COMPARING TWO SYSTEMS: BEYOND COMMON RANDOM NUMBERS

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ABSTRACT
Suppose one wishes to compare two closely related systems via stochastic simulation. Common random numbers (CRN) involves using the same streams of uniform random variates as inputs for both systems to sharpen the comparison. One can view CRN as a particular choice of copula that gives the joint distribution of the inputs of both systems. We discuss the possibility of using more general copulae, including simple examples that show how this can outperform CRN.

1 INTRODUCTION
Let \( X \) and \( Y \) be random variables quantifying the performance of two systems. Consider the problem of determining which of these systems has greater mean performance. A typical stochastic simulation approach to this problem is to generate an IID sequence \((X_j, Y_j : j = 1, \ldots, n)\) of pairs of random variables where \( X_j \overset{d}{=} X \) and \( Y_j \overset{d}{=} Y \), \( j = 1, \ldots, n \), and estimate

\[
E(X - Y) \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (X_j - Y_j).
\]

The sign of the resulting estimator indicates which of the two systems is preferable.

It is crucial that the random vectors \((X_j, Y_j)\) be IID in order for the usual limit theorems to hold. However, there is no reason that \( X_j \) and \( Y_j \) must be independent for fixed \( j \). Indeed, it may be helpful to induce such dependence; if \( \text{cov} \left( X_j, Y_j \right) > 0 \), then

\[
\text{var} \left( X_j - Y_j \right) < \text{var} X + \text{var} Y.
\]

The right-hand side, above, is the variance that would be achieved if \( X_j \) and \( Y_j \) were sampled independently.

A particularly simple method for inducing positive dependence between \( X \) and \( Y \) is common random number (CRN) sampling (e.g., Kelton 2006), discussed in §2. Our purpose in this paper is to propose a more general technique for introducing such dependence; the technique has a quite similar flavor to CRN sampling, and indeed has CRN sampling as a special case.

The outline of the paper is as follows. Section 2 establishes notation, defines CRN sampling, and introduces our new method. Section 3 discusses earlier work on the subject, especially on known conditions under which CRN is optimal (in a sense to be defined). Section 4 proposes using a particular class of copula, the Gaussian copula, and shows its effectiveness in several toy examples. Section 5 discusses two algorithms for computing an optimal Gaussian copula. In §6 we prove a key property of the set of optimal Gaussian copulae in a particularly simple case. Section 7 offers concluding remarks and directions for further research.

In the sequel, we drop the subscript \( j \) and make reference to the joint distribution of the random vector \((X, Y)\).

2 COMMON RANDOM NUMBERS

Common random number sampling entails using identical sequences \( U_X = U_Y = U = (U_1, U_2, \ldots) \) of pseudorandom variates to compute both \( X \) and \( Y \). This can often be accomplished by resetting a seed for a pseudorandom number generator to a common value \( s \) for simulating both \( X \) and \( Y \). If the ways in which \( X \) and \( Y \) are computed in terms of \( U \) are fairly similar, we may hope that this technique induces the positive dependence, and hence variance reduction, discussed in the previous section.

We shall ignore the fact that \( U \) is actually deterministic and treat it as random for the remainder of this paper. Under this convention, \( U \) is treated as a sequence of IID uniform \([0,1]\) random numbers. In fact, we will assume further that \( U \) has finite dimension \( d \), i.e., \( U = (U_1, \ldots, U_d) \). Technically this is without loss of generality; in fact, we could even assume \( d = 1 \) since there exists a bijection between \([0,1]\) and \([0,1]^\infty\). But practically speaking, such a bijection is not particularly useful. Hence, the assumption
of finite dimensionality may limit the situations in which the approach we discuss below is applicable.

Let us make the dependence of $X$ and $Y$ on $U$ explicit by defining functions $f_U, g_U : [0, 1]^d \to \mathbb{R}$ so that $X = f_U(U_X)$ and $Y = g_U(U_Y)$, for $U_X, U_Y \sim U([0, 1]^d)$. Notice that if $X$ or $Y$ depends on $j < d$ uniform random variables, then the function $f_U$ or $g_U$ will simply depend on the first $j$ components of $U_X$ or $U_Y$.

Standard, or IID, sampling consists of sampling the random vector $(U_X, U_Y)$ according to the uniform probability measure on $[0, 1]^2d$. We denote this measure by $P_{\text{IID}}$.

In contrast, CRN sampling consists of sampling under the approach we discuss below is applicable.

