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Kleijnen, J.P.C.

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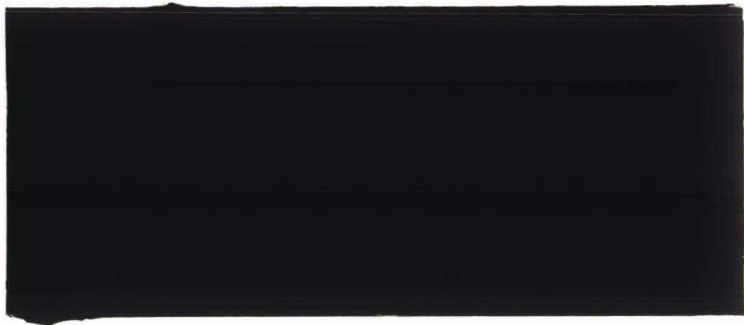
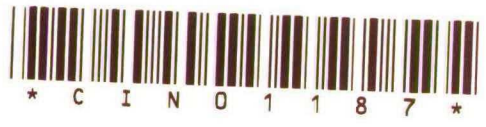
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BRABANT

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DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS
RESEARCH MEMORANDUM





**STATISTICS AND DETERMINISTIC
SIMULATION MODELS: WHY NOT?**

Jack P.C. Kleijnen

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STATISTICS AND DETERMINISTIC SIMULATION MODELS:

WHY NOT?

Jack P.C. Kleijnen
Katholieke Universiteit Brabant
(Tilburg University)
5000 LE Tilburg
(Bitnet: Kleijnen@KUB.NL)

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STATISTICS AND DETERMINISTIC SIMULATION MODELS: WHY NOT?

Jack P.C. Kleijnen
Katholieke Universiteit Brabant
(Tilburg University)
5000 LE Tilburg
The Netherlands
(Bitnet: Kleijnen@KUB.NL)

ABSTRACT

First deterministic simulation models are compared with random simulation models and real-life experiments. In deterministic simulation no mathematical statistics is needed in the experimental design and in the Least Squares curve fitting to the resulting data. Further analysis becomes possible if certain statistical models are specified for the fitting errors. Kleijnen (1987) proposed normally identically and independently distributed errors. Sacks et al. (1989 a, b) proposed dependent errors with a specific correlation structure. Needs for further research are indicated.

1. INTRODUCTION

The unique characteristic of a deterministic simulation model is that its responses y are fixed, given its set of input variables $\mathbf{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_k\}$. Hence we get:

$$\text{var}(y|\mathbf{X}) = 0. \tag{1}$$

This characteristic distinguishes these models from random simulation models and real-life experiments. *Random simulation models* use pseudorandom numbers; so different seeds produces different y values, in general. In the analyses of these models we treat the pseudorandom numbers as if

they were truly random numbers, which are distributed uniformly and independently. Hence we view the response y as a random variable with variance

$$\text{var}(y|X) = g(X). \tag{2}$$

Some authors assume that $\text{var}(y|X)$ is independent of X , so $\text{var}(y|X)$ reduces to a constant (say) σ^2 . We, however, prefer to assume that the variance depends on the combination of input values or $\mathbf{x}_i = \{x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ij}, \dots, x_{ik}\}$. So if we select an $n \times k$ experimental design matrix D , then each design "point" i has its own variance σ_i^2 . We can estimate this variance through replication (that is, we feed the simulation model with different random numbers). See Kleijnen (1987).

Risk Analysis is an interesting combination of deterministic simulation models and Monte Carlo sampling. Dynamic models may be deterministic. Examples are financial models (which have become popular since spreadsheet software has become widespread) and ecological models. These models, however, depend on a number of inputs which are unknown. Therefore the user specifies a (prior) distribution of possible values: that user may select a distribution type (normal, uniform, etc.). The computer samples values from that distribution, and generates output values, which are summarized in an output distribution. Also see Iman and Helton (1988).

In *real life experiments* repeated observations of the same system generate different responses y , because the system operates in a noisy environment; that is, the environment is not fully controlled and it perturbs the system.

We emphasize that a *random* simulation model is not completely different from a deterministic simulation model: every time we feed the random model with the same input combination \mathbf{x}_i and the same pseudorandom number seed, we get the same response. We "solved" this problem by assuming that the pseudorandom number generator produces truly random numbers, and that the seed selection does not affect the distribution of these numbers.

