Build your own Monte Carlo spreadsheet

Derek S. Christie
Toi Ohomai Institute of Technology, NZ, thechristiesok@gmail.com

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Build your own Monte Carlo spreadsheet

Abstract
This article gives instructions for building a simple but general purpose spreadsheet for collating Monte Carlo (MC) outputs using a VBA macro. Two user defined functions for sampling with and without replacement give the spreadsheet the facility to do a variety of resampling and permutation tests, while a third user defined function generates random values from a triangular distribution to be used in risk analysis. The spreadsheet is suitable for classroom use, and a collection of ten simple but interesting examples gives students an introduction to MC simulation, MC integration, MC confidence intervals, randomization and permutation tests, and MC risk analysis. Supplementary material includes the full Monte Carlo spreadsheet, along with further examples in each topic and a file containing the data used.

Keywords
Monte Carlo, Excel, simulation, statistics

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Cover Page Footnote
Thanks to the very helpful comments from Hans Pottel of University of Leuven and three anonymous referees.

This regular article is available in Spreadsheets in Education (eJSiE): https://epublications.bond.edu.au/ejsie/vol11/iss1/1
1. Introduction

Monte Carlo or randomization techniques cover a wide variety of situations. They all work by generating a large number of possible scenarios and using this distribution to calculate the probability of a particular event or a statistic of interest. The power, relative simplicity, and versatility of Monte Carlo methods have boosted their popularity, but to a large extent their use has been limited by the need for specialist software or programming skills. This is particularly true in classrooms where Excel is the most widespread data processing program, and often the only one.

Many approaches have been made to facilitate the use of Excel as a Monte Carlo analyser. Commercial Excel add-ins like @Risk and Crystal Ball have been available since 1987 but they are beyond the budget of many classrooms. Albright et al (1999) [1] used the Excel data table function to evaluate management risk, and Christie (2004) [2] used the same idea to include statistical concepts like confidence intervals and p values. However, large data tables used for Monte Carlo analyses proved to be clumsy and hard to change. Other authors like Leong and Lee (2008) [3] set up a resampled test using normal Excel functions, copied the resampled test many, many times down the sheet, and collated the results. This can be very effective in simple cases, but lacks the versatility to cope with more complex cases without swamping the spreadsheet with formulas.

Another approach is to use the VBA (Visual Basic for Applications) programming language to write macros to help with automating the Excel sheets. Barr and Scott (2013) [4], for example, provide tailor-made VBA macros that simulate the game of roulette to teach statistical ideas. Excel also has a Data Analysis Toolpak which can resample a single instance of a data set. Rochowicz (2010) [5] explains how to use the Toolpak in this way and gives a VBA macro to repeat this process many times.

Macros can certainly transform Excel into a Monte Carlo processor. Unfortunately, one-off special purpose VBA macros are beyond the scope of most students, and perhaps many teachers. This article shows how to write a short Excel macro to collate the output from a Monte Carlo analysis, allowing simulations and Monte Carlo integration. Two user defined functions are given which can resample any given data range with or without replacement. This extends the use of the sheet to give standard errors, confidence intervals, and p values for inferential tests. A final user defined function for the triangular distribution gives the student a chance to experiment with Monte Carlo risk analysis.

Some questions have been raised as to the suitability of Excel as Monte Carlo generator. These issues have been addressed by Botchkarev (2015) [6] who generally approves, but advocates the use of an external random number generator. However, this spreadsheet is intended for classroom use with runs of only a few thousands, where possible slight deviations from randomness in the Excel functions cannot be detected. In any case, the fidelity of the Excel random generator is likely to be better than the fit between the mathematical model and the real world. This Monte Carlo sheet is not as fast as its commercial rivals, but the student can see it working which aids understanding, and its generality makes it quite capable of rather larger projects.
2. The Monte Carlo sheet

There are two parts to this Monte Carlo spreadsheet. Hidden behind the scenes is a macro - a small sub program that we will write - which will collate all the Monte Carlo values produced by our later calculations. The visible part will be a normal Excel sheet with standard formulas to find such items as standard errors, percentiles, and p values.

