

The African School  
of Fundamental  
Physics and  
Applications



## Integrating Scientific Computing into Math and Science Classes

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**Session 02**  
Calculus and  
Monte Carlo Methods

# Session 02 – Topics

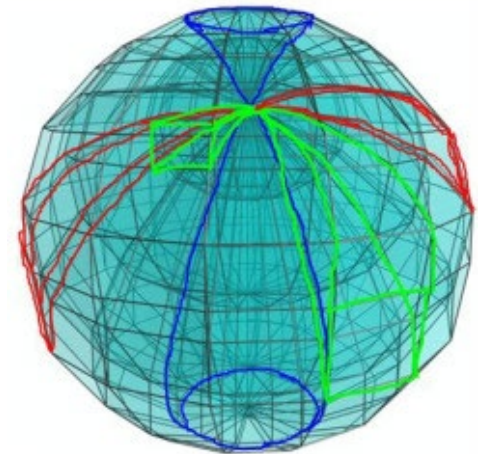
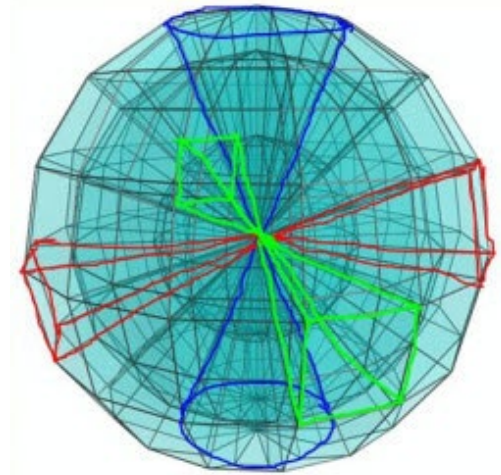
- Understand the principles behind the **Monte Carlo** method
- Compare the accuracy when estimating the area of a 2-D **unit circle** using two different sampling methods
  - Fixed sampling across a **uniform grid** of points
  - Variable sampling using a set of **random** points
- Appreciate the impact of minimizing **discrepancies** when using Monte Carlo estimation techniques
  - Pseudo-random number generator (PRNG) – [Permuted Congruential Generator](#)
  - Quasi-random number generator (QRNG) – [Halton Sequence](#)

## Session 02 – Topics

- Use the Monte Carlo method to estimate the volume of a three-dimensional unit **sphere** using a QRNG
- Use the Monte Carlo method to estimate the content of an **n-ball** in dimensions from **1 to 12**
- Use the Monte Carlo method to estimate the probability that a *random variable* selected from a Gaussian **Standard Normal** distribution will fall within one standard deviation away from its **mean**

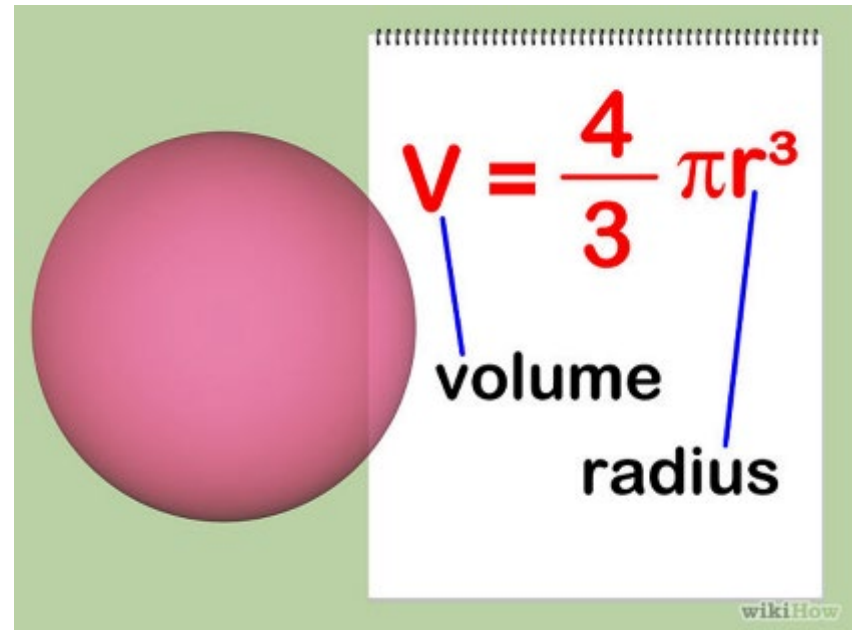
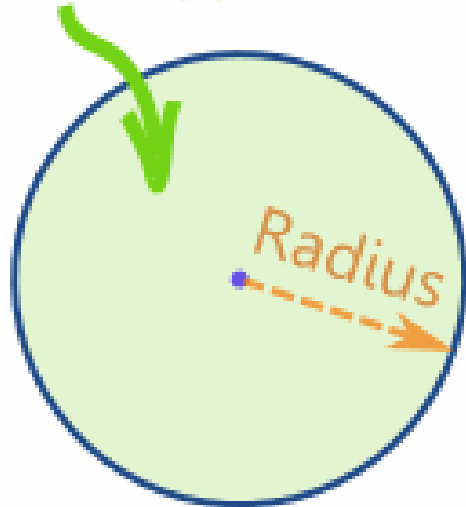
# An *Interesting* Question

- What is the *volume* of a **four-dimensional unit** hypersphere?
  - What does a 4D sphere “look” like?
  - What is a “unit” sphere?
  - Where do I even start?
- Break down complex questions into simpler steps:
  - How can we calculate the area of a 2D circle?
  - How can we calculate the volume of a 3D sphere?
  - How do we move from 3D to 4D?

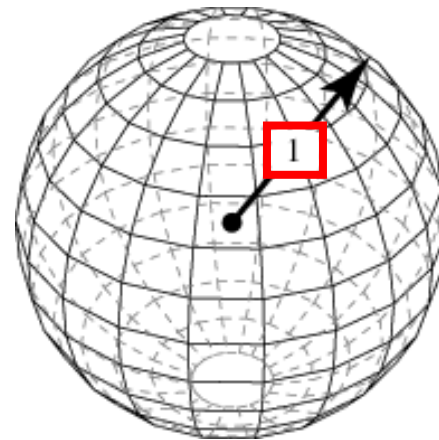
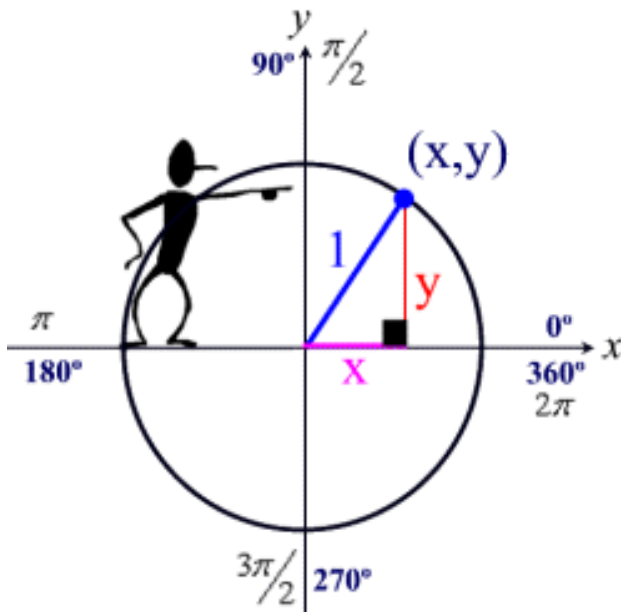


# Area and Volume

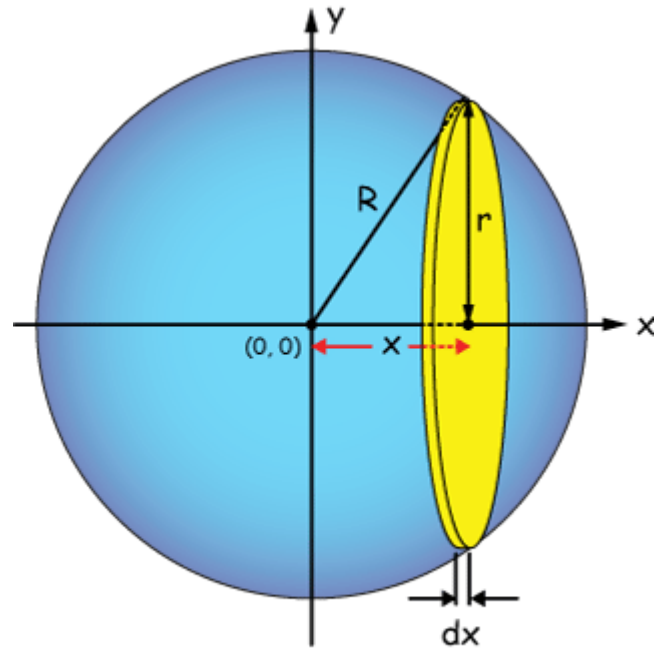
$$\text{Area} = \pi \times \text{radius}^2$$



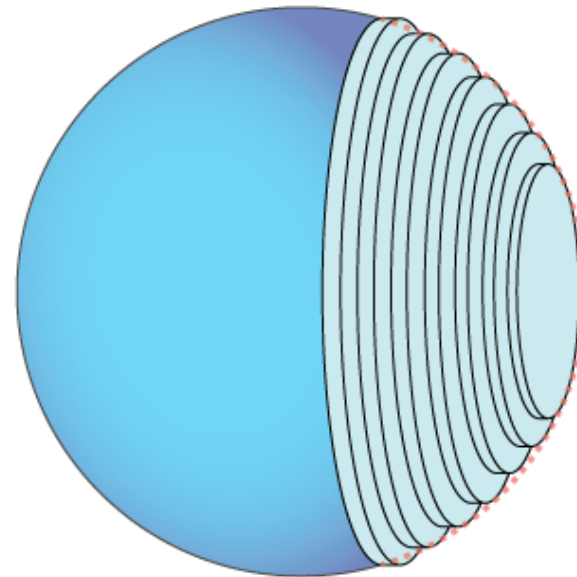
# A **Unit** Circle and **Unit** Sphere



# 2-D Area $\rightarrow$ 3-D Volume



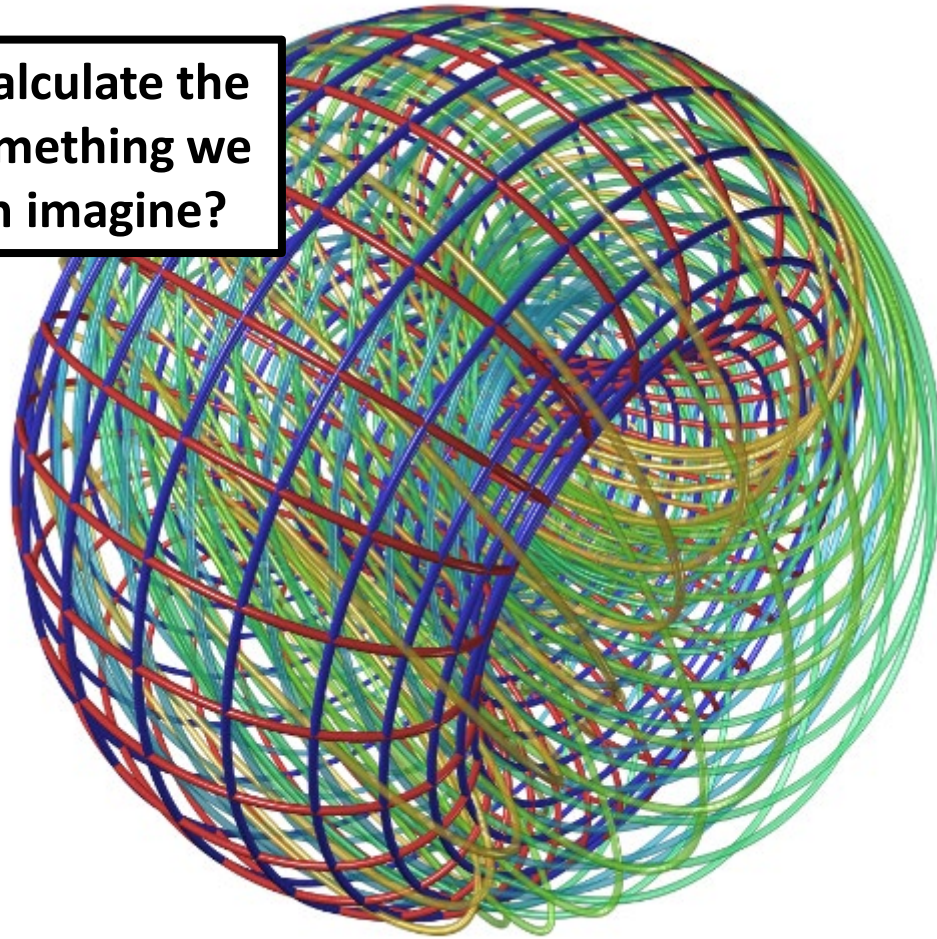
Volume of the disk:  
 $\pi r^2 \cdot dx = \pi(R^2 - x^2) \cdot dx$





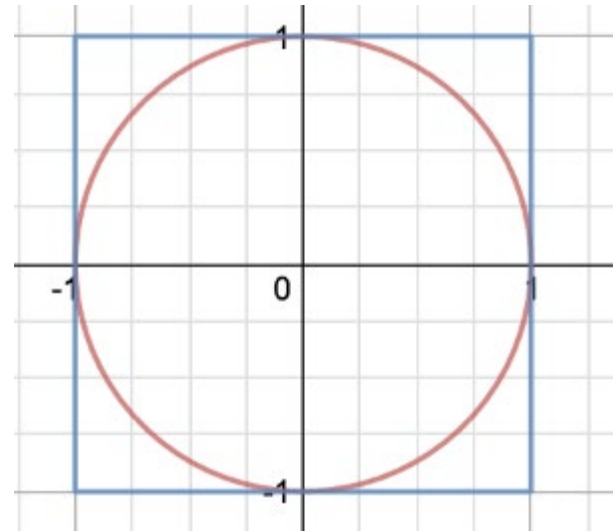
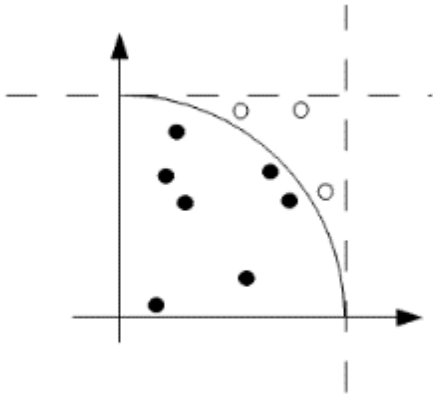
# A 4-D Hypersphere

How do we calculate the volume of something we can not even imagine?