If we feed a given deterministic simulation model with the input combination x_i , it always generates the same response (say) y_i . So a deterministic simulation model provides a perfectly controlled world. Is mathematical statistics still relevant in such an "ideal" world? In section 2 we shall first show that basic ideas of the statistical theory of experimental design (originated by Fisher) still applies. The resulting simulation observations can be analyzed through Least Squares curve fitting and "eyeballing" of the results. Further analysis, however, requires statistical assumptions. In section 3 we shall present the statistical model proposed in Kleijnen (1987): the errors are normally, independently and identically distributed. Sacks, Schiller and Welch (1989) replaced the independence assumption by a stochastic process assumption; henceforth we shall refer to that article as Sacks et al. (1989a). In section 4 we shall sketch future research needs.

2. DESIGN AND ANALYSIS WITHOUT STATISTICS

In deterministic simulation models we should still apply the statistical theory of experimental design to select the input combinations. For example, it is obviously not smart to change two inputs (say) x_1 and x_2 simultaneously in the experiment. And changing one factor at a time does not allow the detection of any interactions among inputs. We also point out that many Response Surface designs have been derived under the assumption that noise can be neglected so that only bias is to be minimized; see Kleijnen (1987, p. 314) and Sacks, Welch, Mitchell and Wynn (1989, p. 420); the latter reference is abbreviated to Sacks et al. (1989b) further on.

In the *analysis*, however, we may use mathematical curve fitting and "eye balling" instead of statistical analysis (that analysis includes regression analysis and Analysis of Variance or ANOVA). So we may apply the mathematical criterion of Least Squares to fit a metamodel to the simulation data; those data consist of $\{x_i, y_i\}$ with $i=1, \dots, n$. To validate the resulting "calibrated" metamodel we can use mathematical criteria such as the multiple correlation coefficient R^2 . We can also predict the response for a new input combination x_{n+1} , and "eyeball" the relative

prediction error \hat{y}_{n+1}/y_{n+1} where \hat{y}_{n+1} is the value predicted by the meta-model and y_{n+1} is the response of the simulation model for the new input combination. A refinement is "cross validation": we delete combination i , fit the metamodel to the remaining simulation data $\{X_{-i}, y_{-i}\}$; predict the deleted response through \hat{y}_{-i} ; and "eyeball" the relative prediction error \hat{y}_{-i}/y_i ; this procedure we repeat for $i = 1, \dots, n$. An example is Kleijnen and Standridge (1988) who discuss a deterministic simulation of Flexible Manufacturing Systems (FMS).

Once we have validated the model as a whole, we can study the individual Least Squares coefficients $\hat{\beta}_j$ ($j=1, \dots, k$). In order to determine which factors are most important, we may sort the coefficients $\hat{\beta}_j$, provided we have standardized the factors; see Bettonvil and Kleijnen (1989). If, however, we wish to identify coefficients that are so small that they actually reflect "noise", then we need mathematical statistics; see the next section.

We can also use the regression model to *predict* the simulation responses at input values *not* contained in the simulation data $\{X, y\}$. (In the validation we predicted responses for the "old" input X .) Usually we interpolate, not extrapolate, because the simulation data are based on an experimental design that includes extremal values: the "experimental area" covers the "area of interest". The predictors are

$$\hat{y}_2 = X_2 \hat{\beta}, \quad (3)$$

where X_2 corresponds with the set of new input values (and $\hat{\beta}$ is still the Least Squares estimator). These predictors are computed faster than the simulation responses $y_2 = h(X_2)$, where $h(\cdot)$ denotes the simulation model. For example, in a study of the Rotterdam container harbor we answered *ad hoc* management questions through the metamodel; in the beginning we were not completely sure that this approach was adequate, so we checked the predictions by running the expensive (random) simulation model overnight; see Kleijnen, Van den Burg and Van der Ham (1978).

To quantify the *uncertainty* of these predictions we must specify a statistical model for the fitting errors \mathbf{e} : (3) yields

$$\text{var}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_2) = \mathbf{X}_2 \text{cov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \mathbf{X}_2' , \quad (4)$$

where

$$\text{cov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}' \text{cov}(\mathbf{e})\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} . \quad (5)$$

In the next section we shall discuss statistical models for \mathbf{e} , which also specify $\text{cov}(\mathbf{e})$ in (5).

Note that Sachs et al. (1989a) introduced a more complicated predictor that has the nice property that at the observed input combinations the predictor equals the observed response: $\hat{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{X})$. In random simulation we do not expect such an equality, since the observed responses have zero probability of being observed again (when new seeds are employed). In random simulation we test whether $E[\hat{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{X})] = E[\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{X})]$; see Kleijnen (1990).

