Simulation - part 2 Stat 133

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Random Numbers in R

Generating Random Numbers

Generation of random numbers is at the heart of many statistical methods

Use of Random Numbers

Some uses of random numbers

- Sampling procedures
- Simulation studies of stochastic processes
- Analytically intractable mathematical expressions
- Simulation of a population distribution by resampling from a given sample from that population
- ▶ More general: Simulation, Monte Carlo, Resampling

Random Samples

- Many statistical methods rely on random samples:
 - Sampling techniques
 - Design of experiments
 - Surveys
- ▶ Hence, we need a source of random numbers
- Before computers, statisticians used tables of random numbers
- ▶ Now we use computers to generate "random" numbers
- The random sampling required in most analyses is usually done by the computer

Generating Random Numbers

- ▶ We cannot generate truly random numbers on a computer
- Instead, we generate **pseudo-random** numbers
- ▶ i.e. numbers that have the appearance of random numbers
- they seem to be randomly drawn from some known distribution
- ► There are many methods that have been proposed to generate pseudo-random numbers

Generating Random Numbers

A very important advantage of using pseudo-random numbers is that, because they are deterministic, they can be reproduced (i.e. repeated)

Multiple Recursion

- Generate a sequence of numbers in a manner that appears to be random
- Use a deterministic generator that yields numbers recursively (in a fixed sequence)
- ▶ The previous k numbers determine the next one

$$x_i = f(x_{i-1}, \dots, x_{i-k})$$

Simple Congruential Generator

- Congruential generators were the first reasonable class of pseudo-random number generators
- ► The congruential method uses modular arithmetic to generate "random" numbers

Ingredients

- ightharpoonup An integer m
- ▶ An integer a such that a < m
- ▶ A starting integer x_0 (a.k.a. *seed*)

Simple Congruential Generator

The first number is obtained as:

$$x_1 = (a \times x_0) \mod m$$

The rest of the pseudorandom numbers are generated as:

$$x_{n+1} = (a \times x_n) \mod m$$

Simple Congruential Generator

For example if we take m=64, and a=3, then for $x_0=17$ we have:

$$x_1 = (3 \times 17) \mod 64 = 51$$

 $x_2 = (3 \times 51) \mod 64 = 25$
 $x_3 = (3 \times 25) \mod 64 = 11$
 $x_4 = (3 \times 11) \mod 64 = 33$
 $x_5 = (3 \times 33) \mod 64 = 35$
 $x_6 = (3 \times 35) \mod 64 = 41$
 \vdots

Congruential algorithm

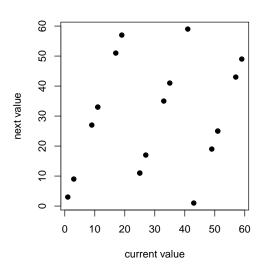
```
a <- 3; m <- 64; seed <- 17
x <- numeric(20)
x[1] \leftarrow (a * seed) \% m
for (i in 2:20) {
 x[i] \leftarrow (a * x[i-1]) \% m
x[1:16]; x[17:20]
## [1] 51 25 11 33 35 41 59 49 19 57 43 1 3 9 27 17
## [1] 51 25 11 33
```

Congruential algorithm

```
cong <- function(n, a = 69069, m = 2^32, seed = 17) {
    x <- numeric(n)
    x[1] <- (a * seed) %% m
    for (i in 2:n) {
        x[i] <- (a * x[i-1]) %% m
    }
    x
}

y <- cong(20, a = 3, m = 64, seed = 17)</pre>
```

Congruential algorithm



 $cong(n, a = 69069, m = 2^32, seed = 17)$ 4e+09 3e+09 next value 2e+09 1e+09 0e+00

1e+09

2e+09

current value

3e+09

4e+09

0e+00

Ingredients

- ightharpoonup m is the modulus (0 < m)
- a is the multiplier (0 < a < m)
- x_0 is the seed $(0 \le x_0 \le m)$

The period length of a Random Generator Number is at most m, and for some choices of a much less than that.

About the seed

- You can reproduce your simulation results by controlling the seed
- set.seed() allows to do this
- Every time you perform simulation studies indicate the random number generator and the seed that was used

About the seed

```
# set the seed
set.seed(69069)
runif(3) # call the uniform RNG
## [1] 0.1648855 0.9564664 0.3345479
runif(3) # call runif() again
## [1] 0.01109596 0.18654873 0.94657805
# set the seed back to 69069
set.seed(69069)
runif(3)
## [1] 0.1648855 0.9564664 0.3345479
```

Simple Congruential Generator

We can use a congruential algorithm to generate uniform numbers

We'll describe one of the simplest methods for simulating independent uniform random variables on the interaval [0, 1]

Generating Uniform Numbers

The generator proceeds as follows

$$x_1 = (ax_0) \mod m$$
$$u_1 = x_1/m$$

 u_1 is the first pseudo-random number, taking some value between 0 and 1.