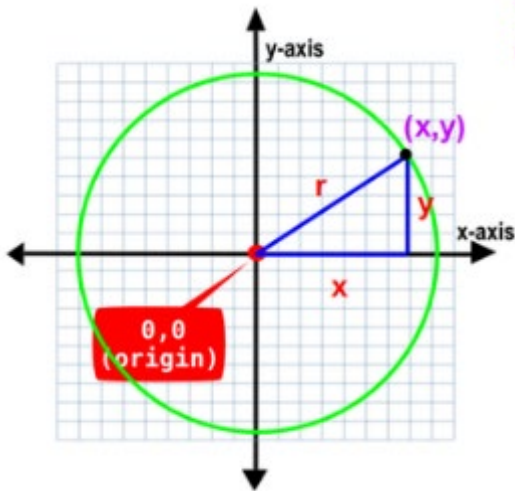


# Area as a “Ratio” of **Inside** vs. **Total Dots**

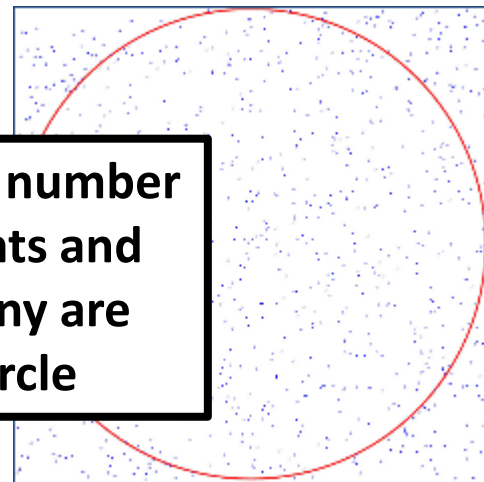


The equation of a circle centered at the origin

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2$$



Generate a large number of random points and count how many are inside the circle



# The Monte Carlo Method

Monte Carlo approximation



Ulam



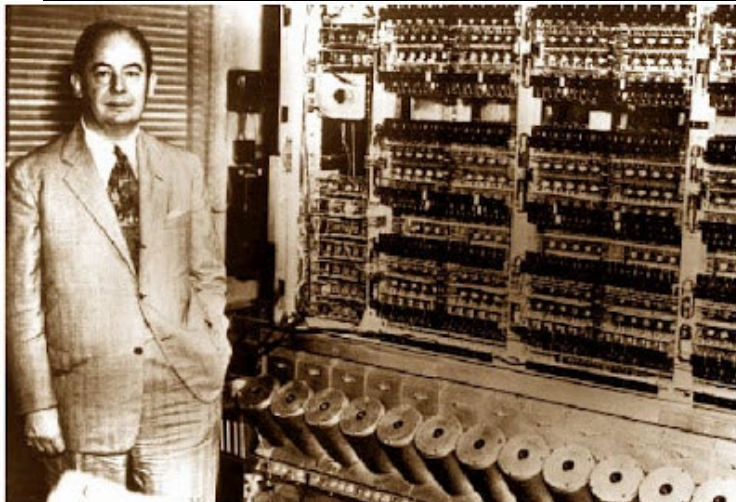
Fermi



Von Neumann

1940s  
→ Los Alamos

1930s



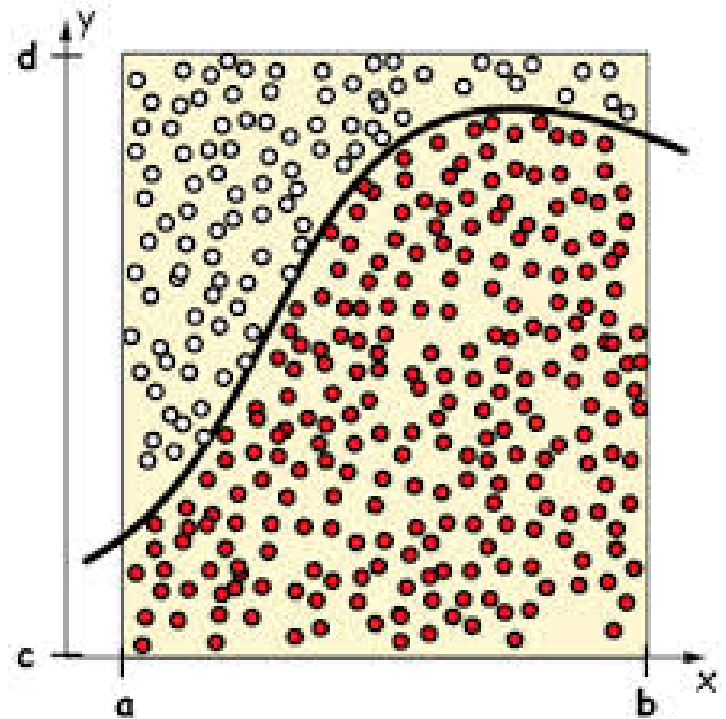
Johnny von Neumann [1903-1957] alongside the Maniac computer at the Institute for Advanced Studies, Princeton.



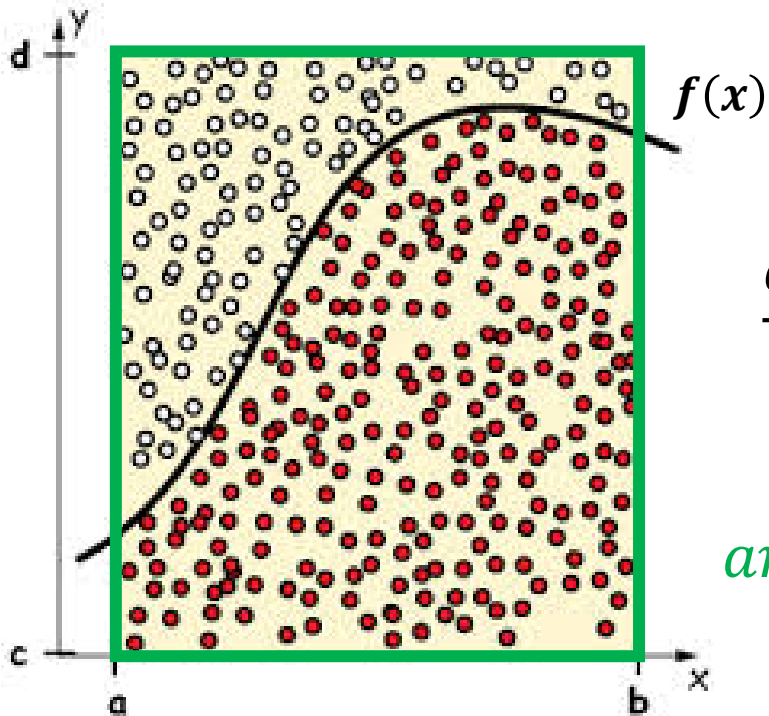
Monaco

# The Monte Carlo Method

- With Monte Carlo, we **randomly sample** points within a bounded space and count how many are ***inside*** the curve
- The ratio of **inside** dots (those under the curve) vs. **total** dots leads to an estimate of the *integral*
- Monte Carlo is **non-deterministic** when a random number generator is used to create the sample points



# The Monte Carlo Method



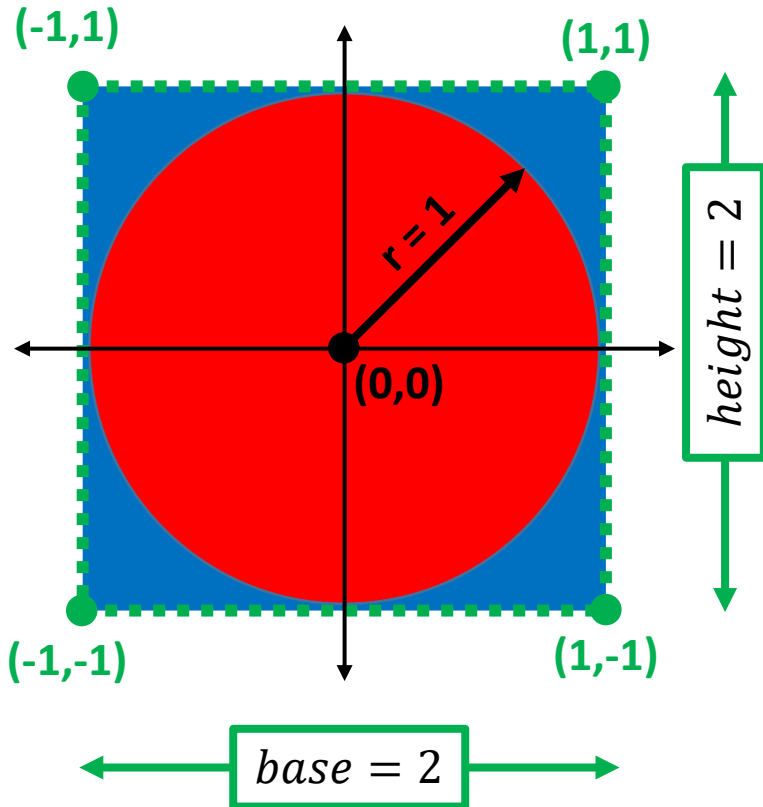
We don't know  
this area

$$\frac{\text{dots}_{\text{inside}}}{\text{dots}_{\text{total}}} = \frac{\text{area}_{\text{curve}}}{\text{area}_{\text{sample}}}$$

$$\text{area}_{\text{sample}} = (b - a) \times (d - c)$$

$$\text{area}_{\text{curve}} = \text{area}_{\text{sample}} \times \frac{\text{dots}_{\text{inside}}}{\text{dots}_{\text{total}}}$$

# The Monte Carlo Method



We don't know  
this area

$$\frac{\text{dots}_{\text{inside}}}{\text{dots}_{\text{total}}} = \frac{\text{area}_{\text{circle}}}{\text{area}_{\text{sample}}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{area}_{\text{sample}} &= \text{base} \times \text{height} \\ &= 2 \times 2 \\ &= 4\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{area}_{\text{circle}} = 4 \times \frac{\text{dots}_{\text{inside}}}{\text{dots}_{\text{total}}}$$

# Run mc\_circle\_prng.ipynb – Cells 1..3

## Import needed packages/modules

```
[1] # Cell 1
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt ← ①
import numpy as np
```

## Set the total number of random *dots* (samples) to take

```
[2] # Cell 2
total_dots = 320 * 320 # 102_400 ← ②
print(f"{total_dots = },")
```

```
↔ total_dots = 102,400
```

## Set the numpy PRNG seed to 2020 and take $n$ random samples of 2D Cartesian points $(x, y)$

1. Use the built-in Python `uniform` distribution which returns a random float  $[0,1)$  ← ③
2. Subtract that float from 1, so the interval flips to  $(0,1]$  ensuring any points on the perimeter will now contribute to the area
3. Scale the result so it now falls in the interval  $[-1, 1]$

```
[3] # Cell 3
rng = np.random.default_rng(seed=2020)
x = (1 - rng.random(total_dots)) * 2 - 1 ← ④
y = (1 - rng.random(total_dots)) * 2 - 1
print(x)
print(y)
```

```
↔ [ 0.06338491 -0.02868446 -0.72797656 ... -0.98667256 -0.12884392
   0.59351843] ← ⑤
[-0.16326076  0.21528812 -0.70365621 ... -0.38432811 -0.83694384
  0.52029149]
```

# Run mc\_circle\_prng.ipynb – Cells 4...5

Create an array  $d$  that contains the distance from the origin  $(0, 0)$  for every point  $(x, y)$

Leverage the fact the exponentiation and addition operators are "vector aware" ← ①

```
[4] # Cell 4
     d = x**2 + y**2 ← ②
     print(d)
```

```
↔ [0.03067172 0.04717177 1.02508193 ... 1.12123084 0.71707575 0.62296737] ← ③
```

Create arrays of  $(x, y)$  coordinates that are "on or inside" vs. "outside" the circle using the Pythagorean distance  $d$

Leverage the ability to `filter` numpy arrays using a conditional expression ← ④

```
[5] # Cell 5
     x_in = x[d <= 1.0] # On or inside the circle ← ⑤
     y_in = y[d <= 1.0]
     x_out = x[d > 1.0] # Outside the circle ← ⑥
     y_out = y[d > 1.0]
```



