Question:** How can we find  $L(\mathbf{Y})$  and  $U(\mathbf{Y})$ ?

# The Chebyshev Inequality

 $Y_i{\rm 's}$  are assumed IID so  ${\rm Var}(\widehat{\theta}_n)=\sigma^2/n$  where  $\sigma^2:={\rm Var}(\,Y)$ 

- clearly a small value of  $\mathsf{Var}(\widehat{\theta}_n)$  implies a more accurate estimate of  $\theta.$ 

Indeed Chebyshev's Inequality states that for any k > 0 we have

$$P\left(|\widehat{\theta}_n - \theta| \ge k\right) \le \frac{\mathsf{Var}(\widehat{\theta}_n)}{k^2}.$$
(1)

Could easily use Chebyshev's Inequality to construct (how?) confidence intervals for  $\theta$  but it is generally very conservative.

**Question:** Why does Chebyshev's Inequality generally lead to conservative confidence intervals?

Instead, will use the Central Limit Theorem (CLT) to obtain better estimates of  $P\left(|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta| \ge k\right)$ 

- and therefore narrower confidence intervals for  $\theta$ .

#### The Central Limit Theorem

**Theorem. (Central Limit Theorem)** Suppose  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  are IID and  $\mathbb{E}[Y_i^2] < \infty$ . Then

$$rac{\widehat{ heta}_n - heta}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \; \stackrel{d}{
ightarrow} \, {\sf N}(0,1) \; \; {\sf as} \; \; n 
ightarrow \infty$$

where  $\widehat{\theta}_n = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i/n$  ,  $\theta := \mathbb{E}[Y_i]$  and  $\sigma^2 := \mathsf{Var}(Y_i)$ .  $\Box$ 

Let  $z_{1-\alpha/2}$  be the the  $(1-\alpha/2)$  percentile point of the  ${\sf N}(0,1)$  distribution so that

$$P(-z_{1-\alpha/2} \le Z \le z_{1-\alpha/2}) = 1 - \alpha$$

when  $Z \sim \mathsf{N}(0, 1)$ .

Suppose that we have simulated IID samples,  $Y_i$ , for i = 1, ..., n.

Now want to construct a  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  Cl for  $\theta = \mathbb{E}[Y]$ . That is, we want  $L(\mathbf{Y})$  and  $U(\mathbf{Y})$  such that

$$P(L(\mathbf{Y}) \le \theta \le U(\mathbf{Y})) = 1 - \alpha.$$

The CLT implies  $\sqrt{n}\left(\widehat{\theta}_n - \theta\right)/\sigma$  is approximately  $\mathsf{N}(0,1)$  for large n.

Therefore have

$$P\left(-z_{1-\alpha/2} \leq \frac{\sqrt{n}(\widehat{\theta}_n - \theta)}{\sigma} \leq z_{1-\alpha/2}\right) \approx 1 - \alpha$$
  
$$\Rightarrow P\left(-z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \widehat{\theta}_n - \theta \leq z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \approx 1 - \alpha$$
  
$$\Rightarrow P\left(\widehat{\theta}_n - z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \theta \leq \widehat{\theta}_n + z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \approx 1 - \alpha.$$

Our approximate  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  Cl for  $\theta$  is therefore given by

$$[L(\mathbf{Y}), \ U(\mathbf{Y})] = \left[\widehat{\theta}_n - z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \ \widehat{\theta}_n + z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right].$$
(2)

Recall that  $\widehat{\theta}_n = (Y_1 + \ldots + Y_n)/n$ , so L and U are indeed functions of  $\mathbf{Y}$ .

There is still a problem, however, as we do not usually know  $\sigma^2.$  We resolve this issue by estimating  $\sigma^2$  with

$$\hat{\sigma}_n^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\theta}_n)^2}{n-1}.$$

Easy to show that  $\hat{\sigma}_n^2$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\sigma^2$  and that  $\hat{\sigma}_n^2 \to \sigma^2$  w.p. 1 as  $n \to \infty$ .

So now replace  $\sigma$  with  $\hat{\sigma}_n$  in (2) to obtain

$$[L(\mathbf{Y}), \ U(\mathbf{Y})] = \begin{bmatrix} \widehat{\theta}_n - z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\widehat{\sigma}_n}{\sqrt{n}}, & \widehat{\theta}_n + z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\widehat{\sigma}_n}{\sqrt{n}} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3)

as our approximate  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  CI for  $\theta$  when n is "large".

When we obtain sample values  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ , then  $[L(\mathbf{y}), U(\mathbf{y})]$  becomes a real interval.

Then can no longer say (why not?) that  $P(\theta \in [L(\mathbf{y}), U(\mathbf{y})]) = 1 - \alpha$ .

Instead, say that we are  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confident that  $[L(\mathbf{y}), U(\mathbf{y})]$  contains  $\theta$ .

The width of the confidence interval is given by

$$U - L = \frac{2\hat{\sigma}_n z_{1-\alpha/2}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

and so the half-width is (U - L)/2.

