## L2 Computational Physics

## Week 5

Monte Carlo Methods

## Overview

- Background / motivation
- Monte Carlo Methods
- Coin Tossing
- Breakout - random numbers
- Breakout - random number generation
- Radioactive Decay
- Monte Carlo Integration


# Setting the scene <br> Limitations of Differential Equations 

## Think back - Radioactive decay

- Decay rate of $N$ atoms of mean lifetime $\tau$

$$
\frac{d n}{d t}=-\frac{N}{\tau}
$$

- Analytical solution

$$
N(t)=N_{0} e^{-t / \tau}
$$

- You used DEQ solvers to numerically solve the equation


## Let's model a system

-1000 atoms
-Half life: 20.8 hours

- Analytic and DEQ solvers


## What's wrong with this?



## Why is this unphysical?



## Why is this unphysical?

| time \| | analytic\| | heun |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 01 | 1000.0001 | 1000.000 |
| 11 | 959.264\| | 959.276 |
| 21 | 920.188\| | 920.210 |
| 31 | 882.7031 | 882.736 |
| 41 | 846.745\| | 846.787 |
| 61 | 812.252 \| | 812.303 |
| 71 | 779.165\| | 779.222 |
| 81 | 747.4251 | 747.489 |
| 91 | 716.978\| | 717.049 |
| 101 | 687.7711 | 687.847 |
| 12\| | 659.7541 | 659.836 |
| 13\| | 632.8781 | 632.964 |
| 14\| | 607.0971 | 607.188 |
| 15\| | 582.3671 | 582.460 |
| 16\| | 558.6441 | 558.740 |
| 18\| | 535.8871 | 535.986 |
| 19\| | 514.0571 | 514.159 |
| 201 | 493.1161 | 493.220 |
| 211 | 473.0291 | 473.134 |
| 22\| | 453.760 \| | 453.866 |

## What's going on?

- The differential equation describes the continuum behaviour of the population
- It's not possible to write an equation for the decay of a single atom


## What's going on?

- The differential equation describes the continuum behaviour of the population
- It's not possible to write an equation for the decay of a single atom
- A single atom decays at a random, unpredictable time


## Monte Carlo Methods

Using randomness

## Monte Carlo Methods

- A family of techniques that use randomness
- Named inspired by the Casino de Monte-Carlo
- MC methods are used when:
- Deterministic solution is not viable (analytical, DEQ, ...)
- Deterministic solution is to slow
- Real, important complexity is introduced by the stochastic behaviour


## Coin Tossing

## Coin Tossing

- About as simple as it gets
- $P($ heads $)=P($ tails $)=0.5$
- Continuum behaviour
- Number of heads in ' $N$ ' tosses $=$ N*P(heads)


## How does a computer toss a coin?

$\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$ random number between 0 and 1
if x > P(heads):
print "Heads"
else:
print "tails"

That's pretty simple, but where does our random number come from?

# Randomness 

What is it?
Where does it come from?

## Certainty

- A Turing Machine is a deterministic system based on logic and mathematics
- Perhaps this is why a CPU will never truly achieve consciousness
- Important area of emerging research?
- What is consciousness? Is consciousness computable? Is it classical Physics? Is it quantum?
- So, how does this system get random numbers?


## True random numbers

- True random numbers must come from outside our digital computer
- Point a Geiger counter at a radioactive source, use the intervals between particle detection
- Listen to the CMB radiation
- Measure thermal noise in an electric or photonic current



## Pseudo Random Number Generator

- A PRNG is an algorithm that generates a very long, but finite, series of apparently random numbers
- These are often good-enough
- Let's take a few minutes to understand what they are and how they work


## Pseudo Random Number Generator

- There are many types of PRNG
- Each one is an algorithm that, given a number, produces another, apparently unconnected number

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r 0=\text { inititial_random_number }(\text { seed }) \\
& r 1=f(r 0), r 2=f(r 1) \text { r } 3=f(r 2) \text { etc }
\end{aligned}
$$

- This sequence of values, r0, r1,r2, ... is in fact $100 \%$ deterministic and predictable given a-priori knowledge
- the numbers produced are seemingly random and bias free
- good enough for most things!


## Black Box

- Python and Numpy both provide modules for random numbers
- Random.random()
- numpy.random()



## Random Numbers in Python

- Python has a built in module 'random'
- Generates a single random number
- Uniform distribution
- $0<=$ random.random() $<=1$
- a <= random.randint(a, b) <= b
- Normal distribution
- random.normalvariate(mu, sigma)
- Many more
- See the docs
- http://docs.python.org/library/random.html


## Seeding

- A PRNG is actually deterministic
- Given a certain value, the next one is defined
- A PRNG needs initialising or 'seeding' with a value


## In the olden days...




# Every time the computer booted, the PRNG reverted to the start of the sequence 

The 'random' numbers were predictable

Imagine if:
the 'random' movements of the characters a game were predictable
The 'random' numbers used for an encryption key could be predicted

## First go

Amstrad Microcomputer (u\&)
91985 Amstrad ple and Locomotive Software Ltd. PARADOS U1.1. G1997 RUANTUM Solutions. BASIC 1.1.