# Run mc\_circle\_prng.ipynb – Cells 6..7

Calculate the absolute percent error in the area estimation

1. The actual/expected area of a unit circle is exactly  $\pi$  ← ①
2. The observed/estimated area using the Monte Carlo formulation =  $4 \times \frac{\text{dots}_{\text{inside}}}{\text{dots}_{\text{total}}}$  ← ②

```
[6] # Cell 6
act = np.pi
est = 4 * np.count_nonzero(d <= 1.0) / total_dots ← ③
err = np.abs((est - act) / act) ← ④

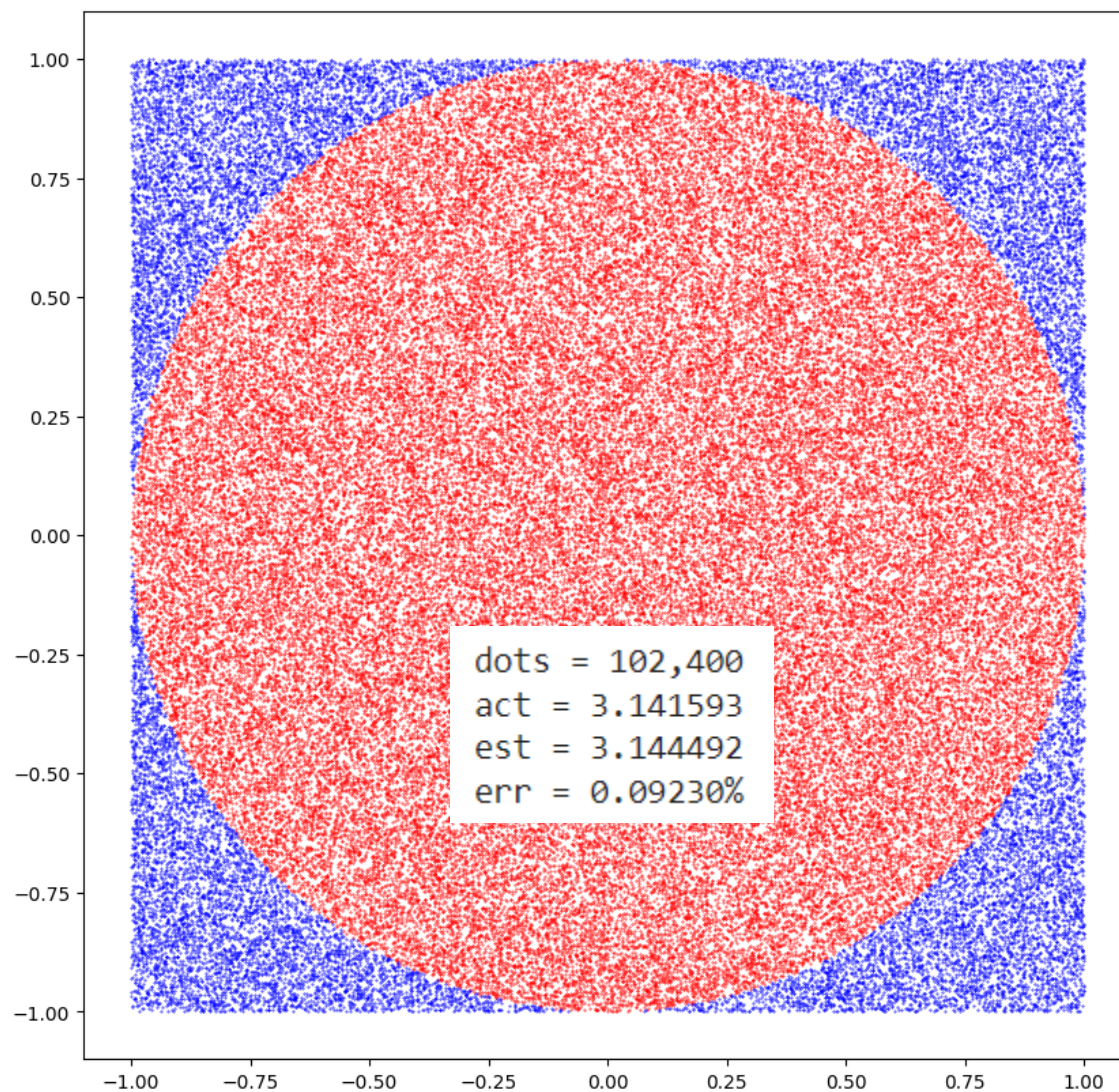
print(f"dots = {total_dots:,}")
print(f"act = {act:.6f}")
print(f"est = {est:.6f}")
print(f"err = {err:.5%}")
```

```
⇒ dots = 102,400 ← ⑤
act = 3.141593
est = 3.144492
err = 0.09230%
```

Display the scatter plot of the Monte Carlo estimation

```
[7] # Cell 7
plt.scatter(x_in, y_in, color="red", marker=".", s=0.5) ← ⑥
plt.scatter(x_out, y_out, color="blue", marker=".", s=0.5)
plt.gcf().set_size_inches(10, 10)
plt.gca().set_aspect("equal")
plt.show()
```

## Check mc\_circle\_prng.ipynb – Cell 7



# Run mc\_circle\_grid.ipynb – Cells 1..2

Import needed packages/modules

```
[1] # Cell 1 ← ①  
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  
import numpy as np
```

Set the number of grid intervals along each side (*x* and *y*) of the sample area

```
[2] # Cell 2  
side_dots = 320  
total_dots = side_dots**2 ← ②  
print(f"{total_dots = :}")
```

```
↔ total_dots = 102,400 ← ③
```

# Run mc\_circle\_grid.ipynb – Cell 3

Create linear spaces (number of # intervals = `side_dots`) spanning each dimension

1. Set  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$  and  $-1 \leq y \leq 1$  ← ①
2. Create a `meshgrid` at every pairing of the  $x$  and  $y$  values ← ②

```
# Cell 3
x = np.linspace(-1, 1, side_dots) ← ③
y = np.linspace(-1, 1, side_dots)

xv, yv = np.meshgrid(x, y) ← ④
x = xv.flatten() ← ⑤
y = yv.flatten()

print(x)
print(y)
```

```
[-1.          -0.99373041 -0.98746082 ...  0.98746082  0.99373041
  1.          ]
[-1. -1. -1. ...  1.  1.  1.]
```

# Run mc\_circle\_grid.ipynb – Cells 4...5

Create an array  $d$  that contains the distance from the origin  $(0, 0)$  for every point  $(x, y)$

Leverage the fact the exponentiation and addition operators are "vector aware"

```
[4] # Cell 4 ← ①  
    d = x**2 + y**2  
    print(d)
```

```
↳ [2.          1.98750012 1.97507886 ... 1.97507886 1.98750012 2.          ]
```

Create arrays of  $(x, y)$  coordinates that are "on or inside" vs. "outside" the circle using the Pythagorean distance  $d$

Leverage the ability to `filter` numpy arrays using a conditional expression

```
[6] # Cell 5 ← ②  
    x_in = x[d <= 1.0] # On or inside the circle  
    y_in = y[d <= 1.0]  
    x_out = x[d > 1.0] # Outside the circle  
    y_out = y[d > 1.0]
```

# Run mc\_circle\_grid.ipynb – Cells 6...7

## Calculate the absolute percent error in the area estimation

1. The actual/expected area of a unit circle is exactly  $\pi$
2. The observed/estimated area using the uniform grid method =  $4 \times \frac{\text{dots}_{\text{inside}}}{\text{dots}_{\text{total}}}$

```
[7] # Cell 6
act = np.pi
est = 4 * np.count_nonzero(d <= 1.0) / total_dots ← ①
err = np.abs((est - act) / act)

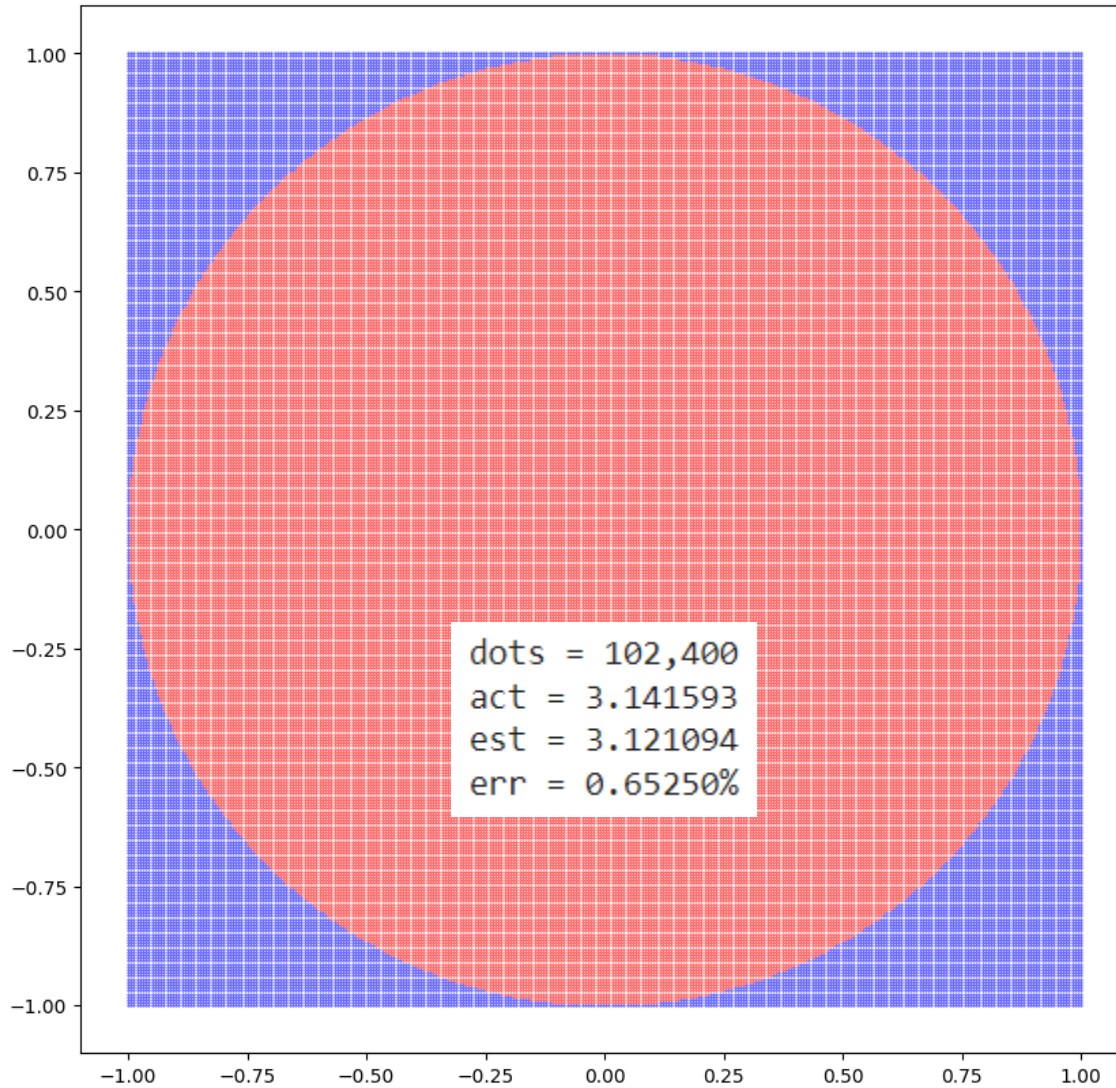
print(f"dots = {total_dots:,}")
print(f"act = {act:.6f}")
print(f"est = {est:.6f}")
print(f"err = {err:.5%}")
```

```
↔ dots = 102,400
act = 3.141593
est = 3.121094
err = 0.65250%
```

## Display the scatter plot of the Monte Carlo estimation

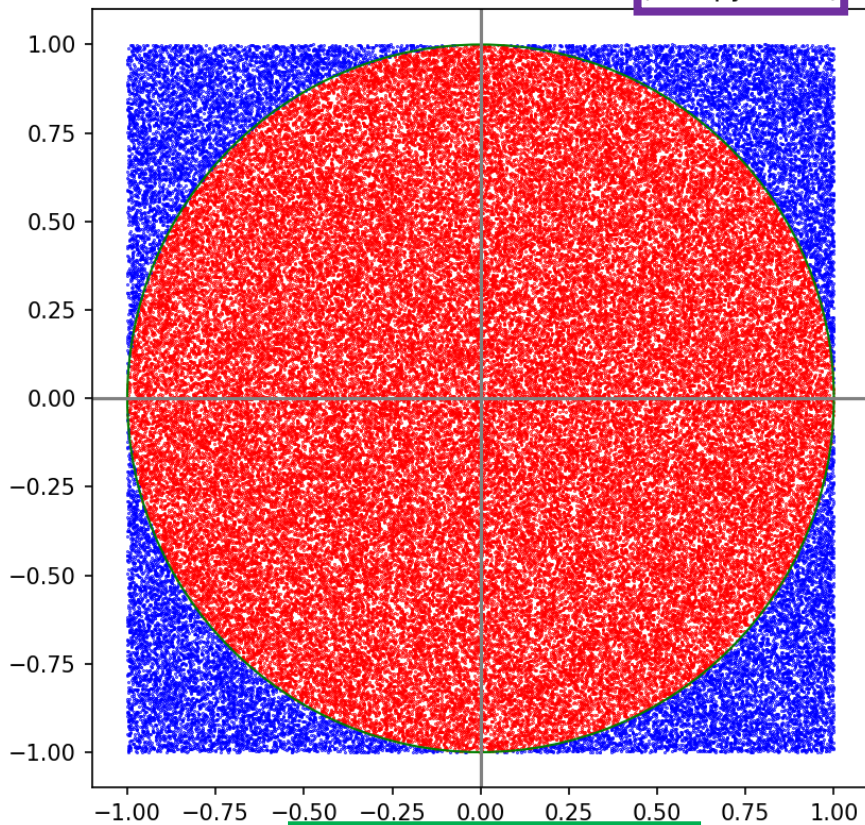
```
[8] # Cell 7
plt.scatter(x_in, y_in, color="red", marker=".", s=0.5) ← ②
plt.scatter(x_out, y_out, color="blue", marker=".", s=0.5)
plt.gcf().set_size_inches(10, 10)
plt.gca().set_aspect("equal")
plt.show()
```

# Check mc\_circle\_grid.ipynb



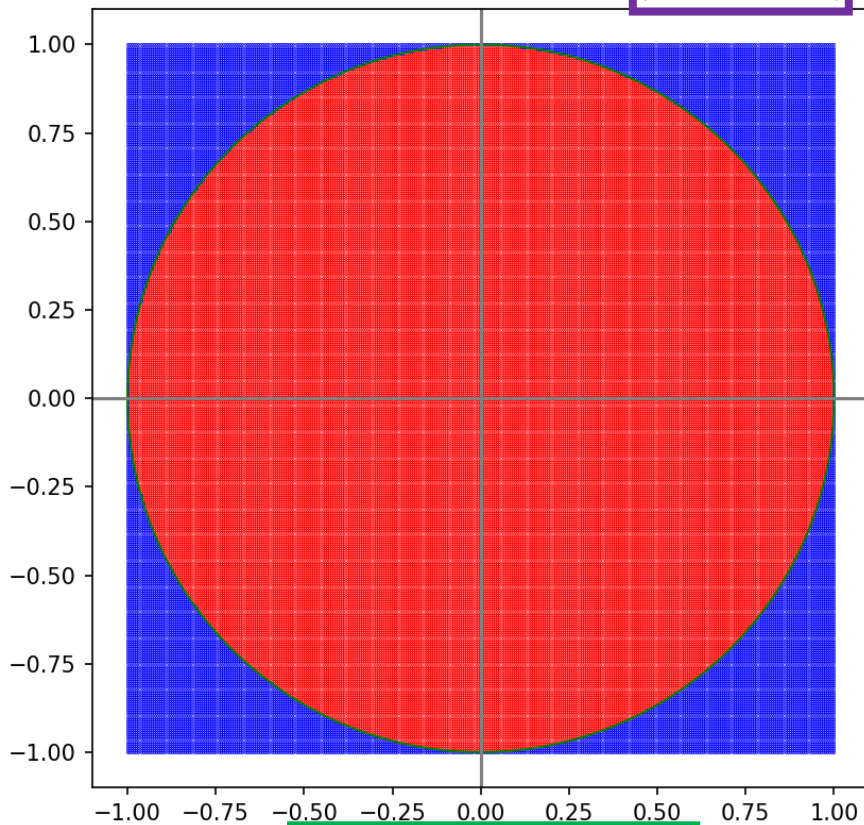


Circle Area via Monte Carlo Estimation (Numpy PRNG)



Total dots	=	102,400
Act. Area	=	3.141593
PRNG Est. Area	=	3.144492
PRNG % Rel Err	=	0.092295%

Circle Area via Monte Carlo Estimation (Uniform Mesh)



Total dots	=	102,400
Act. Area	=	3.141593
Mesh Est. Area	=	3.121094
Mesh % Rel Err	=	-0.652500%

Taking random samples was **607%** more accurate than using a uniform mesh!