The following instructions are guide to constructing the Monte Carlo Master sheet. A completed copy of the sheet is also included in the supplementary files.

Open a new spreadsheet in Excel. You will need to have the Developer tab showing in the Excel Ribbon across the top.

- For Excel 2010 and later: click the File tab - Options - Customize Ribbon - Customize the Ribbon: Main Tabs - check the Developer box - OK.
- For Excel 2007: click on the Microsoft Office button - Options - Popular Options - Show Developer tab in the Ribbon - OK.
- Before Excel 2007: there is no Developer tab. Instead go through Tools and select what you need.

In Sheet 1, type the words from Figure 1 into A1, A2, A3, A4, and A7. In cell B2 you will enter how many iterations you want. Cell B3 will be linked to a cell in this or another open spreadsheet, and cell B4 will show you how far through the run you are. Column D will hold all the Monte Carlo values generated.

Cells A1 to B7 and column D have been colour coded to show the Monte Carlo area.

Now to write the macro named “MonteCarlo”. Click on the Developer tab and choose Macros.

Macro Name: MonteCarlo - Create. You will be taken to the Visual Basic Editor.

Type, or copy and paste these six lines between Sub MonteCarlo() and End Sub.

```vba
Range("D:D").ClearContents
n = Range("B2")
For q = 1 To n
    Range("D1") (q) = Range("B3")
    Range("B4") = q
Next
```

The macro clears column D at the start, reads how many Monte Carlo values you want from B2, and then proceeds to copy the current value of cell B3 to the bottom of column D the required number of times. After each transfer, it updates cell B4 with a progress report.
Find your way back to the spreadsheet itself either through View - Microsoft Excel, or by pressing Alt+F11 or by clicking on the Excel icon at the far left of the menu ribbon.

Add a Form Control button. This is not essential but it looks smart and makes life easier. Developer - Insert - Form Control - Button (top left) - outline where you want it to go with the mouse just below A3. Assign Macro: MonteCarlo - OK. Right click on the button and edit the text to “Go”. Later, when you click the button, the macro will run.

Type the words from Figure 2 into A9 to A19. Again, these have been colour coded to show the Analysis section.

![Figure 2: The remainder of the Monte Carlo sheet](image)

Copy the other formulas. Some of these cells will show errors at this stage.

In cell type
B10 =AVERAGE(D:D)
B11 =STDEV(D:D)
B13 =PERCENTILE(D:D,A13)
B14 =PERCENTILE(D:D,A14)
B16 0
B17 =COUNT(D:D,B16)+1-MAX(RANK(B16,(D:D,B16),0),RANK(B16,(D:D,B16),1))
B18 =B17/COUNT(D:D,B16)
B19 =MIN(1,2*B18)

The reasons for the formulas in B16:B19 will be explained as they are needed.

Save As: Monte Carlo Master - Save as type: Excel Macro-Enabled Workbook - Save.

Your Monte Carlo Master spreadsheet is now ready to run although we will add to it later as new functions become necessary. You can check it by typing 10 into cell B2 and =RAND() into cell B3. Click Go. 10 random numbers should appear in column D.

Next time you open this spreadsheet you will probably be asked for permission to run the macro. You can put the data you are working with either on the main Monte Carlo sheet we have just made (Sheet 1) or on another worksheet in the Monte Carlo workbook. You can also rename Sheet 1 as Monte Carlo by double clicking on the Sheet 1 tab at the bottom, and editing the name to Monte Carlo. Having the working on the Monte Carlo sheet makes things slightly
slower because of the time taken to continually update the screen, but it is interesting to see the spreadsheet at work and it gives some appreciation of what is going on.

We will look at three examples of probability simulations, two methods of Monte Carlo integration, four different randomization tests, and an example of Monte Carlo risk analysis. These examples have all been part of student activities. Each example is best saved in its own named workbook and closed before the next example is tried on the Monte Carlo Master sheet, because the extra files working in the background slow the current sheet down.

