

V. Simulation

Sven Johr

Universität des Saarlandes

March 14, 2005

Datennetze II/Verifikation II

Powered by \LaTeX .



OUTLINE

1 DISCRETE EVENT SIMULATION

- Introduction
- Random numbers

2 STATISTICS

- Value estimation
- Hypothesis testing

3 MODEL CHECKING

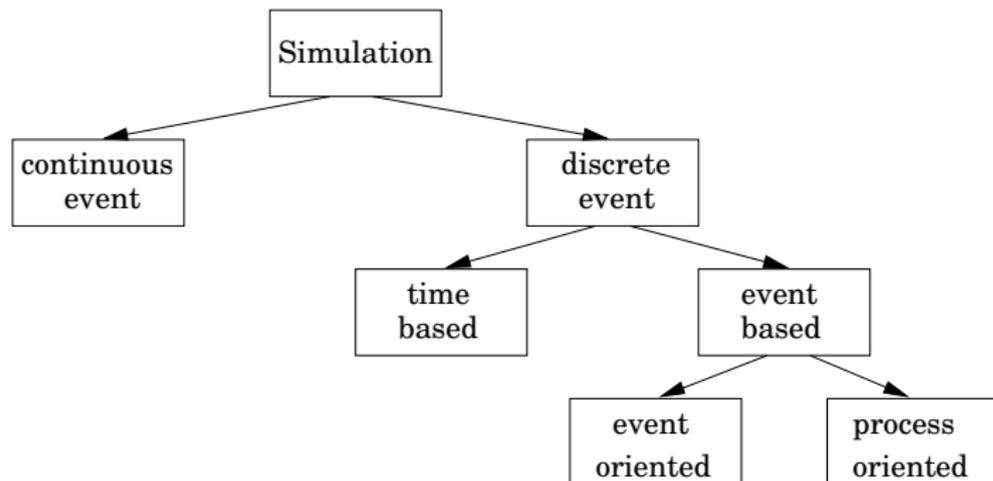


SIMULATION

- Instead of numerically analysing a system.
- Perform single runs of the system.
 - Define a **stopping criterion** Ψ ,
 - continue simulating the system until Ψ is fulfilled.
- Collect information from single runs and make a conclusion.
- No exhaustive simulation,
 - result has some uncertainty.
- **Time-advance mechanism** is used.
 - Clock times are sampled,
 - simulation clock advances in a discrete step.
 - Simulation time \neq real time.



CLASSIFICATION



- Discrete-event simulation: systems are discrete state systems.
- Time is continuous.



TIME-BASED SIMULATION

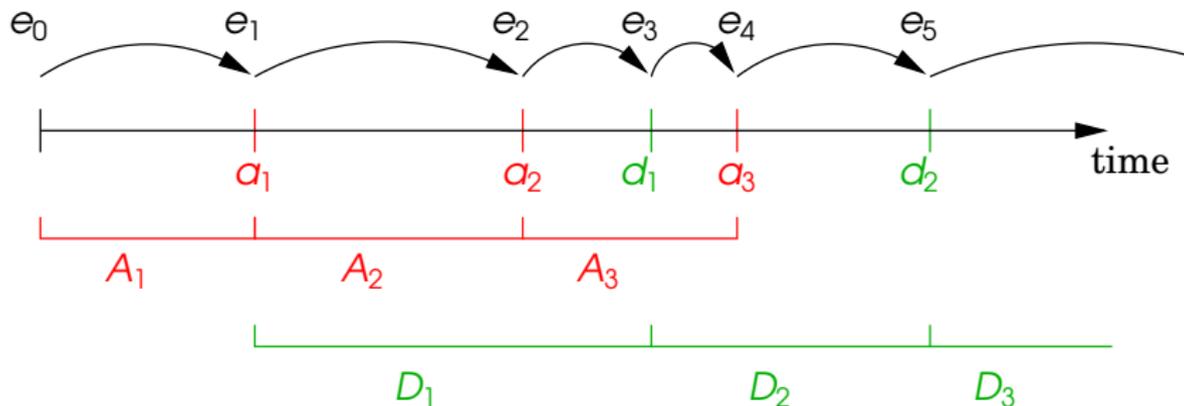
- Define fixed step size Δt .
- Check whether events happen in $[t, t + \Delta t]$.
- If so, execute events.
- **Advantage.**
 - Easy to implement.
- **Disadvantages.**
 - Events are assumed to have no order,
 - events are assumed to be independent.