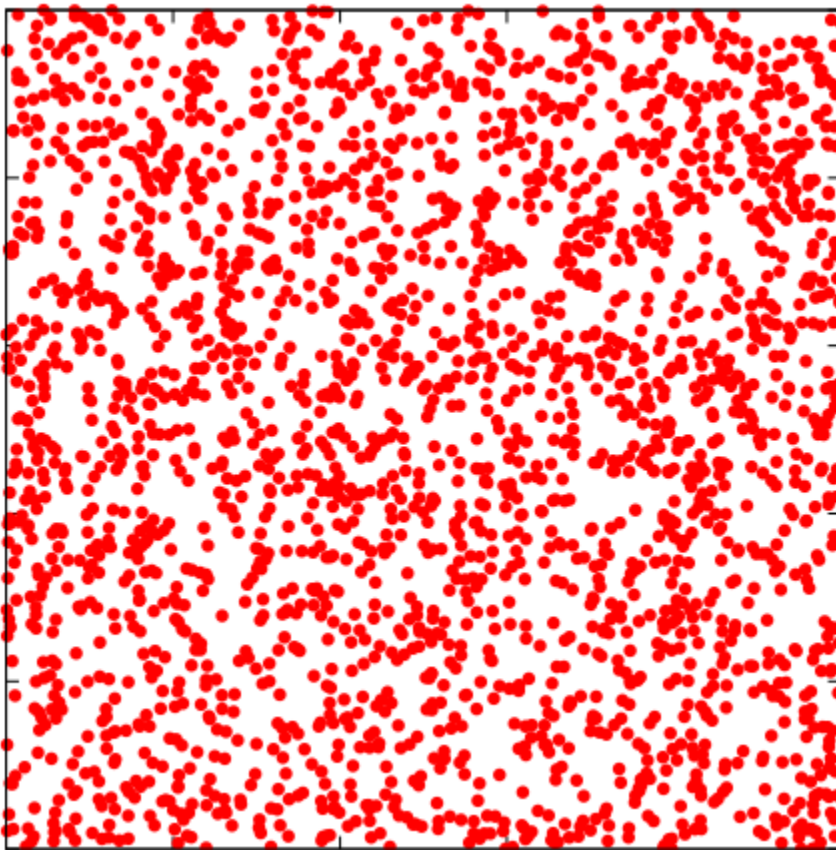
# Monte Carlo Questions

- The random Monte Carlo approach and the version based upon taking uniformly spaced samples along a Cartesian (orthogonal) grid **used the same number of samples**
- The **MC** approach resulted in **607% reduction in relative error** compared to the simple grid method – why?
- What is the **underlying issue** that can force a uniformly spaced sampling approach to miscount the dots inside vs. outside the *circle*?
- Consider an individual mesh square that overlaps the perimeter of the circle - how does the rigid placement of the corners of each **square** affect the **accuracy** of the estimate of the **curve**?

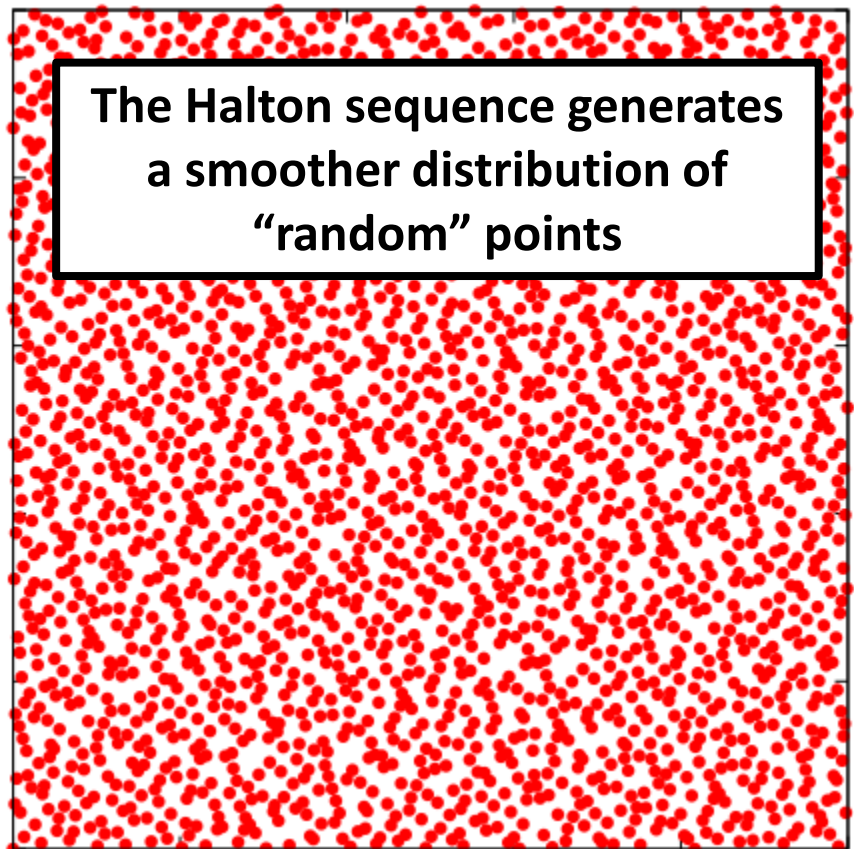
# Comparing “Random” Number Generators

A quasi-random number generator

Standard PRNG



Halton QRNG



# The Halton Sequence


## Mathematical Proceedings of the Cambridge Philosophical Society

Mathematical Proceedings of the Cambridge Philosophical Society / Volume 61 / Issue 02 April 1965, pp 497-498  
Copyright © Cambridge Philosophical Society 1965  
DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0305004100004059> (About DOI), Published online: 24 October 2008

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## Research Article

### On the relative merits of correlated and importance sampling for Monte Carlo integration

John H. Halton<sup>a1</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, New York

```
def halton(n, p):  
    h, f = 0, 1  
    while n > 0:  
        f = f / p  
        h += (n % p) * f  
        n = int(n / p)  
    return h
```

# Run mc\_circle\_halton.ipynb – Cells 1..3

Import needed packages/modules

```
[1] # Cell 1
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
from numba import int64, float64, vectorize ← ①
```

Declare a numba accelerated function that computes the Halton QRNG

1. The parameter  $n$  is an integer of any size
2. The parameter  $p$  is a prime number ← ②

```
[2] # Cell 2
@vectorize([float64(int64, int64)], nopython=True) ← ③
def halton(n, p):
    h, f = 0, 1
    while n > 0:
        f = f / p
        h += (n % p) * f
        n = int(n / p)
    return h
```

Set the number of random *dots* (samples) to take

```
[3] # Cell 3
total_dots = 25_600 ← ④
```



# Run mc\_circle\_halton.ipynb – Cells 4..5

Take  $n$  "random" samples of 2D Cartesian points  $(x, y)$  using the Halton sequence ← ①

1. The Halton QRNG returns a random float [0,1]
2. Subtract that float from 1, so the interval flips to (0,1] ensuring any points on the perimeter will now contribute to the area
3. Scale the result so it now falls in the interval [-1, 1]

```
[4] # Cell 4
x = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 2)) * 2 - 1 ← ②
y = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 3)) * 2 - 1
print(x)
print(y)
```

```
↩ [ 1.          0.          0.5          ... -0.49822998  0.00177002 ← ③
   -0.99822998]
   [ 1.          0.33333333 -0.33333333 ...  0.32263036 -0.34403631
     0.7670748 ]
```

Create an array  $d$  that contains the distance from the origin  $(0, 0)$  for every point  $(x, y)$

Leverage the fact the exponentiation and addition operators are "vector aware" ← ④

```
[5] # Cell 5
d = x**2 + y**2 ← ⑤
print(d)
```

```
↩ [2.          0.11111111 0.36111111 ... 0.35232346 0.11836411 1.58486685] ← ⑥
```

# Run mc\_circle\_halton.ipynb – Cells 6...7

Create arrays of  $(x, y)$  coordinates that are "on or inside" vs. "outside" the circle using the Pythagorean distance  $d$   
Leverage the ability to `filter` numpy arrays using a conditional expression

```
[6] # Cell 6
x_in = x[d <= 1.0] # On or inside the circle
y_in = y[d <= 1.0]
x_out = x[d > 1.0] # Outside the circle
y_out = y[d > 1.0]
```



Calculate the absolute percent error in the area estimation

1. The actual/expected area of a unit circle is exactly  $\pi$
2. The observed/estimated area using the Monte Carlo formulation =  $4 \times \frac{dots\ inside}{dots\ total}$

```
[7] # Cell 7
act = np.pi
est = 4 * np.count_nonzero(d <= 1.0) / total_dots
err = np.abs((est - act) / act)

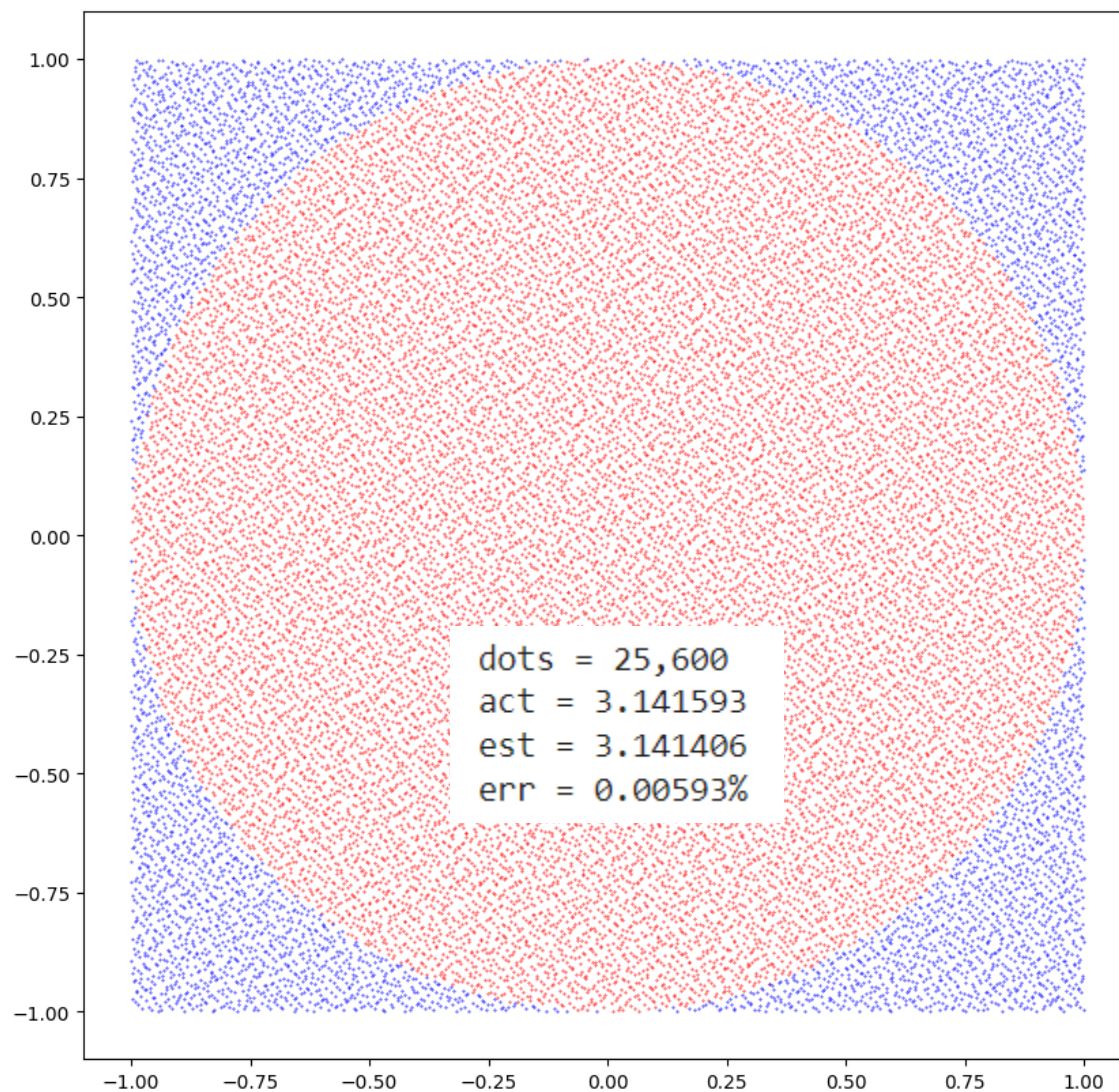
print(f"dots = {total_dots:,}")
print(f"act = {act:.6f}")
print(f"est = {est:.6f}")
print(f"err = {err:.5%}")
```