3. Simulations

Excel has a limited range of randomization functions.

=RANDBETWEEN(low,high) will produce random whole numbers, uniformly distributed between the given low and high numbers. This function is used in Examples 3.1 and 3.3

=RAND() will produce uniform random decimal numbers between 0 and 1. This can be extended to a uniform distribution between two limits =low+(high-low)*RAND(). See Examples 4.1 and 4.2.

RAND() can be used with the inverse normal function to generate random normal numbers with any desired mean and SD. Use =NORMINV(RAND(),mean,SD). This is used in Example 3.2.

3.1. Simulation. Human randomizers

Statistics and psychology teachers sometimes do a class experiment to demonstrate how poor a randomizer the human mind is. As homework, half the class is asked to toss a coin 200 times and record the results in a grid. The other half is asked to fill out the grid with what they imagine what 200 random coin tosses would look like. At the next class, the teacher can pick out, almost at a glance and with a high degree of probability, the sheets of the human randomizers. They are the ones which don’t have a run of six or more heads or tails. But just how likely is it to get a run of at least six heads or six tails in a run of 200 coin tosses? This is a very difficult problem to solve exactly. However, we can use the Monte Carlo sheet to make an estimate.

On the main sheet at F1 type =RANDBETWEEN(0,1) and fill down to F200. (The RANDBETWEEN(a,b) function selects a whole number from a to b so, for example, =RANDBETWEEN(1,6) will simulate the roll of a die.) The 200 numbers in column F represent 200 coins with 1 being head and 0 being tail. In G6 type =SUM(F1:F6) and fill down to G200. A 6 in column G means six heads in a row; a 0 means six tails in a row. In H6 type =IF(OR(G6=0,G6=6),1,0) and fill down. This will give a 1 whenever column G shows a run of six. In I6 type =IF(SUM(H:H)>0,1,0). This will be 1 whenever a run of at least six has occurred somewhere in the 200 tosses. Press the F9 key to see a new run of 200.

In Run Length (cell B2) type, say, 2500. In Link cell (cell B3) type = I6 Enter, and click Go. After 2500 trials Mean (cell B10) holds the proportion of runs that have a run of six or more heads or tails - a surprising approximately 97%. The rest of the numbers in the Analysis section are irrelevant at this stage. Note that cell A7 tells you how to stop if some overenthusiastic person puts in run length of 1000000.
Extension. Modify the sheet to estimate the probability of a run of 7 heads or tails (about 81%), or a run of three sixes in 200 dice throws. (About 40%. See 3 Sixes in Supplementary Data).

3.2. Simulation. Power and the paper helicopter

A favourite activity in some statistics classes is making paper helicopters. They provide a simple way to get data for a designed experiment. See, for example the description at http://www.paperhelicopterexperiment.com/. Each new class makes ten helicopters of both a normal and a streamlined design. These are dropped from 2 m and the flight times are recorded. The data is used as an introduction for the t test. Most years, the experiment results in a significant difference being found, but not always. The data from various classes over several years using the same design have averaged mean flight times of 1.55 s and 1.81 s for the normal and streamlined versions respectively, and an overall SD of 0.22 s.

Set up a new Monte Carlo spreadsheet with the words in F1, G1, H2, and H4 from Figure 3. Blue colour coding is used to show the Excel model of the problem.

In this activity we need to generate random normal numbers. The general expression =NORMINV(probability, mean, SD) returns the value which has the given proportion or probability to its left. By making the probability a random number from 0 to 1, we get random normal numbers with the desired mean and SD.

In cell F2 type =NORMINV(RAND(),1.55,0.22)
In cell G2 type =NORMINV(RAND(),1.81,0.22)

Copy these down to row 11 to simulate ten helicopters of each type.

In cell H3 type =TTEST(F2:F11,G2:G11,2,2). This gives the p value for the t test on those values. The 2, 2 in the formula means a 2 tailed test assuming equal variances. The p value is the probability that a difference at least as large as we observe could have happened by chance if, in fact, there is no real difference between the groups. A common convention is that if the p value is smaller than 0.05, then we are entitled to claim there is in fact a difference.