4 GAUSSIAN COPULAE

We now restrict our attention to a smaller class of copulae than $\mathcal{C}$, the class $\mathcal{G}$ of Gaussian copulae that are admissible. In our setting, a Gaussian copula on $[0, 1]^2d$ is a probability measure $P$ such that the random vector $(Z_X, Z_Y)$, defined componentwise by

$$Z_X[i] = \Phi^{-1}(U_X[i]),$$

$$Z_Y[i] = \Phi^{-1}(U_Y[i]),$$

for $i = 1, \ldots, d$, has a multivariate normal distribution with standard marginals under $P$. Here, $\Phi$ denotes the standard normal cdf.

Let

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{XX} & \Sigma_{XY} \\ \Sigma_{YX} & \Sigma_{YY} \end{bmatrix}$$

be the covariance matrix of $(Z_X, Z_Y)$, where the blocks are $d \times d$ matrices. In order for $U_X$ and $U_Y$ to be uniform on $[0, 1]^d$ (Condition 1 of §2) we must have $\Sigma_{XX} = \Sigma_{YY} = I_d$, the $d \times d$ identity matrix. Therefore we consider only covariance matrices of the form

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} I_d & \Sigma_{XY} \\ \Sigma_{YX} & I_d \end{bmatrix}.$$  \hfill (1)

A positive semidefinite matrix of the form (1) will be called admissible, and we denote by $\mathcal{G}_d$ the set of all such matrices. We denote by $P_{\Sigma}$ the copula on $[0, 1]^{2d}$ associated with the covariance matrix $\Sigma$.

It is immediate that both $P_{\text{IID}}$ and $P_{\text{CRN}}$ are elements of $\mathcal{G}$. IID sampling corresponds to $\Sigma = I_{2d}$, or in other words $\Sigma_{XY} = 0_d$, the $d \times d$ zero matrix. On the other hand, Condition 2 of §2 describing CRN sampling corresponds to $\Sigma_{XX} = \Sigma_{YY} = I_d$.

We can consider $X$ and $Y$ to depend on the Gaussian random vector $(Z_X, Z_Y)$ directly. Thus, in order to simplify notation, we introduce functions $f, g : \mathbb{R}^{2d} \to \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$f(z) = f_U(\Phi^{-1}(z[1]), \ldots, \Phi^{-1}(z[d])),$$

$$g(z) = g_U(\Phi^{-1}(z[1]), \ldots, \Phi^{-1}(z[d])).$$

Examples 1 and 2, below, are simple cases where a Gaussian copula outperforms both CRN and independent sampling.

Example 1. Take $d = 2$. $f(Z_X) = (Z_X[1] + Z_X[2]) / \sqrt{2}$, and $g(Z_Y) = Z_Y[1]$. Here $X$ and $Y$ have linear relationships to $Z_X$ and $Z_Y$, respectively. The random variable $X$ depends on $Z_X$ through both its components equally, whereas $Y$ depends only upon the first component of $Z_Y$. The admissible covariance matrix with
\( \Sigma_{XY} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \) defines an optimal, and in fact a perfect, Gaussian copula for this problem; this covariance matrix corresponds to setting \( Z_Y [1] = (Z_X [1] + Z_X [2]) / \sqrt{2} \) and \( Z_Y [2] = (Z_X [1] - Z_X [2]) / \sqrt{2} \), so that \( X = Y \).

Observe that the columns of \( \Sigma_{XY} \) have \( L_2 \) norm 1. We may interpret this fact to mean that the optimal copula results in perfect correlation between the appropriate linear functions of \( Z_X \) and \( Z_Y \). This copula is strongly related to CRN sampling in that \( U_Y \) is a deterministic transformation of \( U_X \). We prove that this happens whenever \( f \) and \( g \) are linear in §6.

**Example 2.** Take \( d = 1 \), \( f_U (U_X) = \chi_{[5,6]} (U_X) \), and \( g_U (U_Y) = \chi_{[7,8]} (U_Y) \). Here, \( \chi_A \) denotes the indicator function (characteristic function) of the set \( A \). In order to maximize the covariance of these indicator random variables, we would like to have the events \( U_X \in [5,6] \) and \( U_Y \in [7,8] \) tend to occur at the same time. In fact, a copula satisfying \( U_X \in [5,6] \iff U_Y \in [7,8] \) would be perfect.