EVENT-BASED SIMULATION

- Time steps have variable length.
- Occurrence of events controls length of time step.
- Exactly one event per time step.
- Actual event causes future events to occur.
 - Gathered in an **ordered event list**.
- Events have to be inserted in order.



EXAMPLE – $G|G|1$ SIMULATION

IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES

- Event oriented.
 - Procedure P_i for every event-type i .
 - P_i invoked if occurring event is of type i .
- Process oriented.
 - Associate **process** with each event-type.
 - Processes interchange information via communication.
 - Scheduling of events is done implicitly.



... AND PSEUDO RANDOM NUMBERS

- Generate random number from given probability distribution.
- Has to conform to the given distribution, otherwise
 - obtained simulation results are suspicious.
- **True** random numbers can not be generated with deterministic algorithms.
- **Pseudo-random numbers** are used.
 - Generate pseudo-random series on finite subset of \mathbb{N} .
 - Compute pseudo-uniformly distributed numbers on $[0, 1]$.
 - Verify if generated numbers can be regarded as true random numbers.
 - Compute non-uniform distributed pseudo-random numbers.



SET-UP

- n single runs or **samples** of the system have been performed.
- n is called the **sample size**.
- Measures of interest are recorded for each sample, e. g.,
 - (expected) waiting time in a queue,
 - (expected) number of jobs in a queue.
 - Remark: for both examples one has to simulate more than one customer!
- Statistics is used to **estimate** measure of interest for the complete system, i. e., for all possible system runs.



OBTAINING A CONCRETE VALUE

- E. g., estimation of mean value.
- Assert that mean value lies in a particular interval with given certainty.
- Interval is called **confidence interval**.
- Certainty is called **confidence level**.



ESTIMATING THE MEAN

- Estimate unknown mean value μ of random variable X .
- X is supposed to have unknown variance σ^2 .
- Our simulation generate n samples $x_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
- Each x_i is a realisation of random variable X_i .
- $X_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are **independent and identically distributed** with
 - $E[X_i] = \mu,$
 - $\sigma_{X_i}^2 = \sigma^2.$



ESTIMATOR

- Estimator $\bar{X}(n)$ should be
 - unbiased, i. e., $E[\bar{X}(n)] = \mu$.
 - Intuition.
 - 1 Perform **very large number** of experiments,
 - 2 each resulting in an estimator $\bar{X}_i(n)$,
 - 3 average of $\bar{X}_i(n)$ will be μ .
- Point estimator for the **sample mean** is $\bar{X}(n) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}$.
- Point estimator for the **sample variance** is
$$S^2(n) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n [X_i - \bar{X}(n)]^2}{n-1}$$



ESTIMATING THE MEAN

- Problem with $\bar{X}(n)$ is
 - how close is it to μ ?
 - On one experiment it may be close,
 - on another it may differ by a large amount.
- $\bar{X}(n)$ is a random variable with variance
 - $\text{Var}[\bar{X}(n)] = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$.
- An unbiased estimator of the variance is
 - $\widehat{\text{Var}}[\bar{X}(n)] = \frac{s^2(n)}{n}$.



CONFIDENCE INTERVAL - 1

- Construct the random variable $Z_n = \frac{\bar{X}(n) - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}}$.
- Define $F_n(z) = \Pr(Z_n \leq z)$, i. e., $F_n(z)$ is the probability distribution function of Z_n .

THEOREM (CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM)

$F_n(z) \rightarrow \Phi(z)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, with

$$\Phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^z e^{-y^2/2} dy$$

- $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$,
 - density function of normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 .