In cell H5 type =IF(H3<0.05,1,0). This will be 1 if p < 0.05, indicating a significant difference.

Fill in B2. Link B3 to H5 (type =H5 in cell B3). Click Go. B10 shows that the proportion of times we get a significant result is about 70%. This is known as the power of this particular test under these conditions.
Extension. How many helicopters should we make in the future if we want to be 80% sure of getting a significant result? The ranges in H3 will need to be expanded. (About 13 of each.) Would it make a difference if we used 15 normal and 5 streamlined helicopters instead of 10 of each? (About 59% power which shows the benefit of a balanced design.)

3.3. Simulation. The birthday paradox

In a class of 30 students, what is the probability that at least two of them share a birthday? This is an old problem made popular by Martin Gardner in his Scientific American column. The probability can be calculated directly, but a Monte Carlo estimate can be quickly made.

In F1 =RANDBETWEEN(1,365). This will give us a random day of the year. Fill down to F30 for 30 students. In G1 =COUNTIF(F:F,F1). This COUNTIF formula counts all the occurrences in column F which match F1. Fill down. Most of column G will be 1 but if there is a duplicate birthday, it will be 2 or more. In H1 =IF(MAX(G:G)>1,1,0). This will give 1 if there is a duplicate birthday, and 0 if there is not. Link this cell to B3 and Go. The Mean cell B10, holds the probability of a duplicate birthday from 30 people - about 70%. The other numbers in the analysis section can be ignored for this problem.

Extension. How many students for a 50% chance? (About 23.)

4. Monte Carlo integration

There are many situations where exact integration using calculus is very difficult, or even impossible, and a numerical method must be used. In simple cases there are numerical techniques like Simpson’s rule but as the number of variables increases, these methods become too time and labour intensive. Demonstrations of two simple Monte Carlo integration methods are illustrated in the next examples.

4.1. Monte Carlo hit or miss integration. Volume of a hypersphere

A common introduction to Monte Carlo integration is to find the area of a circle by scattering a 2x2 square with random points. The area of the unit circle is estimated by multiplying the area of the 2x2 square by the proportion of points lying within the circle. This process is commonly known as “hit or miss” Monte Carlo integration. Figure 4 illustrates the idea.

Figure 4: Estimating the area of a circle

More interesting than this somewhat mundane activity, is estimating the volume of a unit 4 dimensional hypersphere by extending the same idea. We scatter a large number of random
points inside a 2x2x2x2 hypercube, and find what proportion lie inside the hypercube. A point \((w, x, y, z)\) is inside the hypersphere if \(w^2 + x^2 + y^2 + z^2 < 1\). The volume of a 2x2x2x2 hypercube is 16, so our estimate of the volume of the hypersphere is the proportion of points inside the hypersphere multiplied by 16. Use the formulas in Figure 5 and link B3 to J4. B10 will hold the proportion of points inside the hypersphere.

Note that if you press Ctrl+~, Excel will show the formulas as in Figure 5. Ctrl+~ to return.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>J</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>y</td>
<td>z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>=2*RAND()-1</td>
<td>=2*RAND()-1</td>
<td>=2*RAND()-1</td>
<td>Distance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Inside?</td>
<td>=IF(J2&lt;1,1,0)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Volume</td>
<td>=16*B10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>=B11/SQRT(B4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>True volume</td>
<td>=PI()^2/2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5: The formulas for the Monte Carlo hit or miss integration

The true value of the volume of a 4D hypersphere is given by \(V = \pi^2/2\). The uncertainty in the estimate is given by the standard error \(= SD/\sqrt{n}\) where \(n\) is the run length, so you can get an idea of the accuracy of the estimate.