Unfortunately, there is no Gaussian copula satisfying this condition. The optimal Gaussian copula, in contrast, is given by the covariance matrix \( \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \rho \\ \rho & 1 \end{bmatrix} \), where \( \rho \) is chosen to maximize the probability of \( (Z_X, Z_Y) \in [\Phi^{-1}(5), \Phi^{-1}(6)] \times [\Phi^{-1}(7), \Phi^{-1}(8)] \). It is easy to see that \( \rho = 1 \) sets this probability to zero, so clearly \( \rho = 1 \) is optimal. On the other hand, it is intuitive that \( \rho > 0 \) is desirable since we want \( Z_X \) and \( Z_Y \) to tend to have the same sign. Figure 1 shows that the optimal value of \( \rho \) is about .97. This value yields \( \text{var} (X - Y) \approx .15 \). Contrast this result with Example 1, where the optimal Gaussian copula had every column of \( \Sigma_{XY} \) having norm 1.

![Figure 1: \( P[X = Y] \) as a function of \( \rho \).](image)

### 5 FINDING AN OPTIMAL GAUSSIAN COPULA

The primary reason we have restricted attention to Gaussian copulae is that they are easily parameterized by a covariance matrix. This allows us to perform a numerical search for a locally optimal copula. We formulate the optimization problem in two distinct ways. Both involve maximizing the covariance between \( X \) and \( Y \), but the underlying space over which the optimization is performed differs.

The first formulation is a nonlinear semidefinite program (NLP-SDP) (e.g., Kočvara and Stingl 2003). The decision variable in the optimization problem is the covariance matrix \( \Sigma \) of the Gaussian copula, which varies over the feasible region of admissible covariance matrices \( \mathcal{F}_d \) as defined in (1). Let \( Z \) be a \( 2d \)-dimensional standard multivariate normal random vector. We then wish to maximize \( Eh(\Sigma, Z) \), where

\[
\begin{align*}
h(\Sigma, Z) &= f \left( \left( \Sigma^{1/2} \right) [1, \ldots, d] \right) g \left( \left( \Sigma^{1/2} \right) [d + 1, \ldots, 2d] \right).
\end{align*}
\]

Here, \( \Sigma^{1/2} \) denotes the Cholesky factor of \( \Sigma \).

One can view \( \Sigma^{1/2} \) as a differentiable function (admittedly complicated) of \( \Sigma \), so that (2) is differentiable in \( \Sigma \) for each fixed \( Z \). One might then apply gradient-based methods for performing the optimization. Unfortunately, actually computing the gradient is difficult. One might resort to some rather complicated approach based on infinitesimal perturbation, or a more straightforward approach based on finite differences. In either case there are computational disadvantages, so we turn to a different formulation that seems more readily adapted to computation.

In our second formulation, rather than treating the covariance matrix \( \Sigma \) as the decision variable, we optimize over the space of all appropriate linear transformations of \( Z \sim \mathcal{N} (0, I_{2d}) \). The key to this formulation is the following proposition. A matrix \( M \) with at least as many rows as columns is called orthogonal if \( M^T M \) gives the identity matrix.

**Proposition 1.** Let \( \Sigma_{XY} \) and \( M_2 \) be \( d \times d \) matrices such that

\[
M := \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{XY} \\ M_2 \end{bmatrix}
\]

is orthogonal. Then the covariance matrix of

\[
\begin{bmatrix} Z_X \\ Z_Y \end{bmatrix} := \begin{bmatrix} Z [1, \ldots, d] \\ M^T Z \end{bmatrix}
\]

is optimal.
is given by
\[
\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix}
I_d & \Sigma_{XY} \\
\Sigma_{XY}^T & I_d
\end{bmatrix}.
\]
Conversely, if \( \Sigma \) is admissible then there exists \( M_2 \) such that
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\Sigma_{XY} \\
M_2
\end{bmatrix}
\]
is orthogonal.

Proof. For the first statement, we have
\[
\text{cov}\left[ Z_X \quad Z_Y \right] = E\left[ Z_X Z_X^T \quad Z_X Z_Y^T M \right] = \begin{bmatrix}
I_d & I_d \\
M^T & M^T M
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
I_d & 0_d \\
0_d & M^T M
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
I_d & I_d \\
M^T & M^T M
\end{bmatrix} = \Sigma.
\]
Conversely, suppose \( [Z_X \quad Z_Y] \) has admissible covariance matrix \( \Sigma \). Then
\[
\text{cov}\left( Z_Y - \Sigma_{XY}^T Z_X \right) = E\left[ Z_Y - \Sigma_{XY}^T Z_X \right] = \begin{bmatrix}
-I_d \\
M^T
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
\Sigma_{XY} & 0_d \\
0_d & \Sigma_{XY}
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
-I_d \\
M^T
\end{bmatrix} = I_d - \Sigma_{XY}^T \Sigma_{XY},
\]
implying that the matrix on the right is positive semidefinite. Therefore, there exists \( M_2 \) such that \( M_2^T M_2 = I_d - \Sigma_{XY}^T \Sigma_{XY} \) and hence \( M^T M = \Sigma_{XY}^T \Sigma_{XY} + M_2^T M_2 = I_d \).