Ingredients

The second pseudorandom number is obtained as:

$$x_2 = (ax_1) \mod m$$
$$u_2 = x_2/m$$

 u_2 is another pseudorandom number.

Generating Uniform Numbers

- ▶ If m and a are chosen properly, it is difficult to predict the value u_2 given u_1
- For most practical purposes u_2 is approximately independent of u_1

Simple Congruential Generator

For example if we take m=7, and a=3, then for $x_0=2$ we have:

Random Numbers in R

R uses a pseudo random number generator

- ▶ It starts with a **seed** and an **algorithm** (i.e. function)
- ► The seed is plugged into the algorithm and a number is returned
- ► That number is then plugged into the algorithm and the next number is created
- ► The algorithm is such that the produced numbers behave like random numbers

RNG functions in R

Function	Description
runif()	Uniform
rbinom()	Binomial
<pre>rmultinom()</pre>	Multinomial
<pre>rnbinom()</pre>	Negative binomial
rpois()	Poisson
rnorm()	Normal
rbeta()	Beta
rgamma()	Gamma
rchisq()	Chi-squared
rcauchy()	Cauchy

See more info: ?Distributions

Random Number Functions

```
runif(n, min = 0, max = 1) sample from the uniform distribution on the interval (0,1)
```

The chance the value drawn is:

- ▶ between 0 and 1/3 has chance 1/3
- ▶ between 1/3 and 1/2 has chance 1/6
- ▶ between 9/10 and 1 has chance 1/10

Random Number Functions

```
rnorm(n, mean = 0, sd = 1) sample from the normal
distribution with center = mean and spread = sd
```

Random Number Functions

```
rnorm(n, mean = 0, sd = 1) sample from the normal
distribution with center = mean and spread = sd

rbinom(n, size, prob) sample from the binomial
distribution with number of trials = size and chance of success
= prob
```

More Simulations

Simulation Probability examples

For instance

- Simulate flipping a coin
- Simulate rolling a die
- Simulate drawing a card from a deck
- ► Simulate a probability experiment with balls in an urn
- ► Simulate the "Monty Hall Problem"

Flipping a Coin

Simulating a Coin

How to simulate tossing a coin?



Simulating a coin

One way to simulate a coin

```
coin <- c("heads", "tails")</pre>
```

Simulating a coin

One way to simulate a coin

```
coin <- c("heads", "tails")</pre>
```

One way to simulate flipping a coin

```
sample(coin, size = 1)
## [1] "heads"
```

Probability

Probability allows us to quantify statements about the chance of an event taking place

For example, flip a fair coin

- What's the chance it lands heads?
- ▶ Flip it 4 times, what proportion of heads do you expect?
- Will you get exactly that proportion?
- ▶ What happens when you flip the coin 1000 times?

Simulating a Coin

When you flip a coin

- ▶ it may land heads
- ▶ it may land tails
- with what probability it lands heads?
- ▶ If it is a fair coin: p = 0.5

Simulating a Coin

Tossing a coin can be modeled with a random variable following a Bernoulli distribution:

- heads (X = 1) with probability p
- ▶ tails (X = 0) with probability q = 1 p

The Bernoulli distribution is a special case of the Binomial distribution: $B(1,\boldsymbol{p})$

Simulating tossing a coin

Tossing a coin simulated with a **binomial** distribution:

```
# binomial distribution generator
rbinom(n = 1, size = 1, prob = 0.5)
## [1] 0
```

Flipping a Coin function

Function that simulates flipping a coin

```
# flipping coin function
coin <- function(prob = 0.5) {
  rbinom(n = 1, size = 1, prob = prob)
}
coin()
## [1] 1</pre>
```

Flipping a Coin function

It's better if we assign labels

```
# flipping coin function
coin <- function(prob = 0.5) {
  out <- rbinom(n = 1, size = 1, prob = prob)
  ifelse(out, "heads", "tails")
}
coin()
## [1] "tails"</pre>
```

Flipping a Coin function

```
# 10 flips
for (i in 1:10) {
  print(coin())
## [1] "heads"
## [1] "tails"
## [1] "tails"
## [1] "heads"
## [1] "tails"
## [1] "heads"
```