Extension. The sheet can be easily extended to yet higher dimensions. The unit circle, sphere and 4D hypersphere have “volumes” of 3.142, 4.188 and 4.934 respectively. Is it true that the volumes of hyperspheres will continue to increase as the dimension goes up? (Perhaps a little surprisingly, the answer is no. See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Volume_of_an_n-ball)

4.2. Sample mean Monte Carlo integration and the normal hump

Finding the volume under the surface \(z = e^{-(x^2+y^2)}\) shown in Figure 6 for \(x\) and \(y\) between -1 and 1 is not an easy task, and impossible in most college calculus classes.

A Monte Carlo approach to finding this volume is to find the average height of the hump and multiply by the base area; 2x2 = 4 in this case. Simply generate random \(x\) and \(y\) between -1 and 1 and collate the \(z\) values calculated. Average these \(z\) values and estimate the volume by multiplying by the base area of 4. The true value is 2.231 to 3 decimal places. The accuracy of the estimate is given by the standard error \(= SD/\sqrt{n}\).
Figure 7: The volume of a normal hump by sample mean Monte Carlo integration

This problem can also be solved by the hit or miss method. Generate random points \((x, y, z)\) in the box. Include an IF to find the proportion of points below the surface. Multiply by the volume of the box. How does the standard error of the hit or miss method compare with that of the sample mean method for the same length run? (The hit or miss method is less than half as accurate over the same run length in this case.)

5. Resampling, randomization and permutation tests

Much of classic statistics depends on the properties of the normal distribution. However, Monte Carlo methods can be used in a much more natural way to solve the same problems even if the data is not normal. Good (2005) [7] gives many examples that illustrate this aspect of Monte Carlo analysis. Resampling assumes that the sample data you have is a good representation of the population. It then effectively creates a virtual population using an unlimited number of the same sample mixed together. When you take a new sample from this virtual population, the same number can appear more than once. This is known as sampling with replacement. This virtual population has the same mean, SD, and shape as our representative sample. This can be accomplished with a new user defined function \(=\text{pick}(...)\). The user defined function \(=\text{perm}()\) shuffles the data rows without replacement.

Open the Monte Carlo Master sheet. It is easy to get lost among all the Visual Basic screens. An easy way to keep track is to go through the Developer - Macros - MonteCarlo - Edit and add new material below the Monte Carlo macro. Copy these two user defined functions.

Function pick(Start)
Application.Volatile
\(w = \text{Application.Caller.Columns.Count}\) 'width of array
\(d = \text{Application.Caller.Rows.Count}\) 'depth of array
\(a = \text{Start.Resize}(d, w)\) 'puts original into a
\(b = a\)
For \(dd = 1\) To \(d\)
\(r = \text{Int}(\text{Rnd} \* d) + 1\)
For \(ww = 1\) To \(w\)
\(b(dd, ww) = a(r, ww)\)
Next
Next
pick = b
End Function

Function perm(Start)
Application.Volatile
\(w = \text{Application.Caller.Columns.Count}\) 'width of array
\(d = \text{Application.Caller.Rows.Count}\) 'depth of array
\(a = \text{Start.Resize}(d, w)\) 'puts original into a
\(b = a\)
For dd = 1 To d
    r = Int(Rnd * dd) + 1
    For ww = 1 To w
        b(dd, ww) = b(r, ww)
        b(r, ww) = a(dd, ww)
    Next
Next
perm = b
End Function

Return to the main Monte Carlo sheet (Alt+F11 or click the Excel icon) and save the Monte Carlo Master workbook.

These two new functions are “array” functions. You highlight where you want the formula to be, type the formula once and it is entered into the whole array of cells. Most importantly, array functions are entered using $Shift+Ctrl+Enter$ rather than the normal Enter.


![Figure 8: The difference between =pick() and =perm()](image)

5.1. Resampled confidence interval. Underwater video snapper survey

With normal data, there is an established method of finding a confidence interval for the population mean from a sample using the standard error and the t distribution. When data is not normal, the usual method will not work. Table 1 is the number of snapper seen in 22 baited underwater video sites in a New Zealand marine reserve over one hour. A quick scan of the data shows that the data is by no means normal. We want to find a 95% confidence interval for the mean number of snapper per site.