Proposition 1 demonstrates that we can compute an optimal Gaussian copula by solving an optimization problem on the space \( \mathcal{F}_{2d,d} \) of \( 2d \times d \) orthogonal matrices rather than on \( \mathcal{F}_d \). The space of such matrices is an example of a Stiefel manifold; see Edelman, Arias, and Smith (1999) for a discussion of the geometry of these and related manifolds, and of optimization algorithms thereon. In this formulation, our objective function (2) is replaced by
\[
h(M, Z) = f(Z_X) g(M^T Z).
\]
Again we wish to maximize \( Eh(M, Z) \), but this time the feasible region is \( M \in \mathcal{F}_{2d,d} \).

It is now straightforward to compute derivatives of \( h(\cdot, Z) \) with respect to \( M \) for a fixed \( Z \). We have that
\[
h'_{ij}(M, Z) := \frac{\partial h(M, Z)}{\partial M_{i,j}} = f(Z_X) g_j(M^T Z) Z[i],
\]
where \( g_j(x) \) is the partial derivative of \( g(\cdot) \) with respect to the \( j \)-th component, evaluated at \( x \).

One can use these derivatives in various gradient-based optimization approaches such as stochastic approximation. Our optimization approach is based upon Sample Average Approximation (SAA) (e.g., Shapiro 2004). SAA is a general method for solving optimization problems of the form
\[
\max_{x \in X} Eh(x, \xi)
\]
where \( \xi \) is a random object. Initially a small “pilot” sample \( \xi_1, \ldots, \xi_m \) is generated. These values are then treated as fixed, and the optimization problem is replaced by
\[
\max_{x \in X} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m h(x, \xi_i).
\]
Since the sample is fixed, the problem can be viewed as a deterministic optimization problem, and one can then employ specialized deterministic optimization algorithms to solve the problem. We use exactly this approach using optimization algorithms designed for differentiable functions over a Stiefel manifold. The solution to the optimization problem using a sample of size \( m \), say, \( Z_1, \ldots, Z_m \) yields a matrix \( M_m^* \) that defines a copula, which can then be used in a “production” run to actually compare the systems in question. Under mild regularity conditions, it is known that \( M_m^* \) will not only be a locally optimal solution for the sample-average problem, but will also be a nearly locally optimal solution for the true problem. See Shapiro (2004), Proposition 7, p. 363 and Bastin, Cirillo, and Toint (2006).

Example 3. We conclude this section with an example of a stochastic activity network (e.g., Avramidis and Wilson 1993). The network in Figure 2 is an abstraction of a set of jobs which must be completed. Each arc corresponds to a job. Nodes represent constraints on the order in which the jobs must be performed. All the jobs whose arcs enter a given node must be completed before any job whose arcs leave that node commences. The arcs are labelled by random variables corresponding to the length of time required by each task. Two nodes are distinguished as the source and the sink, respectively representing the state in which no tasks have begun and the state in which all tasks are completed. The total completion time for the set of all tasks is equal to the maximum length of all paths from source to sink.

Let us compare two possible configurations of the stochastic activity network in Figure 2, where the different configurations correspond to different joint distributions on the activity times \( V_1, \ldots, V_4 \). In Configuration 1, the activity times are IID exponential with rate 1. In Configuration
2, $V_1$ and $V_2$ are as in Configuration 1, but $V_3$ and $V_4$ are exponential conditional on $V_1$ and $V_2$ with respective rates $\frac{1}{2}(1 + V_2)$ and $\frac{1}{2}(1 + V_1)$. Let $X$ and $Y$ respectively be the completion times of Configurations 1 and 2.