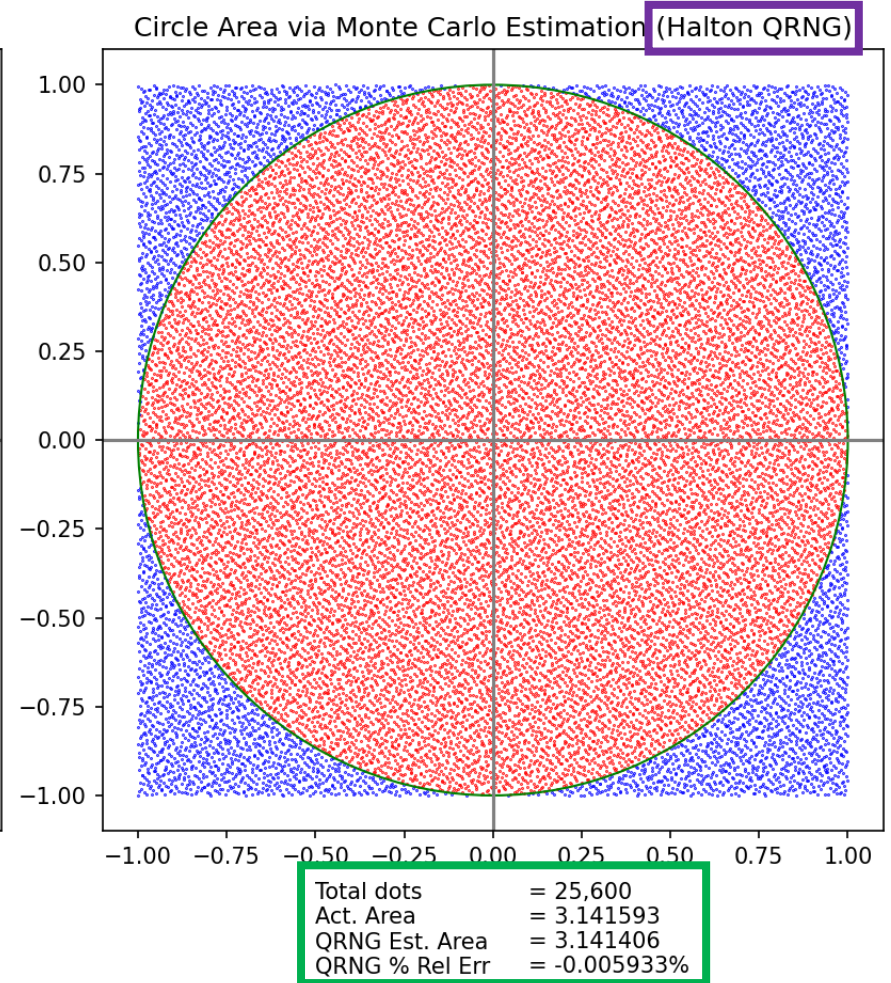
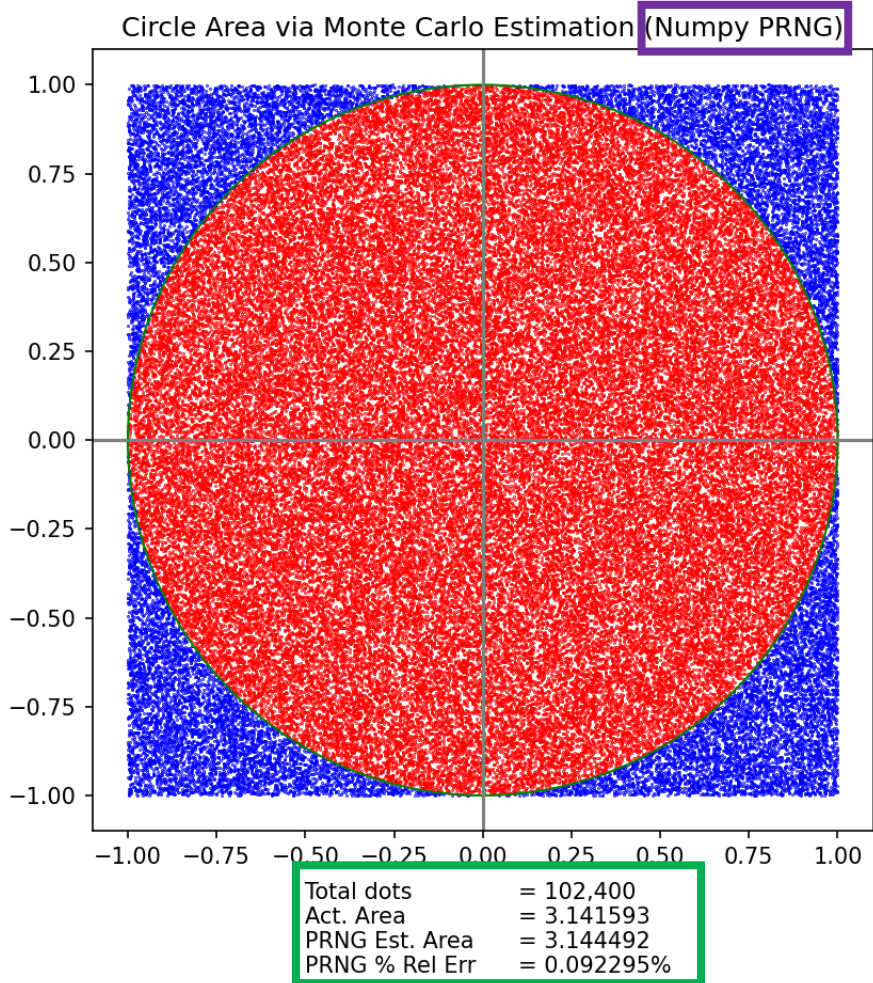


```
↔ dots = 25,600
act = 3.141593
est = 3.141406
err = 0.00593%
```



## Check mc\_circle\_halton.ipynb – Cell 8

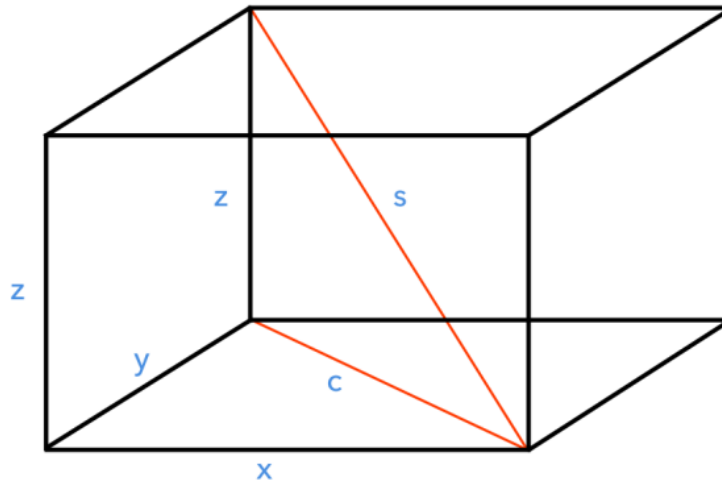




The Halton QRNG MC was **1,456%** more accurate than the PRNG MC while needing **300%** fewer samples!

# Moving to Higher Dimensions

The Pythagorean Distance is a **metric** that is true in all **orthogonal** spaces of any dimension



$$c^2 = x^2 + y^2$$

$$s^2 = c^2 + z^2$$

$$\therefore s^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$$

# Run mc\_sphere.ipynb – Cells 1...3

## Import needed packages/modules

```
[1] # Cell 1
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
from numba import float64, int64, vectorize ← ①
```

## Declare a numba accelerated function that computes the Halton QRNG

1. The parameter  $n$  is an integer of any size
2. The parameter  $p$  is a prime number

```
[2] # Cell 2
@vectorize([float64(int64, int64)], nopython=True) ← ②
def halton(n, p):
    h, f = 0, 1
    while n > 0:
        f = f / p
        h += (n % p) * f
        n = int(n / p)
    return h
```

## Set the total number of dots (samples) to take

```
[3] # Cell 3
total_dots = 125_000 ← ③
```

# Run mc\_sphere.ipynb – Cells 4...6

Create `total_dots` samples of 3D Cartesian points  $(x, y, z)$  using the Halton sequence

1. The Halton QRNG returns a random float  $[0,1]$
2. Subtract that float from 1, so the interval flips to  $(0,1]$  ensuring any points on the perimeter will now contribute to the volume
3. Scale the result so it now falls in the interval  $[-1, 1]$

```
[4] # Cell 4
x = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 2)) * 2 - 1
y = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 3)) * 2 - 1
z = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 5)) * 2 - 1
```

Create an array  $d$  that contains the distance from the origin  $(0, 0)$  for every point  $(x, y, z)$

Leverage the fact the exponentiation and addition operators are "vector aware"

```
[5] # Cell 5
d = x**2 + y**2 + z**2
```

Create arrays of  $(x, y)$  coordinates that are "on or inside" vs. "outside" the sphere using the Pythagorean distance  $d$

Leverage the ability to `filter` numpy arrays using a conditional expression

```
[6] # Cell 6

# On the surface (or inside) the sphere
x_in = x[d <= 1.0]
y_in = y[d <= 1.0]
z_in = z[d <= 1.0]

# Outside the sphere
x_out = x[d > 1.0]
y_out = y[d > 1.0]
z_out = z[d > 1.0]
```



# Run mc\_sphere.ipynb – Cells 7...8

## Calculate the absolute percent error in the area estimation

1. The actual/expected volume of a unit sphere is exactly  $\frac{4}{3}\pi$
2. The observed/estimated volume using the Monte Carlo formulation =  $8 \times \frac{\text{dots inside}}{\text{dots total}}$

```
[7] # Cell 7
act = 4 / 3 * np.pi
est = 8 * np.count_nonzero(d <= 1.0) / total_dots ← ①
err = np.abs((est - act) / act)

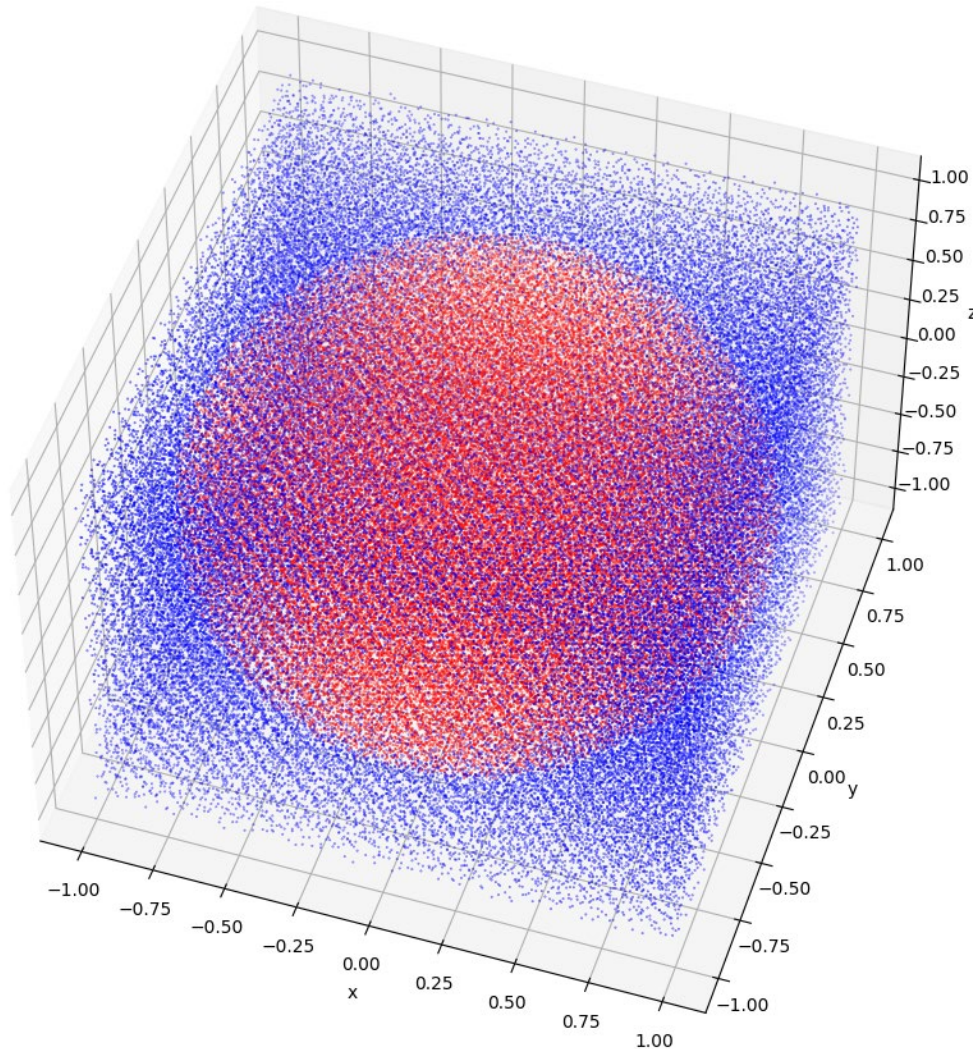
print(f"dots = {total_dots:,}")
print(f"act = {act:.6f}")
print(f"est = {est:.6f}")
print(f"err = {err:.5%}")
```

```
↔ dots = 125,000
   act = 4.188790 ← ②
   est = 4.188416
   err = 0.00893%
```

## Display the scatter plot of the Monte Carlo estimation

```
[8] # Cell 8
ax = plt.axes(projection="3d") ← ③
ax.view_init(azim=-72, elev=48)
ax.scatter(x_in, y_in, z_in, color="red", marker=".", s=0.1) ← ④
ax.scatter(x_out, y_out, z_out, color="blue", marker=".", s=0.1)
plt.gcf().set_size_inches(10, 10)
plt.gca().set_aspect("equal")
plt.show()
```

# Check mc\_sphere.ipynb



We just estimated the volume of a unit sphere to within **0.009%** without a stitch of *calculus* and using nothing but random numbers!