For a fixed  $\alpha$ , must increase n if we are to decrease the width of the CI.

 $U - L \propto 1/\sqrt{n}$  so (for example) would need to increase n by a factor of four in order to decrease the width of CI by only a factor of two.

# **Run-Length Control**

Up to this point we have selected n and then computed the approximate CI. The width of the CI is then a measure of the **error** in our estimator.

Now will do the reverse by first choosing some error criterion that we want our estimator to satisfy, and then choosing n so that this criterion is satisfied.

There are two types of error that we will consider:

- 1. Absolute error which is given by  $E_a := |\hat{\theta}_n \theta|$
- 2. Relative error which is given by  $E_r := \left| \frac{\hat{\theta}_n \theta}{\theta} \right|$ .

We know that  $\hat{\theta}_n \to \theta$  w.p. 1 as  $n \to \infty$  so that  $E_a$  and  $E_r$  both  $\to 0$  w.p.1 as  $n \to \infty$ .

However, in practice  $n\neq\infty$  and so the errors will be non-zero. We specify the following error criterion:

**Error Criterion**: Given  $0 \le \alpha \le 1$  and  $\epsilon \ge 0$ , we want  $P(E \le \epsilon) = 1 - \alpha$  where  $E = E_a$  or  $E = E_r$ .

#### **Run-Length Control**

Goal then is to choose n so that error criterion is (approximately satisfied) and this is easily done.

Suppose (for example) we want to control absolute error,  $E_a$ . Then

$$\begin{split} P\left(\hat{\theta}_n - z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} &\leq \theta \leq \hat{\theta}_n + z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \approx 1-\alpha. \\ \text{Therefore } P\left(|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta| \leq z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \approx 1-\alpha, \text{ i.e.} \\ P\left(E_a \leq z_{1-\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \approx 1-\alpha. \end{split}$$

If we then want  $P\left(E_a \leq \epsilon\right) \approx 1-\alpha,$  then clearly suffices to choose n such that

$$n = \sigma^2 z_{1-\alpha/2}^2 / \epsilon^2.$$

Similar argument implies that  $P\left(E_r \leq \epsilon\right) \approx 1 - \alpha$  if

$$n = \sigma^2 z_{1-\alpha/2}^2 / \theta^2 \epsilon^2$$

### **Run-Length Control**

There are still some problems, however:

- 1. When we are controlling  $E_r$ , we need to know  $\sigma$  and  $\theta$  in advance.
- 2. When we are controlling  $E_a$ , we need to know  $\sigma$  in advance.

Of course we do not usually know  $\sigma$  or  $\theta$  in advance. In fact,  $\theta$  is what we are trying to estimate!

There are two methods we can use to overcome this problem: the two-stage method and the sequential method.

### The Bootstrap Approach to Output Analysis

Can view output analysis problem as one of estimating

$$\mathsf{MSE}(F) := \mathbb{E}_F\left[\left(g(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) - \theta(F)\right)^2\right]$$
(4)

where  $\theta(F) = \mathbb{E}_F[X]$ ,  $g(Y_1, \ldots, Y_n) := \overline{Y}$  and F denotes the CDF of Y.

Saw earlier how we could use the CLT to construct approximate CI's for  $\theta$ .

But there are situations where the CLT cannot be easily used to obtain a Cl. e.g. If  $\theta(F) = \operatorname{Var}(Y)$  or  $\theta(F) = \mathbb{E}[Y | Y \ge \alpha]$ .

Need an alternative method of constructing a CI for  $\theta$  in such situations.

The bootstrap method provides such an alternative.

To begin, recall the empirical distribution,  $F_e$ , is the CDF that places a weight of 1/n on each of the simulated values  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ .

#### The Bootstrap Approach to Output Analysis

The empirical CDF therefore satisfies

$$F_e(y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{\{Y_i \le y\}}}{n}$$

For large n can be shown (and should be intuitively clear) that  $F_e$  should be a good approximation to F.

Therefore, if  $\theta$  sufficiently **well-behaved** function of *F*, then for sufficiently large *n* should have

$$\mathsf{MSE}(F) \approx \mathsf{MSE}(F_e) = \mathbb{E}_{F_e} \left[ (g(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) - \theta(F_e))^2 \right].$$
(5)

 $MSE(F_e)$  is known as the bootstrap approximation to MSE(F)

- easy to estimate via simulation.

But first will consider an example where  $MSE(F_e)$  can be computed exactly. Indeed the bootstrap is not required in this case but nonetheless instructive to see the explicit calculations.

#### E.G. Applying the Bootstrap to the Sample Mean

We wish to estimate  $\theta(F) = \mathbb{E}_F[Y]$  via the estimator  $\hat{\theta} = g(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) := \bar{Y}$ .

As noted above, the bootstrap is not necessary in this case as we can apply the CLT directly to obtain Cl's for  $\hat{\theta}$ .