Table 1: Number of snapper seen at 22 baited underwater video sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>H</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Open a new Monte Carlo Master sheet. In column F put the 22 snapper numbers. This data is also in the file Supplementary Data. In G3 type =AVERAGE(F2:F22). See Figure 9.
Now make a second version of columns F and G in columns I and J. To do this, highlight columns G and H by dragging over the column headings, hold down the Ctrl key, and drag columns G and H across to I and J. At this stage the numbers in columns F and I will be identical. We want to make a resampled version of F2:F22 in column I. This is where we can use one of our new array functions where one formula fills up an entire array. Note that array functions must be entered using the Ctrl, Shift, and Enter keys simultaneously. Highlight the snapper numbers in I2:I22. Type =pick(F2) and press Ctrl-Shift-Enter.

Press the F9 key a few times to see what is happening. Note that the same snapper number can occur more than once. Not every number must appear but every number has an equal chance of occurring. This stage is now complete. The Monte Carlo average in J3 changes with each new set of numbers.

Now for the Monte Carlo part. Put in the run length, say 2500. In the link cell B3 type =J3 Enter. Now click Go. The 95% confidence interval for the population mean (B13:B14) is between about 2.9 and 8.1 snapper per site. As a small teaching bonus, note that B11, the standard error, has been calculated directly as being the standard deviation of all possible sample means, and is effectively the same as the value given by using the usual formula \( SE = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{n}} \) using the original snapper data. The 95% confidence interval is not symmetric however, and so you cannot calculate it from the SE alone, as you could with normal data.

5.2. A two sample resampling test. Bat calls

Project Echo was a bat monitoring program in Hamilton, NZ. Twenty seven bat detectors were set up in various city locations - 11 in overgrown gullies and 16 in riverside walks. The number of calls per detector over a single night is given in Table 2.

Is there evidence here that one environment has more calls than the other on average?

Table 2: Bat calls per night. Data also in Supplementary Data file.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gully</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>50</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>River</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A resampling test can be used when the data are not appropriate for a t test. Follow the general idea of example 5.1. Put the two samples in columns F and G. In column H put suitable formulas in H3, H5 and H7 for finding the difference in the means of the two samples. Copy these three columns to the right and set up the sampling with replacement for each sample separately using the =pick() array function as in example 5.1. Link B3 to the resampled difference in L7, and put 0 in Test value in cell B16.
Cell B17, “Tail count” counts how many numbers in column D are as extreme as the “Test value” in B16. After a suitable run, the significance or otherwise of the difference can be established, either from the two sided p value or by inspecting the confidence interval for the difference. Is the p value less than 0.05? No. It is about 0.3. Does the 95% confidence interval include the value 0? Yes. 0 is inside the range -7 and 25 or thereabouts. No significant difference has been shown between the habitats. It is worth noting that the 95% confidence interval depends on the direction you define the difference. You may get -25 to 7, but the conclusion is the same.

5.3. Permutation tests. Bat calls revisited

The permutation test is a different way of looking at the bat data. In example 5.2 using the data in Table 2, we assumed that there could be a difference in the two areas and found a confidence interval for that difference using resampling. A permutation test takes the more sceptical position that there is no actual difference between the groups, and that any of the values could have appeared in either of the groups. (In technical terms this is the “null hypothesis”.) The test makes a list of all the differences that could potentially occur if that were true by shuffling the data with no replacement at random through the groups. It then compares the difference actually observed against the list of possible differences and finds how likely it is to have happened by chance and calculates a p value.

Figure 11 shows how the data are put into a single list down to G28. This data is also in the Supplementary Data file. In column H find the difference between the Means. Copy columns F:H across to J:L. Highlight K2:K28 and type =perm(G2) Ctrl+Shift+Enter. Make the Test value in B16 = H7. Link L7 to B3. Go.
Figure 1: The sheet set up for a permutation test of the bat data.

The Monte Carlo sheet now makes a long list of potential differences and sees where the observed difference of 8.08 fits in that list. The conclusion is the same as in Example 5.3. The observed difference is not exceptional in the list of all possible differences.