4 Flips

In 4 flips

- ▶ Possible outputs:
 - HHHH, THHH, HTHH, HHTH, HHHT, ...
- ▶ we can get 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 heads
- ▶ so the proportion of heads can be: 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1
- ▶ we expect the proportion to be 0.5
- but a proportion of 0.25 is also possible

4 Flips

- we can think of the proportion of Heads in 4 flips as a statistic because it summarizes data
- this proportion is a random quantity: it takes on 5 possible values, each with some probability
 - $-0 \to 1/16$
 - $-0.25 \rightarrow 4/16$
 - $-0.50 \rightarrow 8/16$
 - $-0.75 \rightarrow 4/16$
 - $-1.0 \rightarrow 1/16$

Simulating flipping n coins

Function that simulates flipping a coin n times (i.e. flipping n coins)

```
# generic function
flip_coins <- function(n = 1, prob = 0.5) {
  out <- rbinom(n = n, size = 1, prob = prob)
  ifelse(out, "heads", "tails")
}
flip_coins(5)
## [1] "tails" "heads" "heads" "tails" "heads"</pre>
```

Proportion of Heads

```
# number of heads
num_heads <- function(x) {
   sum(x == "heads")
}

# proportion of heads
prop_heads <- function(x) {
   num_heads(x) / length(x)
}</pre>
```

1000 Flips

- when we flip the coin 1000 times, we can get many different possible proportions of Heads
- ▶ 0, 0.001, 0.002, 0.003, ..., 0.999, 1.000
- ▶ It's highly unlikely that we would get 0 for the proportion—how unlikely?
- what does the distribution of the porpotion of heads in 1000 flips look like?

1000 Flips

- With some probability theory and math tools we can figure this out
- But we can also get a good idea using simulation
- ▶ In our simulation we'll assume that the chance of Heads is 0.5 (i.e. fair coin)
- ▶ we can find out what the possible values for the proportion of heads in 1000 flips look like

```
set.seed(99900)
flips <- flip_coins(1000)
num_heads(flips)
## [1] 494
prop_heads(flips)
## [1] 0.494</pre>
```

```
set.seed(76547)
a_flips <- flip_coins(1000)
b_flips <- flip_coins(1000)</pre>
num_heads(a_flips)
## [1] 493
num_heads(b_flips)
## [1] 507
```

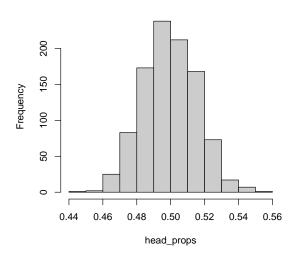
1000 Flips 1000 times

```
times <- 1000
head_props <- numeric(times)

for (s in 1:times) {
  flips <- flip_coins(1000)
  head_props[s] <- prop_heads(flips)
}</pre>
```

Empirical distribution of 1000 flips

Histogram of head_props



Experiment: flipping a coin 100 times and counting number of heads

You flip a coin 100 times and you get 65 heads. Is it a fair coin?

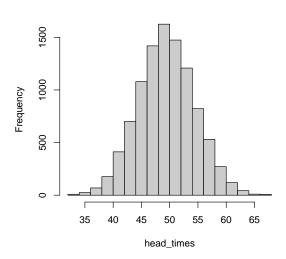
Experiment: flipping a coin 100 times and counting number of heads

You flip a coin 100 times and you get 65 heads. Is it a fair coin?

We could perform a hypothesis test, or we could perform resampling

```
# repeat experiment 100 times
times < -10000
head_times <- numeric(times)</pre>
for (s in 1:times) {
  flips <- flip_coins(100)
  head_times[s] <- num_heads(flips)</pre>
sum(head_times >= 65)
## [1] 18
sum(head_times >= 65) / times
## [1] 0.0018
```

Histogram of head_times



Bootstrapping

Let's Generalize

- ▶ A **statistic** is just a function of a random sample
- Statistics are used as estimators of quantities of interest about the distribution, called parameters
- Statistics are random variables
- Parameters are NOT random variables

Let's Generalize

- ▶ In simple cases, we can study the *sampling distribution* of the statistic analytically
- e.g. we can prove under mild conditions that the distribution of the sample proportion is close to normal for large sample sizes
- In more complicated cases we can turn to simulation

Sampling Distributions

- ▶ In our example $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are independent observations from the same distribution
- ▶ The distribution has center (mean value) μ and spread (standard deviation) σ
- e.g. interest in the distribution of $median(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$
- ▶ We take many samples of size n, and study the behavior of the sample medians

Some Limitations

- ▶ Consider *t-test* procedures for inference about means
- Most classical methods rest on the use of Normal Distributions
- ► However, most real data are not Normal
- We cannot use t confidence intervals for strongly skewed data (unless samples are large)
- What about inference for a ratio of means? (no simple traditional inference)

Fundamental Reasoning

- Apply computer power to relax some of the conditions needed in traditional tests
- ▶ Have tools to do inference in new settings
- What would happen if we applied this method many times?