Total dots	= 125,000
Act. Volume	= 4.188790
PRNG Est. Volume	= 4.195392
PRNG % Rel Err	= 0.157606%
Total dots	= 125,000
Act. Volume	= 4.188790
QRNG Est. Volume	= 4.188416
QRNG % Rel Err	= -0.008933%

QRNG is **1,664%** more accurate than the PRNG



# Run mc\_hypersphere.ipynb – Cells 1...3

## Import needed packages/modules

```
[1] # Cell 1
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
from numba import int64, float64, vectorize ← ①
```

## Declare a numba accelerated function that computes the Halton QRNG

1. The parameter  $n$  is an integer of any size
2. The parameter  $p$  is a prime number

```
[2] # Cell 2
@vectorize([float64(int64, int64)], nopython=True) ← ②
def halton(n, p):
    h, f = 0, 1
    while n > 0:
        f = f / p
        h += (n % p) * f
        n = int(n / p)
    return h
```

## Set the total number of samples to take

```
[3] # Cell 3
total_dots = 6_250_000 ← ③
```

# Run mc\_hypersphere.ipynb – Cells 4...5

Create `total_dots` samples of 4D Cartesian points  $(x, y, z, w)$  using the Halton sequence

1. The Halton QRNG returns a random float  $[0,1)$
2. Subtract that float from 1, so the interval flips to  $(0,1]$  ensuring any points on the perimeter will now contribute to the "content"
3. Scale the result so it now falls in the interval  $[-1, 1]$

```
[4] # Cell 4
x = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 2)) * 2 - 1
y = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 3)) * 2 - 1
z = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 5)) * 2 - 1
w = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 7)) * 2 - 1
```

Create an array  $d$  that contains the distance from the origin  $(0, 0, 0, 0)$  for every point  $(x, y, z, w)$

Leverage the fact the exponentiation and addition operators are "vector aware"

```
[5] # Cell 5
d = x**2 + y**2 + z**2 + w**2
```

# Run mc\_hypersphere.ipynb – Cell 6

Calculate the absolute percent error in the content estimation

1. The actual/expected content of a unit hypersphere is exactly  $\frac{\pi^2}{2}$

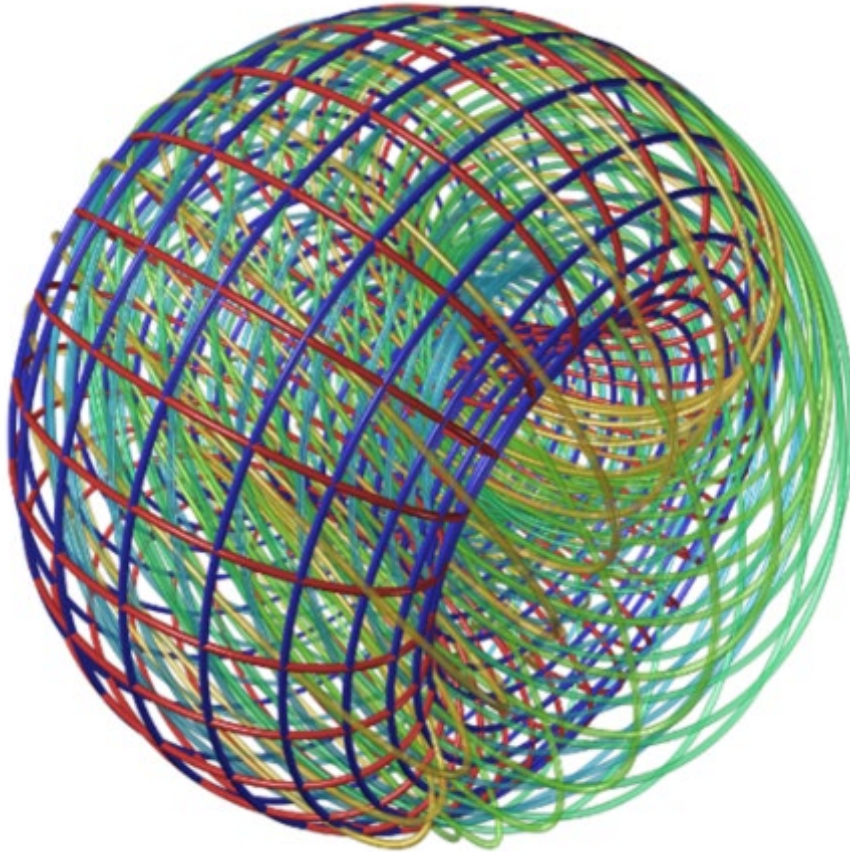
2. The observed/estimated content using the Monte Carlo formulation =  $16 \times \frac{\text{dots inside}}{\text{dots total}}$  ← ①

```
[6] # Cell 7
act = np.pi**2 / 2
est = 16 * np.count_nonzero(d <= 1.0) / total_dots ← ②
err = np.abs((est - act) / act)

print(f"dots = {total_dots:,}")
print(f"act = {act:.6f}")
print(f"est = {est:.6f}")
print(f"err = {err:.5%}")
```

```
↔ dots = 6,250,000
act = 4.934802 ← ③
est = 4.934543
err = 0.00525%
```

# An *Interesting* Question



What is the volume of a 4-D unit hypersphere?

Act. Volume = 4.934802

Est. Volume = 4.934543

% Rel Err = -0.005245%

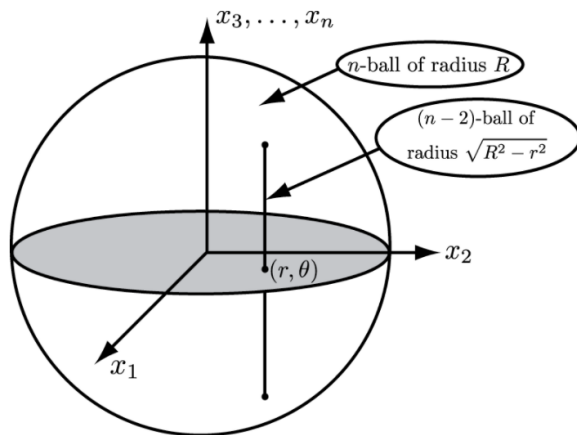
$$= \frac{\pi^2}{2}$$

Yes, we can calculate the volume of something we can not even *imagine!*

# A Recurrence Relation

The **content** of an  $n$ -ball is proportional to the unit ball for that dimension

$$V_n(R) = V_n(1)R^n$$



We can compute  $V_n(1)$  by integrating the  $n-2$  ball over a **unit disk** using polar coordinates

$$\begin{aligned} V_n(1) &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{2\pi} V_{n-2}(1) \left(\sqrt{1-r^2}\right)^{n-2} r d\theta dr \\ &= V_{n-2}(1) \int_0^1 r(1-r^2)^{\frac{n-2}{2}} \theta \Big|_0^{2\pi} dr \\ &= 2\pi V_{n-2}(1) \int_0^1 r(1-r^2)^{\frac{n-2}{2}} dr \end{aligned}$$

$$V_n(1) = \frac{2\pi}{n} V_{n-2}(1)$$

# A Recurrence Relation

$$V_n(1) = \frac{2\pi}{n} V_{n-2}(1)$$

$$V_n(R) = V_n(1)R^n$$

By definition

$$V_0(1) = 1$$

$$V_0(R) = 1$$

$1 - (-1) = 2$

$$V_1(1) = 2$$

$$V_1(R) = 2R$$

$$V_2(1) = \frac{2\pi}{2} (1) = \pi$$

$$V_2(R) = \pi R^2$$

$$V_3(1) = \frac{2\pi}{3} (2) = \frac{4}{3}\pi$$

$$V_3(R) = \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3$$

$$V_4(1) = \frac{2\pi}{4} (\pi) = \frac{\pi^2}{2}$$

$$V_4(R) = \frac{\pi^2}{2} R^4$$

# Volume via the Gamma Function

$$V_n(R) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{n}{2}} R^n}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right)}$$

$\Gamma(n) = (n - 1)!$   
 $n! = \Gamma(n + 1)$

$$V_0(R) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{0}{2}} R^0}{\Gamma\left(\frac{0}{2} + 1\right)} = \frac{1}{(1 - 1)!} = 1$$

$$V_2(R) = \frac{\pi R^2}{\Gamma\left(\frac{2}{2} + 1\right)} = \frac{\pi R^2}{\Gamma(2)} = \frac{\pi R^2}{(2 - 1)!} = \boxed{\pi R^2}$$

$$V_3(R) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{3}{2}} R^3}{\Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2} + 1\right)} = \frac{\pi R^3}{\Gamma\left(\frac{5}{2}\right)} = \frac{\pi^{\frac{3}{2}} R^3}{\left(\frac{3\sqrt{\pi}}{4}\right)} = \pi^{\frac{3}{2}} R^3 \left(\frac{4}{3\sqrt{\pi}}\right) = \boxed{\frac{4}{3} \pi R^3}$$

$$V_4(R) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{4}{2}} R^4}{\Gamma\left(\frac{4}{2} + 1\right)} = \frac{\pi^2 R^4}{\Gamma(3)} = \frac{\pi^2 R^4}{(3 - 1)!} = \boxed{\frac{\pi^2 R^4}{2}}$$



# Volume via the Gamma Function

$$V_n(R) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{n}{2}} R^n}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right)}$$

Because we can evaluate  $\Gamma(x)$  at every point in  $\mathbb{R}$  we can now determine the volume of a unit hypersphere in *any* dimension

$$V_{7.89}(5.12) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{7.89}{2}} 5.12^{7.89}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{7.89}{2} + 1\right)} = \mathbf{1,633,106.2809}$$

As the Gamma function can extend its domain to include  $n \in \mathbb{R}$ , we can use this analytic solution to compute the volume of hyperspheres having **fractional** (non-integer) dimensions!

# Run mc\_high\_dimensions.ipynb – Cells 1...3

## Import needed packages/modules

```
[1] # Cell 1
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
import sympy
from matplotlib.ticker import AutoMinorLocator, MultipleLocator
from numba import float64, int64, vectorize
from scipy.signal import find_peaks ← ①
from scipy.special import gamma
```

## Declare a numba accelerated function that computes the Halton QRNG

1. The parameter  $n$  is an integer of any size
2. The parameter  $p$  is a prime number

```
[2] # Cell 2
@vectorize([float64(int64, int64)], nopython=True)
def halton(n, p):
    h, f = 0, 1
    while n > 0: ← ②
        f = f / p
        h += (n % p) * f
        n = int(n / p)
    return h
```

## Set the total number of samples to take

```
[3] # Cell 3
total_dots = 6_250_000 ← ③
```

# Run mc\_high\_dimensions.ipynb – Cell 4

Estimate the content of `n-balls` from dimension 1 to 13

1. Use `sympy` to provide the Halton generator the correct prime number for each successive dimension
2. We only need to keep a single accumulating  $d$  value to represent the distance to origin for a point as we add for each dimension
3. The Monte Carlo sample space multiplier grows by  $2^{\text{dimension}}$  ← ①

```
[4] # Cell 4
dimensions = 13
d = np.zeros(total_dots)
est = np.zeros(dimensions)
est[0] = 1 # By definition
est[1] = 2 # The 1-D line in the interval [-1,1] has "area" (length) 2 ← ②

for dim in np.arange(1, dimensions): ← ③
    print(f"Calculating the volume of a unit {dim}>2}-ball . . .")
    v = halton(np.arange(total_dots), sympy.prime(dim)) * 2 - 1 ← ④
    d += v**2
    est[dim] = 2**dim * np.count_nonzero(d <= 1.0) / total_dots ← ⑤
```

```
⇒ Calculating the volume of a unit 1-ball . . .
Calculating the volume of a unit 2-ball . . .
Calculating the volume of a unit 3-ball . . .
Calculating the volume of a unit 4-ball . . .
Calculating the volume of a unit 5-ball . . .
Calculating the volume of a unit 6-ball . . . ← ⑥
Calculating the volume of a unit 7-ball . . .
Calculating the volume of a unit 8-ball . . .
Calculating the volume of a unit 9-ball . . .
Calculating the volume of a unit 10-ball . . .
Calculating the volume of a unit 11-ball . . .
Calculating the volume of a unit 12-ball . . .
```

## Run mc\_high\_dimensions.ipynb – Cell 5

Using the analytic solution, calculate the dimension and content for the largest unit `n`-ball

$$V_n(R) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{n}{2}} R^n}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2} + 1)} \quad \leftarrow \textcircled{1}$$

```
[5] # Cell 5
    act_x = np.linspace(0, dimensions - 1, 1000) ← ②
    act_y = np.power(np.pi, act_x / 2) / gamma(act_x / 2 + 1) ← ③
    m = find_peaks(act_y)[0][0] ← ④
    print(f"max dim = {act_x[m]:.6f}")
    print(f"max vol = {act_y[m]:.6f}")
```

```
↳ max dim = 5.261261 ← ⑤
   max vol = 5.277764
```

## Run mc\_high\_dimensions.ipynb – Cell 6

Plot the estimated and actual n-ball content vs. dimension

```
[6] # Cell 6
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 8))
plt.plot(np.arange(dimensions), est, color="blue", label="Estimated")
plt.plot(act_x, act_y, color="red", label="Actual")
plt.scatter(act_x[m], act_y[m], marker="o", color="green")
plt.vlines(act_x[m], 0, act_y[m], color="green")
plt.title("Volume of n-Dimensional Hyperspheres")
plt.xlabel("Dimension")
plt.ylabel("Volume")
ax = plt.gca()
ax.xaxis.set_major_locator(MultipleLocator(1))
ax.xaxis.set_minor_locator(MultipleLocator(0.5))
ax.yaxis.set_minor_locator(AutoMinorLocator())
ax.legend(loc="upper right")
ax.grid("on")
plt.show()
```