Ready
print "hello world"
Ready
print rend
6. 271945658

Ready
print rind
(1. 528612386 Ready
print rind
日. 2 Z 13 B 127
Ready

## Second go

Amstrad Microcomputer (u\&)
91985 Amstrad ple and Locomotive Software Ltd. PARADOS U1.1. G1997 QUANTUM Solutions. BASIC 1.1

Ready "Lets try that again"
print "Lets try that
Ready
print rond
6. 271940658

Ready
print rind
6.528612386

Ready
print rend
(1)2133612?

Ready

## Solution

- Initialise the PRNG to a location in its sequence derived from the current time or some other convenient 'random' number
- This happens automatically with some modern programming environments
- Generating one "high entropy" random seed unlocks a "good enough" sequence of PRNs


## Why do we care?

- Some environments automatically 'randomize time'
- Some don't - beware and check this!
- If you think debugging is difficult, wait until you try and debug a program with random numbers!
- Using the same seed when debugging means at least the program gets the same data each time...


## Random numbers in Numpy

## numpy.random.uniform




## numpy.random.normal

| $\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{O}$ example7.2.py | $12^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| example7.2.py | + |
| !ㅐㄴ $\|>\| \square$ example7.2.py $\rangle$ No Selection |  |
| import numpy import numpy. random |  |
|  |  |
| ```N_RESULTS = 1000 dat = numpy.random.normal(size=1000, loc=0.5, scale=1)``` |  |
| import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot |  |
| values, bins $=$ numpy.histogram(dat, 10) |  |
| bins = bins [: -1 ] |  |
| pyplot.xlabel('Value') |  |
| pyplot.ylabel('Probability') |  |
| pyplot.bar(bins, values, width=bins [1]-bins [0]) |  |
| pyplot.title('numpy.random. normal() distribution') |  |
| pyplot.savefig('fig_72.png') |  |
| pyplot.show() |  |



## numpy.random.poison




## More reading...

- Histograms in matplotlib
http://matplotlib.sourceforge.net/plot directive/mpl examples/pylab examples/histogram demo.py
- Python 'random’ module
http://docs.python.org/library/random.html
- Numpy ‘random’ module


## Coin tossing

- So now that we know all about how to get random numbers, let's simulate tossing a coin
- "What fraction of coin tosses are heads?"


## The program

```
7 coins.py - Gi/teaching/2010-2011/CompPhys/05 monte carlo method... \(\quad-|\underline{|l|}|\)
File Edit Format Run Options Windows Help
    from __future__ import division
    import random
    import numpy
p_heads \(=0.5\) \# probability of a heads
N_TOSSES \(=5\) \# number of times to toss coins
for toss in range (N_TOSSES) :
    if random. random() >= p_heads:
            heads += 1
        else:
        tails += 1
frac_heads \(=\) heads / N_TOSSES
print 'The fraction of heads was: *.3f' \% frac_heads

\section*{The results}


\section*{Run it again}


\section*{And again}








\section*{pyplot.errorbar}


\section*{Law of Large Numbers}

The more times we perform a stochastic experiment (tossing our coin), the closer the experimental average will tend to fall to the expected value

Central limit theorem
Error (standard deviation) scales as \(1 /\) sqrt(N)



Radioactive Decay

\section*{Radioactive Decay}
total population of nuclei:

Half-life decay process
\(t_{1 / 2}\)

Define mean lifetime of a nuclei:
\[
\tau=t_{1 / 2} / \ln (2)
\]

DEQ
\[
f(n, t)=d N / d t=-N / \tau
\]

Analytical solution:
\[
N(t)=N_{0} e^{-t / \tau}
\]

\section*{Radioactive Decay}
total population of nuclei: N

Half-life decay process \(t_{1 / 2}\)

Define mean lifetime of a nuclei:
\(\tau=t_{1 / 2} / \ln (2)\)
\(P\) (no decay) in one half-life is 0.5
\(P(\) no decay \()\) in time \(t\) is \(e^{-t / \tau}\)
\(P(\) decay \()=1-P(\) no decay \()\)

DEQ
\(f(n, t)=d N / d t=-N / \tau\)

Analytical solution:
\[
N(t)=N_{0} e^{-t / \tau}
\]

\section*{Radioactive Decay}
```

Initialise 160 atoms to 'undecayed'
Let halflife = 1
Let timestep = 1
For time in range(0, 10, timestep):
for each atom:
if random() <= p(decay):
atom decays
count number of undecayed atoms

```
plot number vs time

\section*{Repeat runs}


\section*{Decay Chain blue \(\rightarrow\) red \(\rightarrow\) unseen}


\title{
Interactive Monte Carlo simulation \\ Radioactive Decay
}

\section*{Classroom excercise}

You are the atoms

Divide time into equally spaced timepoints
\(\mathrm{dt}=\mathrm{t}_{1 / 2}=1\)
You are the random number generator
Toss a coin
Heads Decay / Tails don't decay in each timestep

\section*{Results linear plot}


\section*{Results}

\section*{semilogy}


\section*{Monte Carlo Integration}

\section*{Monte Carlo Integration}
- Methods for integrating using random numbers
- Random Sampling
- Hit and Miss
- Accuracy scales as \(1 /\) sqrt(n)
- Regardless of D, the number of dimensions integrated over.
- Computationally expensive compared for small D
- Efficient for high D
- Further reading - Numerical Recipes in C, §7.6

\section*{Hit and Miss to find \(\pi\)}
- See blackboard

\section*{EHD DF LIHE}

62```