Bootstrap Idea

- Statistical inference is based on the sampling distributions of sample statistics
- ► A sampling distribution is based on many random samples from the population
- ► The bootstrap is a way of finding the sampling distribution (approximately)

```
x <- c(3.15, 0, 1.58, 19.65, 0.23, 2.21)
mean(x)
## [1] 4.47</pre>
```

```
x <- c(3.15, 0, 1.58, 19.65, 0.23, 2.21)
mean(x)
## [1] 4.47
```

```
(x1 <- sample(x, size = 6, replace = TRUE))

## [1] 19.65 3.15 19.65 0.00 19.65 2.21

mean(x1)

## [1] 10.71833
```

```
(x2 \leftarrow sample(x, size = 6, replace = TRUE))
## [1] 3.15 0.23 3.15 2.21 2.21 1.58
mean(x2)
## [1] 2.088333
(x3 <- sample(x, size = 6, replace = TRUE))
## [1] 19.65 2.21 19.65 2.21 3.15 1.58
mean(x3)
## [1] 8.075
```

Procedure for Bootstrapping

- Repeatedly sampling with replacement from a random sample
- ► Each bootstrap sample is the same size as the original sample
- ► Calculate the statisc of interest (e.g. mean, median, sd)
- Draw hundreds or thousands of samples
- Obtain a bootstrap distribution

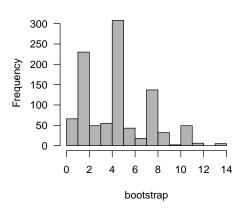
```
bootstrap <- numeric(1000)

for (b in 1:1000) {
  boot_sample <- sample(x, size = 6, replace = TRUE)
  bootstrap[b] <- mean(boot_sample)
}</pre>
```

Bootstrap Distribution

hist(bootstrap, col = 'gray70', las = 1)

Histogram of bootstrap



How does Bootstrapping work?

- ▶ We are not using the resamples as if they were real data
- ▶ Bootstrap samples is not a substitute to gather more data to improve accuracy
- ► The bootstrap idea is to use the resample statistics to estimate how the sample statistic varies from the studied random sample
- ► The bootstrap distribution approximates the sampling distribution of the statistic

Computing the bootstrap distribution implies

- Calulate the statistic for each sample
- ► The distribution of these resample statistics is the bootstrap distribution
- A bootstrap sample is the same size as the original random sample

Another Example

Bootstrap resampling

```
# Iris Virginica subset (the "population")
virginica <- subset(iris, Species == 'virginica')

# random sample of Petal.Length (size = 5)
set.seed(7359)
rand_sample <- sample(virginica$Petal.Length, size = 5)
rand_sample

## [1] 5.1 5.6 5.8 5.7 5.8</pre>
```

Bootstrap resampling

```
# create 500 bootstrap samples of size 5 with replacement
resamples <- 500
n <- length(rand_sample)

boot_stats <- numeric(resamples)

for (i in 1:resamples) {
   boot_sample <- sample(rand_sample, size = n, replace = TRUE)
   boot_stats[i] <- mean(boot_sample)
}</pre>
```

Bootstrap resampling

```
# "population" mean
mean(virginica$Petal.Length)

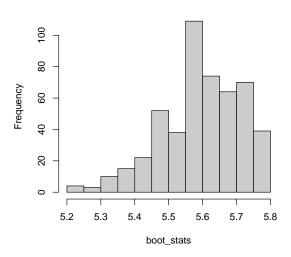
## [1] 5.552

# bootstrap mean
mean(boot_stats)

## [1] 5.60028
```

Bootstrap Distribution

Histogram of boot_stats



Bootstrap standard error

The bootstrap standard error is just the standard deviation of the bootstrap samples

```
# descriptive statistics
summary(boot_stats)

## Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
## 5.20 5.52 5.60 5.60 5.70 5.80

# Bootstrap Standard Error
sd(boot_stats)

## [1] 0.1167183
```