The functions connecting the underlying normal random variates to the service times are given by

$$f(z) = \max(-\log \Phi(z_1) - \log \Phi(z_3),$$

$$-\log \Phi(z_2) - \log \Phi(z_4))$$

$$g(z) = \max(-\log \Phi(z_1) - \frac{2}{1 - \log \Phi(z_2)} \log \Phi(z_3),$$

$$-\log \Phi(z_2) - \frac{2}{1 - \log \Phi(z_1)} \log \Phi(z_4)).$$

We solved this problem using the Stiefel manifold formulation with the freely available MATLAB procedure sgmin (Lippert and Edelman 1999), using the SAA framework sketched above. We solved it over both the spaces $\mathcal{F}_{2d,d}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{d,d}$ and achieved quite similar resulting copulae. The resulting variance of the optimal Gaussian copula is in fact a change of variables applied to CRN sampling. Although the random variables $Z_1$ and $Z_2$ are highly correlated, they are very highly correlated. However, the difference in performance between the two copulae is great, with the optimal Gaussian copula resulting in more than a 50% reduction in variance.

### Table 1: Example 3 results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sampling Strategy</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IID</td>
<td>5.257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRN</td>
<td>0.565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPT</td>
<td>0.280</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6 ANALYSIS OF THE LINEAR CASE

The optimal copula given in Example 1 has the property that $\Sigma_{XY}$ is itself an orthogonal matrix; equivalently, the lower $d$ rows of this solution $M$ are all zero. A natural question to ask is under what conditions we may assume that an optimal solution of this type exists. Knowledge of such conditions would allow the optimization problem to be solved on the smaller space $\mathcal{F}_{d,d}$. Moreover, the resulting copula can be sampled from using only $d$ independent normal variates per sample, as opposed to the $2d$ normal variates required in the general case. We do not have a complete answer to this question at present, although we are able to show that a sufficient condition is for $X$ and $Y$ to be linear in $Z_X$ and $Z_Y$, respectively.

**Proposition 2.** Let $Z$ be a $2d$-dimensional random vector with mean zero and covariance matrix $I_{2d}$. Suppose $f$ and $g$ are functions on $\mathbb{R}^d$ given by $f(z) = a^T z, g(z) = b^T z$, for some $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Then

$$\max_{M \in \mathcal{F}_{d,d}} Ef([I_d \quad 0_d]^T Z)g(M^T Z)$$

$$= \max_{\Sigma_{XY} \in \mathcal{F}_{d,d}} Ef([I_d \quad 0_d]^T Z)g([\Sigma_{XY} \quad 0_d]^T Z).$$

**Proof.** Let LHS and RHS respectively denote the left- and right-hand sides of the desired equality. The inequality LHS $\geq$ RHS follows immediately from the fact that $[\Sigma_{XY} \quad 0_d] \in \mathcal{F}_{2d,d}$, so we need only prove the converse.

Let $M \in \mathcal{F}_{2d,d}$ be arbitrary. Let us write

$$[Z_1 \quad Z_2]$$

and

$$[M_1 \quad M_2]$$

for $Z$ and $M$ respectively. Then

$$Ef([I_d \quad 0_d]^T Z)g(M^T Z) = Ea^T Z_1 b^T M^T Z$$

$$= Ea^T Z_1 Z_1^TM_1 b + Ea^T Z_1 Z_1^T M_2 b = \langle a, M_1 b \rangle.$$ 

(5)
Now,
\[(a, M_1 b)^2 \leq ||a||^2 ||M_1 b||^2 \]
\[\leq ||a||^2 ||M_1||^2 ||b||^2 \]
\[\leq ||a||^2 ||b||^2. \]  (6)

Here, ||M_1|| denotes the spectral norm (greatest absolute eigenvalue) of M_1. The first inequality is Cauchy-Schwartz. The second inequality is a property of the spectral norm. The third inequality is proven as follows: if λ is an eigenvalue of M_1 with corresponding eigenvector w, then

\[1 = ||w||^2 = w^T M^T M w = w^T (M_1^T M_1 + M_2^T M_2) w = \lambda^2 ||w||^2 + w^T M_2^T M_2 w \geq \lambda^2, \]

since M_2^T M_2 is positive semidefinite.

Combining (5) with (6) yields LHS ≤ ||a||||b||. Now let v = b - \frac{||b||}{||a||}a. Let Σ_{XY} be the Householder reflection induced by v,

\[Σ_{XY} = I_d - \frac{2}{||v||^2} vv^T. \]

It is easy to check that Σ_{XY} ∈ \mathcal{V}_{d,d} and that (a, Σ_{XY} b)^2 = ||a||^2 ||b||^2. This implies ||a||||b|| ≤ RHS, completing the proof.

7 CONCLUSION

We have shown that it is possible to compute couplings of two random vectors that have IID components with the goal of minimizing the variance of the difference between real-valued functions of the random vectors. We use an underlying Gaussian copula because it is amenable to computation, although one could certainly consider other copula families as well. We have given simple examples where the gains beyond common random numbers are significant.

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