# **Comments on singularities**

Open-interval formulas can be used

- singular point(s) should be at end(s); divide up interval in parts if needed
- but convergence with number of points n may be very slow

Divergent part can some times be subtracted and solved analytically More sophisticated methods exist for difficult cases

# **Other methods**

### Gaussian quadrature:

- non-uniform grid points; n+1 points  $\rightarrow$  exact result for polynomial of order n
- several Julia packages, e.g., FastGaussQuadrature.jl

## Gauss-Kronrod quadrature:

- uses two Gaussian quad. evaluations for different n, similarly to Romberg
- package QuadGK.jl uses a version of this method

# Adaptive grid (adaptive mesh):

- dynamically adapted to be more dense where most needed

# Infinite integration range

Change variables to make range finite

# **Multi-Dimensional integration**

$$I = \int_{a_n}^{b_n} dx_n \cdots \int_{a_2}^{b_2} dx_2 \int_{a_n}^{b_n} dx_1 f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n),$$

Can be carried out numerically dimension-by-dimension Example, function of two variables

$$I = \int_{a_y}^{b_y} dy \int_{a_x(y)}^{b_x(y)} dx f(x, y)$$

Integrating numerically over x first, gives a function of y:

$$F(y) = \int_{a_x(y)}^{b_x(y)} dx f(x, y)$$

This has to be done for values of y on a grid, to be used in

$$I = \int_{a_y}^{b_y} dy F(y)$$

Very time consuming for large dimensionality D; scaling M<sup>D</sup> of effort

- M represents mean (geom) number of grid points for 1D integrals

$$h_y \begin{bmatrix} & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\$$

# Monte Carlo Integration

An integral over a finite volume V:

- is (by definition) the mean value of the function times the volume

$$I = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = (b-a)\langle f \rangle$$

The mean value <f> can be estimated by sampling

- generate N random (uniformly distributed) x values  $x_i$  in the range, then

$$\bar{f} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(x_i) \to \langle f \rangle, \text{ when } N \to \infty$$

For finite N, there is a statistical error:

$$\left\langle \bar{f} - \left\langle f \right\rangle \right\rangle \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$$

I =

The statistical result for the integral should be expressed as

interepretation of the mean error: If the "simulation" is repeated many times, the averaged squared error (variance) tends to a value a/N, for with a some constant

$$\bar{I} \pm \sigma = V(\bar{f} + \sigma/V) \qquad \sigma \circ$$

$$\sigma \propto N^{-1/2}$$

Computing the "error bar"  $\sigma$  is an important aspect of the sampling method

## Standard ilustration of MC integration; estimate of $\pi$

Consider a circle of radius 1, centered at (x,y)=0. Define a function:

 $f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \le 1\\ 0, & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 > 1 \end{cases}$ 

**Expected fraction of "hits"** 

**Use MC sampling to compute:** 

the surrounding box 
$$A = \int_{-1}^{1} dy \int_{-1}^{1} dx f(x, y) = \pi = 4 \langle f \rangle_{\Box}$$



The error after N steps

mean value inside

Four repetitions of a simulation, dots showing partial results as the mean value evolves

We should compute the statistical error properly

### **Statistical errors**

Expressing a statistical estimate as  $A \pm \sigma$ , the meaning normally is

- $\sigma$  represents one standard deviation of the computed mean value A
- under the assumption of normal-distributed fluctuations

Then, the probability of the true value being

- within [A- $\sigma$ ,A+ $\sigma$ ] is 68%
- within [A- $2\sigma$ ,A+ $2\sigma$ ] is 95%
- within [A-3 $\sigma$ ,A+3 $\sigma$ ] is 99.7%

For M independent samples A<sub>i</sub>:

$$\bar{A} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} A_i$$

$$\sigma_A = \sqrt{\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} (A_i - \bar{A})^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} (A_i^2 - \bar{A}^2)^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\bar{A}^2 - (\bar{A})^2}$$

 $\mu \qquad 1\sigma \qquad 2\sigma \qquad 3\sigma$ This is the standard deviation

13.55%

34.15%

.55%

-1σ

34.15%

of the distribution of values {A<sub>i</sub>}

But the "error bar" is the standard deviation of the mean of  $\{A_i\}$ 

2.15%

0.15%

The mean value fluctuates less than the width  $\sigma_A$  of the distribution - imagine taking the number of samples M to infinity:

$$\sigma_{A} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} (A_{i} - \bar{A})^{2}}$$
 will approach a constant value  
- the standard deviation of the distribution  
$$\bar{A} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} A_{i}$$
 will approach a constant value  
- the actual value of A  
\$\$= \frac{1}{M} \sum\_{i=1}^{M} A\_{i}\$\$
 will approach a constant value  
- the actual value of A

Variances add: variance of the sum  $\sum_{i=1}^{M} A_i$  is  $M\sigma_A^2$ 

- standard deviation of the sum is  $\sqrt{M}\sigma_A$
- divide by M; standard deviation of the mean is  $\sigma_A/\sqrt{M}$
- here M should be replaced by M-1 (reflecting infinite uncertainty if M=1)

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{M(M-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{M} (A_i - \bar{A})^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{M(M-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{M} (A_i^2 - \bar{A}^2)} = \sqrt{\frac{\bar{A}^2 - (\bar{A})^2}{M-1}}$$

#### **Data binning**

The statistical error ("error bar") has its conventional meaning only if the values  $\{A_i\}$  are normal distributed

- typically they obey some completely different distribution

Apply central limit theorem to obtain normal distributed "bin averages"

A bin average is based on M samples as before, but now B of them

- B different mean values (estimates of A):  $\bar{A}_1, \bar{A}_2, \ldots, \bar{A}_B$ 

$$\bar{A}_b = rac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M A_{b,i}$$
 A<sub>b,i</sub> is value #i belonging to bin b

Regardless of the distribution of individual values

- if M is large enough, the bin averages are normal-distributed Use standard formulas with the bin data:

$$\bar{A} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \bar{A}_{b} \qquad \sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{B(B-1)} \sum_{b=1}^{B} (\bar{A}_{b} - \bar{A})^{2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{B(B-1)} \sum_{b=1}^{B} (\bar{A}_{b}^{2} - \bar{A}^{2})} = \sqrt{\frac{\bar{A}^{2} - (\bar{A})^{2}}{B-1}}$$

#### **Emergence of normal distribution**

- example: sampling f=1 circle in square
- lets just consider the estimate of the mean <f> For each sample, the probabilities of f=0,1 are:

$$P(f = 1) = \pi/4, \quad P(f = 0) = 1 - \pi/4$$

For N samples, the possible  $A \in \left\{0, \frac{1}{N}, \frac{2}{N}, \dots, \frac{N-1}{N}, 1\right\}$  average values A are

the probabilities of these averages are



$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \le 1\\ 0, & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 < 1 \end{cases}$$



Evolution of P(A) from N=1 to 100

Note: We can think of the probability distribution of a continuum of A values

P(A) is a sum of delta-functions; reflects discrete set of possible values

For large N, a small broadening of the deltas (e.g., bars or Gaussians) give a continuous distribution



$$P(A) = \sum_{m=0}^{N} \frac{N!}{m!(N-m)!} \left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)^m \left(1 - \frac{\pi}{4}\right)^{N-m} \delta(A - m/N)$$