①

②

③

④

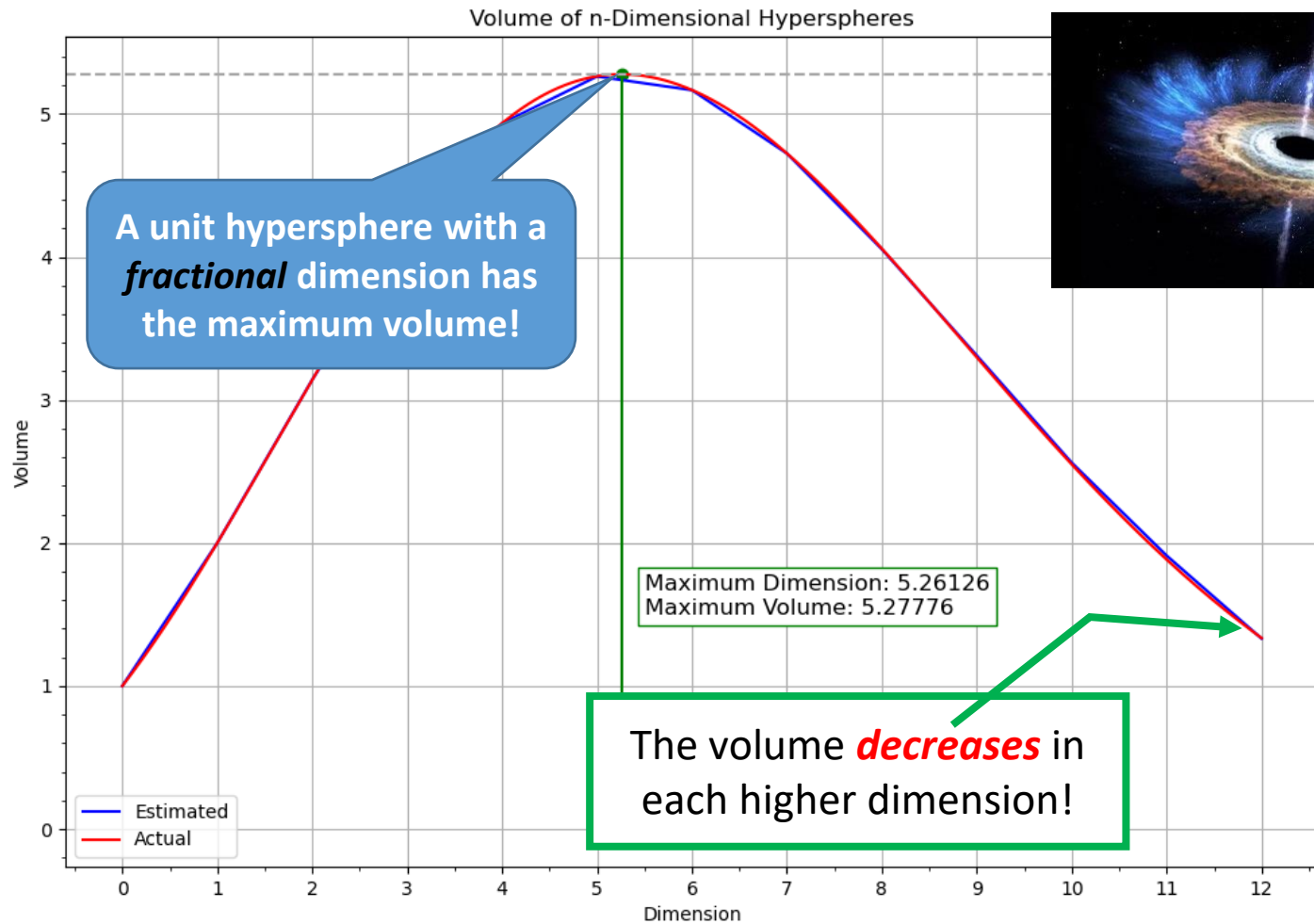
# Monte Carlo Estimation of n-Ball Content

What lurks beyond the 4<sup>th</sup> dimension?

Calculating the volume of a unit	1-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	2-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	3-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	4-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	5-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	6-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	7-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	8-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	9-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	10-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	11-ball	. . .
Calculating the volume of a unit	12-ball	. . .

# Monte Carlo Estimation of n-Ball Content

What lurks beyond the 4<sup>th</sup> dimension?





# The Power Of Monte Carlo Integration

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{F}^{(n)} &= \frac{\mu}{8\pi} \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \int_{s_1}^{s_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \left( \frac{2}{R_a^3} + \frac{3a^2}{R_a^5} \right) \{(\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{b}) (\mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{n}) + \mathbf{t} [(\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{n}]\} \\
 &\quad \times \left( \frac{r - r_1}{r_2 - r_1} \frac{s - s_1}{s_2 - s_1} \right) ds dr dy \\
 &- \frac{\mu}{4\pi (1 - \nu)} \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \int_{s_1}^{s_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \left( \frac{1}{R_a^3} + \frac{3a^2}{R_a^5} \right) [(\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{t}] \mathbf{n} \left( \frac{r - r_1}{r_2 - r_1} \frac{s - s_1}{s_2 - s_1} \right) ds dr dy \\
 &+ \frac{\mu}{4\pi (1 - \nu)} \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \int_{s_1}^{s_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \frac{1}{R_a^3} \{(\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{t}) (\mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{n}) + \mathbf{R} [(\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{t}) \cdot \mathbf{n}]\} \left( \frac{r - r_1}{r_2 - r_1} \frac{s - s_1}{s_2 - s_1} \right) ds dr dy \\
 &- \frac{\mu}{4\pi (1 - \nu)} \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \int_{s_1}^{s_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \frac{3}{R_a^5} [(\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{t}] (\mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{n}) \mathbf{R} \left( \frac{r - r_1}{r_2 - r_1} \frac{s - s_1}{s_2 - s_1} \right) ds dr dy.
 \end{aligned}$$

# More Monte Carlo Integration

We can use the principles of Monte Carlo sampling to estimate the area under **other types of curves**

1. We must determine which dots are "inside" (underneath) versus "outside" (above) the **curve**
2. We must determine the *bounds* (**area**) of the sample space
3. We need to determine the number of samples (dots) required to achieve the desired **accuracy**

$$\frac{\text{dots}_{\text{inside}}}{\text{dots}_{\text{total}}} = \frac{\text{area}_{\text{curve}}}{\text{area}_{\text{sample}}}$$

We don't know  
this area

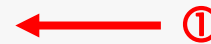
# The Quadrature of a Parabola

- Use the Monte Carlo method to estimate and display the area under the parabola  $y = 4 - x^2$
- Pick 40,000 random points within a sample area bounded by  $-2 \leq x \leq 2$  and  $0 < y \leq 5$
- Plot sampled points **under** the curve **red** and sample points **above** the curve **blue**
- From calculus, we know the exact area is  $32/3$
- Print the actual area, the estimated area, and the absolute percentage error (APE) of the estimate

# Run mc\_parabola.ipynb – Cells 1...3

## Import needed packages/modules

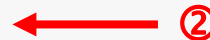
```
[1] # Cell 1
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
from numba import int64, float64, vectorize
```



## Declare a numba accelerated function that computes the Halton QRNG

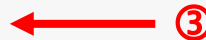
1. The parameter  $n$  is an integer of any size
2. The parameter  $p$  is a prime number

```
[2] # Cell 2
@vectorize([float64(int64, int64)], nopython=True)
def halton(n, p):
    h, f = 0, 1
    while n > 0:
        f = f / p
        h += (n % p) * f
        n = int(n / p)
    return h
```



## Set the number of random *dots* (samples) to take

```
[3] # Cell 3
total_dots = 40_600
```



## Run mc\_parabola.ipynb – Cells 4...5

Take  $n$  "random" samples of 2D Cartesian points  $(x, y)$  using the Halton sequence

1. Scale the results so  $-2 \leq x_{rng} \leq 2$  and  $0 \leq y_{rng} \leq 5$  ← ①
2. The sample area is thus  $(-2...2) \times (0..5) = 20$

```
[4] # Cell 4
x = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 2)) * 4 - 2 ← ②
y = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 3)) * 5
print(x)
print(y)
```

```
⇒ [ 2.          0.          1.          ... -0.64801025  0.35198975
   -1.64801025] ← ③
[5.          3.33333333  1.66666667 ...  2.02086403  0.35419736  4.61345662]
```

Create an array  $d$  containing  $y_{rnd} - f(x_{rnd})$  ← ④

```
[5] # Cell 5
d = y - (4 - x**2) ← ⑤
print(d)
```

```
⇒ [ 5.          -0.66666667 -1.33333333 ... -1.55921868 -3.52190586 ← ⑥
   3.32939442]
```

# Run mc\_parabola.ipynb – Cells 6...7

Create arrays of  $(x, y)$  coordinates that are "above" or "on or below" the parabola

Here  $f(x) = 4 - x^2$  so if  $d > 0$  then the sample point is "above" the curve

```
[6] # Cell 6
x_in = x[d <= 0.0]
y_in = y[d <= 0.0]
x_out = x[d > 0.0]
y_out = y[d > 0.0]
```

Calculate the absolute percent error in the area estimation

1. The actual/expected definite integral is  $\frac{32}{3} = 10.6666\dots$

2. The observed/estimated area using the Monte Carlo formulation =  $20 \times \frac{\text{dots inside}}{\text{dots total}}$

```
[7] # Cell 7
act = 32 / 3
est = 20 * np.count_nonzero(d <= 0.0) / total_dots
err = np.abs((est - act) / act)

print(f"dots = {total_dots:,}")
print(f"act = {act:.6f}")
print(f"est = {est:.6f}")
print(f"err = {err:.5%}")
```

```
↳ dots = 40,600
act = 10.666667
est = 10.670936
err = 0.04002%
```

## Run mc\_parabola.ipynb – Cells 8

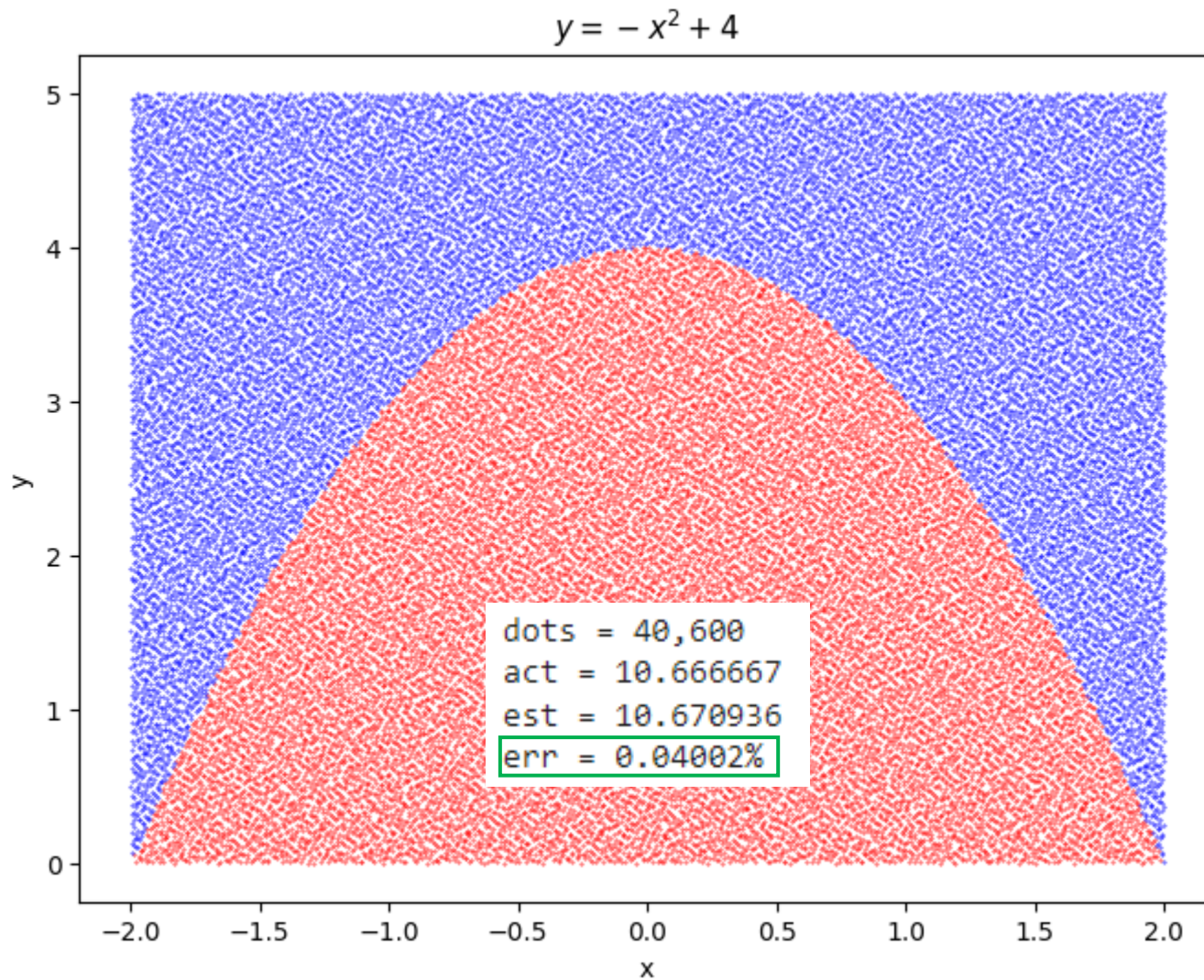
Display the scatter plot of the Monte Carlo estimation

```
[8] # Cell 8
plt.figure(figsize=(8, 6))
plt.scatter(x_in, y_in, color="red", marker=".", s=0.5)
plt.scatter(x_out, y_out, color="blue", marker=".", s=0.5)
plt.title("$y=-x^2+4$")
plt.xlabel("x")
plt.ylabel("y")
plt.show()
```

①



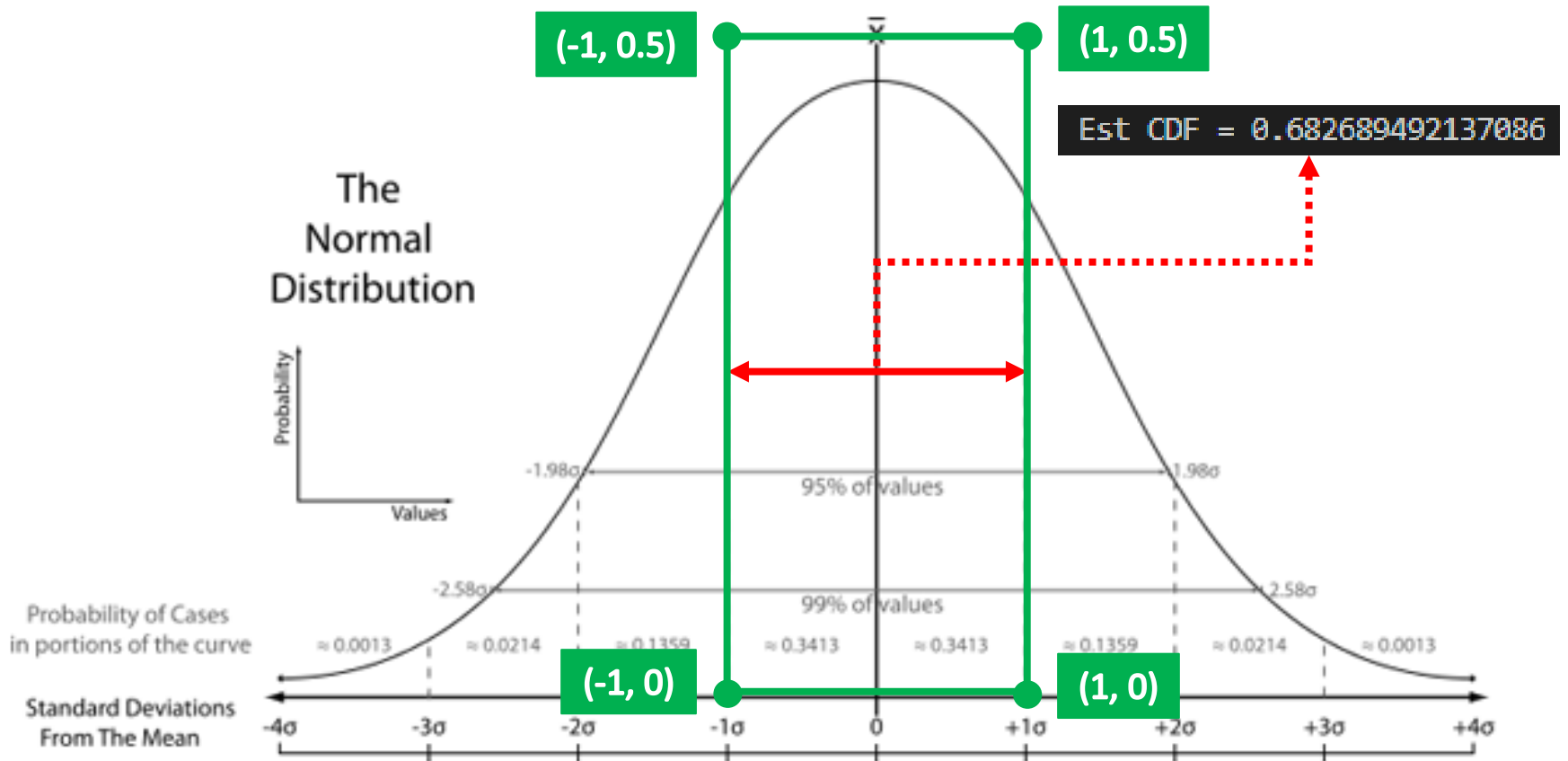
## Check mc\_parabola.ipynb – Cells 8



# Cumulative Distribution Function

Estimate the probability that a normally distributed random variable will fall within  $\pm$  the **first** standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) of its mean ( $\mu$ )