3. STATISTICAL ERROR MODELS

Kleijnen (1987, pp. 163-164) discusses why a statistical error model may be appropriate in deterministic simulation: "Since infinitely many combinations of simulation parameters... are possible, there are infinitely many errors \mathbf{e} . The population of these errors has a specific variance, denoted by σ^2 Now we *sample* the simulation parameters.... We may perform this sampling randomly or more or less systematically.... In the metamodeling of deterministic simulation we may model the independent variables as random variables. Consequently, the regression parameter estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ being a function of \mathbf{x} ... becomes random, and so does $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$... so that $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is random too ..."

Note that "random design" were elaborately discussed in *Technometrics*, back in 1959. In these designs the input combinations are sampled by flipping a coin so $P(x_{ij}=1) = 0.5$ and $P(x_{ij}=-1) = 0.5$; see Kleijnen (1987, pp. 321-323).

Sacks et al. (1989a, pp. 41-47) model the fitting errors "as a realization of a stochastic process in which the covariance structure of [e] relates to the smoothness of the response". Sacks et al. (1989a, p. 42) further assume that e is Gaussian with zero expectation. They assume that if two design points are further apart along one of the k axes, then the covariance of the two fitting errors decreases exponentially. Their procedure is computationally complex; it uses a supercomputer.

So Kleijnen (1987) proposes the same *marginal* distribution as Sacks et al. (1989a) assume. Kleijnen implicitly assumes independent errors, whereas Sacks et al. postulate a stationary stochastic process with a particular covariance function. For simplicity's sake we may prefer to stick to the model with independent errors that underlies Ordinary Least Squares (OLS). Sacks et al.'s model seems more realistic, if the response surface is smooth. For, suppose the error is positive for some x_i in the k -dimensional space. Suppose further that we wish to interpolate for $x_i + \epsilon$, which is a point "close" to the point x_i . Then $\hat{y}(x_i + \epsilon)$, the response predicted by OLS, tends to underestimate the true response $y(x_i + \epsilon)$. Sacks et al., procedure does not have that unattractive characteristic; unfortunately they must assume a *specific* covariance function; moreover, their computations for that function are formidable.

A less fundamental discussion of statistical errors in deterministic simulation can be found in Olivi (1984) and Olivi and Pike (1981). They distinguish two groups of independent variables, namely controlled variables that are supposed to be of major importance, and uncontrolled variables of minor importance. They sample the minor variables, which results in experimental error. Similarly Owen, Koehler and Sharifzadeh (1989) consider "the response as a function of the most important inputs, possibly with some noise due to the other inputs".

4. FUTURE RESEARCH

In the tradition of Popper a scientific model should be refutable. Therefore we should develop tests that allows us to *reject* the hypothesis that the fitting errors have a specific distribution; in this case we

assume either independent normal errors or normal errors with a specific covariance structure. Also see Kleijnen (1987, pp. 178-179) and Sachs et al. (1989b, p. 417).

The stochastic process specification introduced by Sachs et al. (1989a) looks promising. *Practitioners* will probably apply this approach, once the conceptual and computational details have been worked out. The "classical" regression analysis and experimental design (based on independent errors) have already been applied to many simulation experiments, as is documented in Kleijnen (1987, p. 241).

In practice, simulation models often have *many inputs*. For example, Bettonvil (1990) investigates a deterministic ecological model with 281 inputs. He assumes "white" noise: normally identically and independently distributed errors. Sachs et al. (1989a,b) limited their approach to small problems with, for example, six inputs. The computational burden of problems with many inputs seems formidable.

We emphasize that metamodels have two goals: prediction and explanation. For *prediction* purposes the metamodel is a black box; the only question is: does the black box predict "well"? *Explanation* means that the user gets insight into the behavior of the underlying simulation model. For example, Kleijnen and Standridge (1988, p. 261) report that the final metamodel (after the original metamodel was rejected) explained the behavior of the underlying Flexible Manufacturing System: "Statistical techniques... reduce the drawbacks of an empirical technique like simulation, i.e.,... the regression metamodel... helped the authors to better understand how an FMS works!". Sachs et al. (1989a,b) concentrate on prediction.

In summary, the statistical analysis of deterministic simulation data is controversial. Sachs et al. (1989b, p.435) state: "In earlier drafts we did attempt to discuss these philosophical matters [Bayesian and frequentist views] more fully, but we gave up due to differences among the authors!" Note that we did not discuss the Bayesian viewpoint at all; Sachs et al. (1989b) do.

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