CONFIDENCE INTERVAL - 2

- Intuition behind Central Limit Theorem.
 - Random variable $Z_n(z)$ is for large n distributed as a standard normal random variable
 - independent of the distribution of the X_j .
- Thus, $\bar{X}(n)$ is distributed as a normal random variable with mean μ and variance $\frac{\sigma^2}{n}$.
- Generally, σ^2 is unknown.
- Replace σ^2 by $S^2(n)$ for sufficiently large n .
- $t_n = \frac{\bar{X}(n) - \mu}{\sqrt{S^2(n)/n}}$ is approximately distributed as a standard normal random variable.



CONFIDENCE INTERVAL - 3

- For large n it follows

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr \left(-z_{1-\alpha/2} \leq \frac{\bar{X}(n) - \mu}{\sqrt{S^2(n)/n}} \leq z_{1-\alpha/2} \right) \\ &= \Pr \left(\bar{X}(n) - z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{S^2(n)}{n}} \leq \mu \leq \bar{X}(n) + z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{S^2(n)}{n}} \right) \\ &\approx 1 - \alpha \end{aligned}$$

- Where $z_{1-\alpha/2}$ denotes the $1 - \alpha/2$ **single sided critical value** of the standard normal distribution.



CONFIDENCE INTERVAL - 4

- For sufficiently large n a confidence interval with confidence level $1 - \alpha$ is given by

$$\bar{X}(n) \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{S^2(n)}{n}}$$

- Intuition.
 - 1 Let $\beta = 1 - \alpha$ be the desired confidence level,
 - 2 construct a large number of independent confidence intervals with confidence level β ,
 - each based on n observations, with sufficiently large n ,
 - 3 the proportion of intervals containing μ is β .



CONFIDENCE INTERVAL - 5

- What does it mean?

... n sufficiently large...

- Too small n will cause a confidence level less than $1 - \alpha$.
- t_n is called a **Student's t** distribution with **degree of freedom** $n - 1$.
 - For $n \rightarrow \infty$, t_n approaches the normal distribution.
- For a Student's distribution with $n - 1$ degrees of freedom $t_{n-1, 1-\alpha/2}$ is the $1 - \alpha/2$ one sided critical value.



EXAMPLE

- $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_5) = (0.108, 0.112, 0.111, 0.115, 0.098)$.
- Sample mean $\bar{X}(5) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i}{5} = 0.1088$.
- Sample variance $S^2(5) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^5 (x_i - \bar{X}(5))^2}{5-1} = 0.0000427$.
- Confidence level is supposed to be $1 - \alpha = 0.9$.
- Suppose 5 is sufficiently large.
 - Look up $z_{0.95} = 1.645$ for one-sided critical value.
 - $\Pr(0.1040 \leq \mu \leq 0.1136) = 0.9$.
 - **But you know, 5 will not be sufficiently large.**
- Take Student's distribution.
 - Look up $t_{4,0.95} = 2.132$.
 - $\Pr(0.1026 \leq \mu \leq 0.1150) = 0.9$.



ANSWERING A YES/NO QUESTION

- No concrete estimation of a value possible.
- Reject or accept educated guess, but
 - there is no estimation of the real value.
- The question is different from value estimation.
- We want to know if we can accept/reject a particular assertion, usually called **null-hypothesis**.



HYPOTHESIS TESTING

- Formulate two mutually exclusive and exhaustive hypotheses,
 - null-hypothesis H_0 , here $f_0(x)$,
 - alternative hypothesis H_1 , here $f_1(x)$.
- Run a simulation and depending on the results
 - accept H_0 ,
 - accept H_1 .
- Since we are only taking samples, errors are involved
 - type I-error, significance, α error,
 - type II-error, β .
- α is called the **wrong negative**,
 - the probability to reject H_0 although it is true.
- β is called the **wrong positive**,
 - the probability to accept H_0 although H_1 is true.



SEQUENTIAL SAMPLING

- Instead of having a fixed sample size
 - evaluate probabilities after each sample.
- During simulation it could be that
 - there is enough evidence to
 - accept H_0 ,
 - reject H_0 ,
 - there is no evidence to accept/reject H_0 .
- A fixed sample size ignores this.
- With **sequential sampling**: decide after each sample if it is either
 - true, or
 - false, or
 - another sample is required.