Equivalently, we can estimate the MSE,  $\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\bar{Y}-\theta\right)^2\right] = \sigma^2/n$ , with  $\hat{\sigma}_n^2/n = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2/(n(n-1)).$ 

Let  $\bar{y}$  denote mean of simulated data-points  $y_1,\ldots,y_n.$  Bootstrap estimator then given by

$$\mathsf{MSE}(F_e) = \mathbb{E}_{F_e} \left[ \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i}{n} - \bar{y} \right)^2 \right]$$
$$= \mathsf{Var}_{F_e} \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i}{n} \right) \tag{6}$$
$$= \frac{\mathsf{Var}_{F_e} \left( Y \right)}{n}$$
$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}{n^2}.$$

# The Bootstrap Algorithm

In general, however, cannot usually compute  $MSE(F_e)$  explicitly. But it's an expectation so can use Monte-Carlo!

Bootstrap Simulation Algorithm for Estimating MSE(F)

for i = 1 to Bgenerate  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  IID from  $F_e$ set  $\hat{\theta}_i^b = g(Y_1, \ldots, Y_n)$ set  $Z_i^b = \left[\hat{\theta}_i^b - \theta(F_e)\right]^2$ end for set  $\widehat{MSE(F)} = \sum_{b=1}^B Z^{(b)}/B$ 

The  $Z_i^b$ 's (or equivalently the  $\hat{\theta}_i^b$ 's) are the bootstrap samples and a value of B = 100 is often sufficient to obtain a sufficiently accurate estimate.

Next example applies bootstrap in a historical simulation context where we have real data observations as opposed to simulated data

- have no control over *n* in historical simulations – a disadvantage!

# e.g. Estimating the Minimum Variance Portfolio

Wish to invest a fixed sum of money in two financial assets, X and Z say, that yield random returns of  $R_x$  and  $R_z$ , respectively.

Let  $\theta$  and  $1 - \theta$  be fractions of our wealth invested in X and Z.

Goal is to choose  $\theta$  to minimize the **total variance** 

$$\mathsf{Var}(\theta R_x + (1-\theta)R_z).$$

Easy to see the minimizing  $\theta$  satisfies

$$\theta = \frac{\sigma_z^2 - \sigma_{xz}}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_z^2 - 2\sigma_{xz}}.$$
(8)

In practice have to estimate  $\sigma_z^2$ ,  $\sigma_x^2$  and  $\sigma_{xz}$  from historical return data  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  with  $Y_i := \left(R_x^{(i)}, R_z^{(i)}\right)$  the joint return in period *i*.

Therefore obtain

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_z^2 - \hat{\sigma}_{xz}}{\hat{\sigma}_x^2 + \hat{\sigma}_z^2 - 2\hat{\sigma}_{xz}}.$$
(9)

as our estimator.

# e.g. Estimating the Minimum Variance Portfolio

Would like to know how good an estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  is. More specifically, what is MSE  $(\hat{\theta})$ ?

Can answer this question using the bootstrap with  $\theta(F) := \theta$  and  $g(Y_1, \ldots, Y_n) = \hat{\theta}.$ 

**Question:** Provide pseudo-code for estimating  $MSE(\hat{\theta}) := MSE(F)$ .

# **Estimating Confidence Intervals Via the Bootstrap**

Bootstrap also widely used to construct CI's. Here we consider the so-called basic bootstrap interval.

Consider the bootstrap samples  $\hat{\theta}_1^b, \dots, \hat{\theta}_B^b$  and suppose we want a  $1 - \alpha$  CI for  $\theta = \theta(F)$ .

Let  $q_l$  and  $q_u$  be the  $\alpha/2$  lower- and upper-sample quantiles, respectively, of the bootstrap samples.

Fraction of bootstrap samples satisfying

$$q_l \le \hat{\theta}^b \le q_u \tag{10}$$

is  $1 - \alpha$ . But (10) is equivalent to

$$\hat{\theta} - q_u \le \hat{\theta} - \hat{\theta}^b \le \hat{\theta} - q_l \tag{11}$$

where  $\hat{\theta} = g(y_1, \dots, y_n)$  is our estimate of  $\theta$  computed using original data-set.

# **Estimating Confidence Intervals Via the Bootstrap**

This implies  $\hat{\theta} - q_u$  and  $\hat{\theta} - q_l$  are the lower and upper quantiles for  $\hat{\theta} - \hat{\theta}^b$ .

The basic bootstrap assumes they are **also** the quantiles for  $heta-\hat{ heta}$ 

- makes sense intuitively – and can be justified mathematically as  $n \to \infty$  and if  $\theta$  is a well-behaved function of F.

Therefore follows that

$$\hat{\theta} - q_u \le \theta - \hat{\theta} \le \hat{\theta} - q_l$$
 (12)

will occur in approximately in a fraction  $1-\alpha$  of samples.

Adding  $\hat{\theta}$  across (12) yields an approximate  $(1 - \alpha)\%$  CI for  $\theta$  of

$$(2\hat{\theta}-q_u, 2\hat{\theta}-q_l).$$