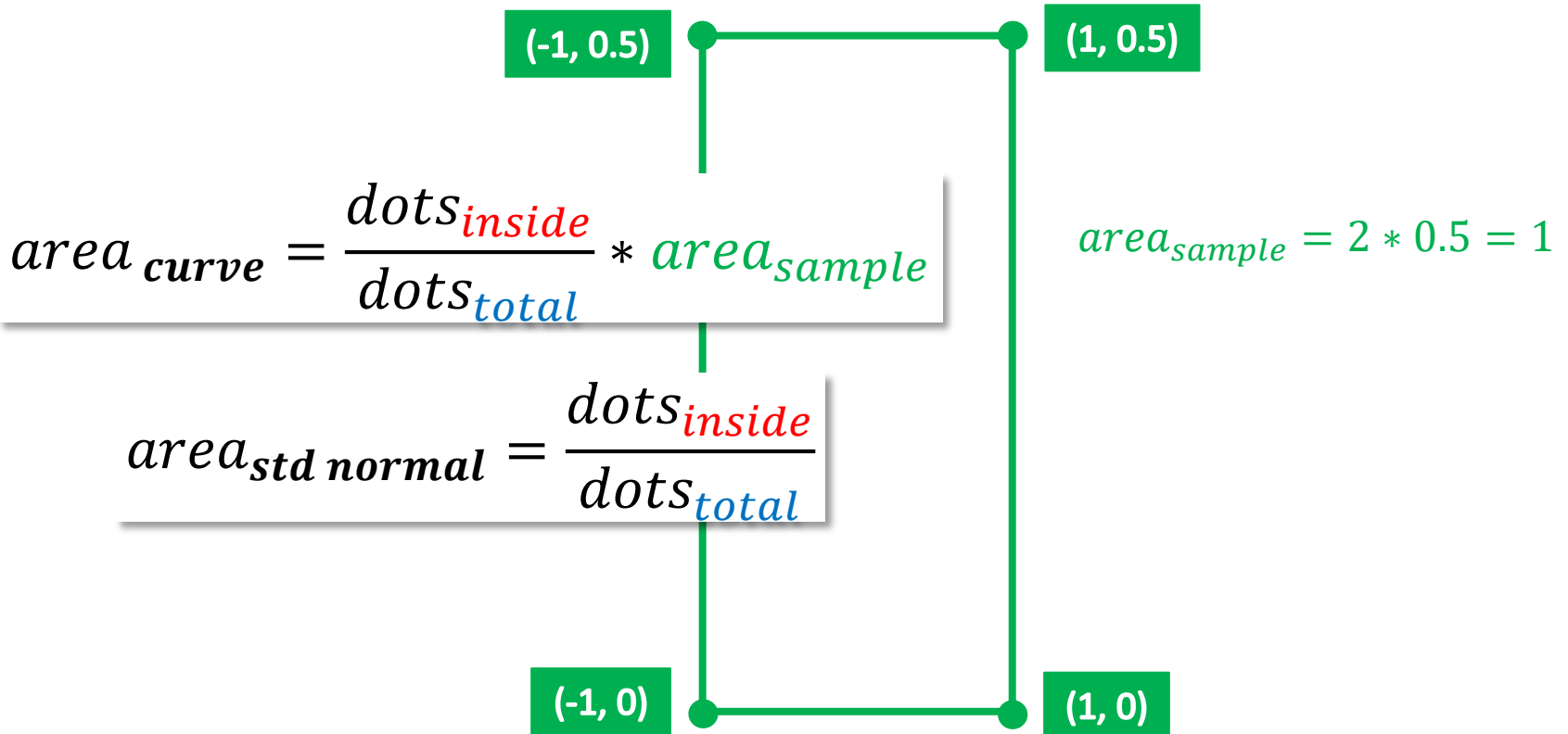
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



# Cumulative Distribution Function

Estimate the probability that a normally distributed random variable will fall within  $\pm$  the first standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) of its mean ( $\mu$ )

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



# Run mc\_std\_normal.ipynb – Cells 1...3

## Import needed packages/modules

```
[1] # Cell 1 ← ①
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
from numba import int64, float64, vectorize
```

## Declare a numba accelerated function that computes the Halton QRNG

1. The parameter  $n$  is an integer of any size
2. The parameter  $p$  is a prime number

```
[2] # Cell 2 ← ②
@vectorize([float64(int64, int64)], nopython=True)
def halton(n, p):
    h, f = 0, 1
    while n > 0:
        f = f / p
        h += (n % p) * f
        n = int(n / p)
    return h
```

## Set the number of random *dots* (samples) to take

```
[3] # Cell 3 ← ③
total_dots = 30_000
```

# Run mc\_std\_normal.ipynb – Cells 4...5

Take  $n$  "random" samples of 2D Cartesian points  $(x, y)$  using the Halton sequence

1. Scale the results so  $-1 \leq x_{rng} \leq 1$  and  $0 \leq y_{rng} \leq 0.5$  ← ①
2. The sample area is thus  $(-1...1) \times (0...1/2) = 1$

```
[4] # Cell 4
x = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 2)) * 2.0 - 1.0
y = (1 - halton(np.arange(total_dots), 3)) * 0.5
print(x)
print(y)
```

```
↵ [ 1.          0.          0.5          ... -0.41156006  0.08843994
   -0.91156006]
   [0.5          0.33333333 0.16666667 ... 0.49120222 0.32453556 0.15786889]
```

Create an array  $d$  containing  $y_{rnd} - f(x_{rnd})$

Here  $f(x) \equiv$  the Gaussian Standard Normal PDF

```
[5] # Cell 5

def f(x): ← ③
    # Standard Normal PDF
    return 1.0 / np.sqrt(2.0 * np.pi) * np.exp(-np.power(x, 2) / 2.0)

d = y - f(x) ← ④
print(d)
```

```
↵ [ 0.25802928 -0.06560895 -0.18539866 ... 0.12465553 -0.07284958
   -0.10544475]
```

# Run mc\_std\_normal.ipynb – Cells 6...7

Create arrays of  $(x, y)$  coordinates that are "above" or "on or below" the curve  
if  $d > 0$  then the sample point is "above" the curve

```
[6] # Cell 6 ← ①
     x_in = x[d <= 0.0]
     y_in = y[d <= 0.0]
     x_out = x[d > 0.0]
     y_out = y[d > 0.0]
```

Calculate the absolute percent error in the area estimation

1. The actual/expected definite *non-analytic* integral is 0.682689492...
2. The observed/estimated area using the Monte Carlo formulation =  $1 \times \frac{\text{dots}_{\text{inside}}}{\text{dots}_{\text{total}}}$

```
[7] # Cell 7 ← ②
     act = 0.682689492
     est = 1 * np.count_nonzero(d <= 0.0) / total_dots
     err = np.abs((est - act) / act)

     print(f"dots = {total_dots:,}")
     print(f"act = {act:.6f}")
     print(f"est = {est:.6f}")
     print(f"err = {err:.5%}")
```

```
↔ dots = 30,000
   act = 0.682689
   est = 0.682667
   err = 0.00334%
```

## Run mc\_std\_normal.ipynb – Cell 8

Display the scatter plot of the Monte Carlo estimation

Include a line graph of the Std Normal PDF to highlight the integrand

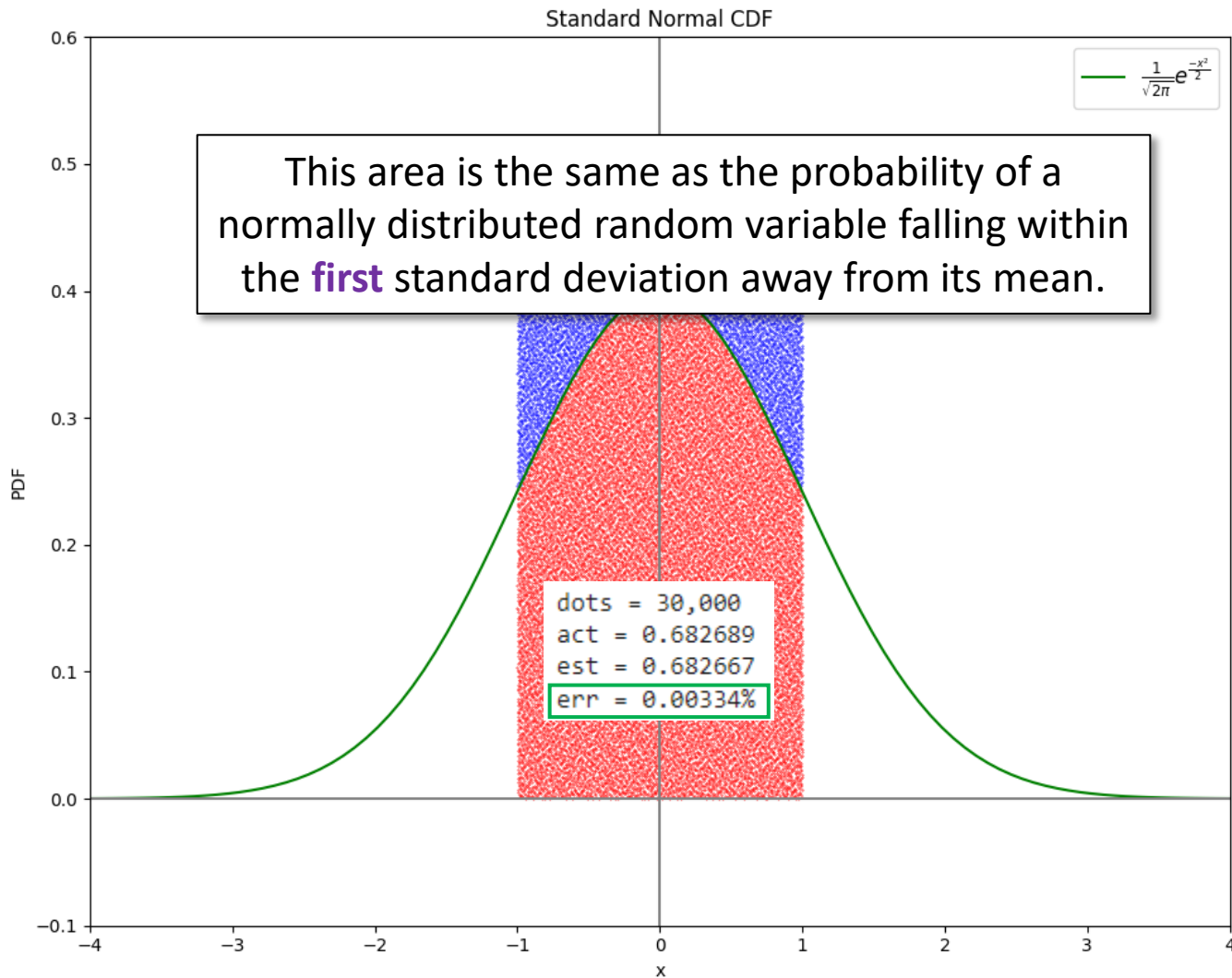
[8] # Cell 8

```
act_x = np.linspace(-4, 4, 100)
act_y = f(act_x)

plt.figure(figsize=(10, 8))
plt.scatter(x_in, y_in, color="red", marker=".", s=0.5)
plt.scatter(x_out, y_out, color="blue", marker=".", s=0.5)
plt.plot(
    act_x, act_y, color="green",
    label=r"$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{\frac{-x^2}{2}}$"
)
plt.title("Standard Normal CDF")
plt.axhline(0, color="gray")
plt.axvline(0, color="gray")
plt.xlim(-4.0, 4.0)
plt.ylim(-0.1, 0.6)
plt.xlabel("x")
plt.ylabel("PDF")
plt.legend(loc="upper right", fontsize="12")
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



# Check mc\_std\_normal.ipynb – Cell 8



## Session 02 – Now You Know...

- Monte Carlo integration uses **random sampling**
  - The method calculates the ratio of the points below the curve to the total number of points – **the final ratio is the “area”**
  - It may require billions of samples to provide a reasonable estimate
  - It may be the *only way* to take the integral of a very complex function
- What you are taught cannot be the limit of your knowledge
  - The volume of a 4-D unit hypersphere =  $\frac{\pi^2}{2}$
  - In infinite dimensions the volume of **all** hyperspheres is zero!
  - A fractional **5-dimensional** unit sphere has **maximum** volume
  - Mother Nature *never* said dimensions must be integers!