DEVELOPING A TEST

- Sample space M_m , $m = 1, 2, \dots, \infty$,
 - M support of probability distribution,
 - $a \in M_m$ is called sample point of size m .
- Divide M_m in
 - R_m^0 ,
 - R_m^1 ,
 - R_m .
- Termination: sample point of size n falls in
 - R_n^0 , accept H_0 ,
 - R_n^1 , accept H_1 .



COMPUTING PROBABILITIES

- k samples have been taken.
- $g_{i,k}$: probability that H_i is true after k observations.
- $p_{i,k}$: probability density in k -dimensional sample space, assuming H_i is valid.
- $g_{i,k} := \frac{p_{i,k}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)}{\sum_i p_{i,k}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)}$.
- Accept either of the hypothesis if $g_{i,k}$ is above d_i .
- If
 - $\frac{p_{1,k}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)}{p_{0,k}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)} \geq A$, accept H_1 ,
 - $\frac{p_{1,k}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)}{p_{0,k}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)} \leq B$, accept H_0 .
- It can be shown
 - $A \approx \frac{1-\beta}{\alpha}$,
 - $B \approx \frac{\beta}{1-\alpha}$.



PRECISELY

- $A := \frac{1-\beta}{\alpha}$.
- $B := \frac{\beta}{1-\alpha}$.
- $\lambda_n := \frac{\rho_{1,k}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)}{\rho_{0,k}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)}$.
- Continue sampling when
 - $B < \lambda_n < A$.
- Accept H_0 when
 - $\lambda_n \leq B$.
- Reject H_0 when
 - $\lambda_n \geq A$.



AIRBAG DEPLOYMENT EXAMPLE - 1

- FoVW car company's airbag deployment rate.
- Required rate 98%.
- Recent customer reports indicate rate 80%.
- Define H_0 .

- $f_0(x) = \begin{cases} 0.80 & , x = 1, \\ 0.20 & , x = 0. \end{cases}$

- Define H_1 .

- $f_1(x) = \begin{cases} 0.98 & , x = 1, \\ 0.02 & , x = 0. \end{cases}$

- Choosing the errors.
 - $\alpha = 0.01$ (false negative),
 - $\beta = 0.05$ (false positive).



AIRBAG DEPLOYMENT EXAMPLE - 2

$$\bullet A := \frac{1-\beta}{\alpha} = 95.$$

Boundaries

$$\bullet B := \frac{\beta}{1-\alpha} = 0.051.$$

Taking samples

① Airbag deploys.

$$\bullet 0.051 < \lambda_1 = \frac{f_1(1)}{f_0(1)} = \frac{0.98}{0.80} = 1.225 < 95.$$

② Airbag deploys not.

$$\bullet 0.051 < \lambda_2 = \frac{f_1(1,0)}{f_0(1,0)} = \frac{0.98 \cdot 0.02}{0.80 \cdot 0.20} = 0.1225 < 95.$$

③ Airbag deploys not.

$$\bullet \lambda_3 = \frac{f_1(1,0,0)}{f_0(1,0,0)} = \frac{0.98 \cdot 0.02^2}{0.80 \cdot 0.20^2} = 0.01225 < 0.051.$$

④ Conclusion: accept H_0 .



USING DES FOR CSL MODEL-CHECKING

- Checking $\mathcal{P}_{\geq\theta}(\rho)$,
 - ρ is a CSL path formula.
- Simple case. No nesting of probabilistic statements.
 - ρ does not contain \mathcal{P} .
 - Truth value of ρ can be determined without error.
 - Sequential sampling can be applied directly,
 - choose boundaries carefully.
- Complicated case. Nesting of probabilistic statements.
 - ρ contains \mathcal{P} operator.
 - Truth value of ρ can be erroneous.
 - How to handle innermost formula?
 - Adjust error bounds α' and β' for inner most formula,
 - could lead to more samples!





Boudewijn R. Haverkort.

Performance of Computer Communication Systems: A Model-Based Approach.

John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1998.



A. M. Law and W. D. Kelton.

Simulation, Modelling and Analysis.

McGraw-Hill Education, third edition, 2000.