5.4. Resampling with paired data. The FOG index

Many situations at the classroom level use paired data, particularly paired sample tests (use =TTEST), correlation (use =CORREL), and regression (use =SLOPE).

As a more complex example using paired data we will find the confidence interval for the reading level of a piece of text using the FOG index. The FOG reading index calculates the appropriate reading level of a piece of text using the formula -

$$F = 0.4 \times (\text{average words per sentence} + \% \text{ long words})$$

The result is the number of years of schooling needed to understand the text. (See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gunning_fog_index or Gunning (1952) [8])

There is no formula for the standard error of the FOG index.

Table 3 gives the length of 13 sentences from a New Scientist article, along with the number of “long” words in the sentence (words with more than two syllables). The data is paired so we will need to keep that pairing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence No.</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Long Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Sentence length and the number of long words in the sentence

Columns F and G hold the paired data. This data is also in the Supplementary Data file. Put in the appropriate Excel formulas.

H3 =AVERAGE(F2:F14)
H5 =SUM(G2:G14)/SUM(F2:F14)*100
H7 =0.4*(H3+H5)

See Figure 12. Copy columns F:H across to J:L using Ctrl and drag. Highlight both columns J2 to K14. Then type the array formula = pick(F2) and Ctrl+Shift+Enter. In B3 type =L7. Go.
6. Monte Carlo risk analysis

Monte Carlo risk analysis is a method of determining the uncertainty in the answer of a calculation where the inputs to that calculation are themselves uncertain. For each input, the plausible distribution of values that could be taken by that input is determined either from known data, a theoretical distribution, or from expert opinion. The calculation is then done many times using a random selection of plausible inputs. The core ideas of Monte Carlo risk analysis are -

- Every iteration should be a scenario which could occur in real life
- Every scenario which could occur in real life has a chance of being modelled
- The likelihood of any particular scenario arising in the analysis reflects the probability of that scenario actually occurring in real life.

Every iteration of the calculation is a possible scenario which could be the true one. Later we can analyse the large array of outputs to estimate the risk of getting any particular range of values.

6.1. The Lucky Strike gold mine

You are the CEO of the Lucky Strike mine. If you know the number of tons of ore you can extract a year, the number of grams of gold that can be extracted from each ton of ore, and the price of gold, you can estimate the gross profit for the mine over the coming year. If at the same time you know your overhead costs and how much it takes to extract and process each ton of ore you can estimate the net annual profit for the mine.

Unfortunately, none of these numbers are known exactly for the coming year. Consequently, the final answer from our calculation is only approximate and the true value remains unknown. However, if we know or can estimate the range that the various numbers making up the calculation can take, we can also estimate the range of possible values that the calculated answer can have. A Monte Carlo risk analysis runs a large collection of potential scenarios where the inputs are chosen at random from distributions which reflect the likelihood of those inputs happening in real life.
You meet with your management team, and assess the possible range of each input. Expert opinion gives the values shown in Table 4. For example, your aim is to extract and process one million tons of ore. 1,000,000 T is the most likely value but you may go a little over to possibly 1,100,000 T. On the other hand unforeseen setbacks may mean that the mine may in fact extract as little as 700,000 T at the very worst. The estimated profit using the most likely value for each input is 19 million dollars, but what is the range of possible profits, and how likely are we to reach the 19 million dollar goal? This data is also in the Supplementary Data file.

Table 4: Input ranges for the Lucky Strike gold mine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Most likely</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overheads $/year</td>
<td>900,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>1,200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ore Extracted T/year</td>
<td>700,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>1,100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining Cost $/T ore</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processing Cost $/T ore</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ore Grade g/T gold</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gold price $/g gold</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Earlier examples in this article have shown how to get random samples from uniform distributions using the Excel functions =RAND() and =RANDBETWEEN(a,b), and from a normal distribution using =NORMINV(RAND(),mean,SD). None of these distributions model well the numbers in Table 4 which have a peak somewhere and fall off, some asymmetrically, on each side. In many real life situations there is only a limited scope for improvement but often a wide range of things that can go wrong. One simple and commonly used distribution to model this sort of input is the triangular distribution. Few inputs in real life are exactly triangular but we will use that distribution here as a convenient example. Unfortunately Excel does not have a triangular function so we will write our own and save it in our Monte Carlo spreadsheet for future use.

Developer - Macros - MonteCarlo - Edit and copy this code below the other functions.

```vba
Function tri(b, m, t)
    Application.Volatile
    If (t - b) * Rnd < m - b Then
        tri = b + (m - b) * Rnd ^ 0.5
    Else: tri = t - (t - m) * Rnd ^ 0.5
    End If
End Function
```

Return to the spreadsheet (Alt F11). To use the new function type =tri(bottom, mode, top). Figure 13 shows the result of 5000 numbers generated by =tri(10,20,40).

![Triangular Distribution](attachment:triangular.png)

Figure 13: 5000 numbers from =tri(10,20,40)
Back to Lucky Strike gold mine. On the Monte Carlo Master worksheet enter the data and formulas shown in Figure 14.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>J</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Input</td>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>Most likely</td>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Overheads $/year</td>
<td>=tri(H2,12,12)</td>
<td>900000</td>
<td>1000000</td>
<td>1200000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ore Extracted T/year</td>
<td>=tri(H3,13,13)</td>
<td>700000</td>
<td>1000000</td>
<td>1100000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Mining Cost $/T ore</td>
<td>=tri(H4,14,14)</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Processing Cost $/T ore</td>
<td>=tri(H5,15,15)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ore Grade g/T gold</td>
<td>=tri(H6,16,16)</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Gold price $/g gold</td>
<td>=tri(H7,17,17)</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Total Cost $</td>
<td>=G2+G3*(G4+G5)</td>
<td>=I2+I3*(I4+I5)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Revenue $</td>
<td>=G3<em>G5</em>G7</td>
<td>=I3<em>I6</em>I7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Profit $</td>
<td>=G9-G8</td>
<td>=I9-I8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 14: Monte Carlo risk analysis for the Lucky Strike mine

Link the Profit to B3 as usual. When this is run a large number of feasible scenarios are evaluated, and the output gives you the expected value and a 95% range of possible profits. The expected profit is much less than the $19 million using just the most likely values.

Extensions. You can use the =PERCENTRANK(D:D,value) to find the likelihood of making a profit less than the nominated value. The likelihood of making a loss is about 4% while the likelihood of making more than $19 million is about 23%.

This scenario is loosely based on an idea from Chandoo.org.

7. Concluding remarks

Excel can generate random numbers from more distributions than those we have used so far. The Bernoulli distribution. For example =IF(RAND()<0.7,1,0) will produce a sequence of 0s and 1s, each of which has a 0.7 chance of being a 1 rather than a 0.

The Binomial distribution. For example =CRITBINOM(25,0.7,RAND()) will give a sequence of numbers which could have been the number of successes from 25 trials if each trial has a 0.7 chance of success.

The Poisson distribution models the number of times a random event will occur if you know how many you would have expected on average. Unfortunately there is no Excel function which gives random Poisson variables directly. For small numbers up to about 40 you can use the Binomial approximation to the Poisson. =CRITBINOM(100000,4.5/100000,RAND()) will give a good approximation to a random Poisson variable of rate 4.5. The 100000 is the same in every case. For rates above 40 the Normal approximation to the Poisson gives a reasonable approximation. =INT(NORMINV(RAND(), 75,SQRT(75))) gives random Poisson variables with average rate 75. The Monte Carlo Master given as supplementary material has a random Poisson function already written. =Nrand(30) will produce random Poisson variables with average rate 30. See also the Supplementary Materials for the appropriate code, and examples of the function’s use.
Once the basic ideas behind the spreadsheet have been understood, new applications can be found in many different areas. See the Supplementary Material file for further ideas in each of our four Monte Carlo topics.

8. References


