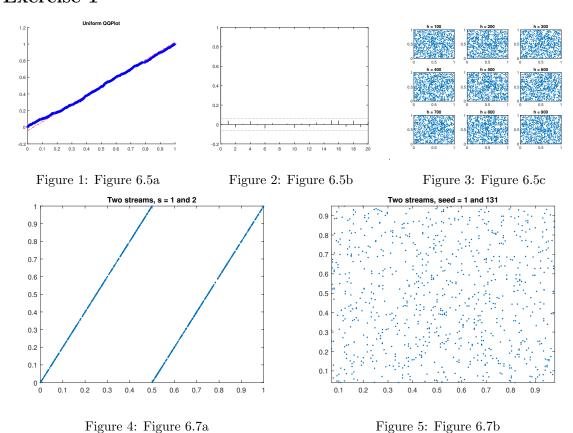
# Network Analysis and Simulation - AY 2020/2021 Homework 2

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# Exercise 1



# Exercise 2

We want to generate a vector of  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, ..., x_k) \sim \mathcal{B}(n, p)$  using: (1) the CDF inversion method, (2) a sequence of n Bernoulli RVs and (3) geometric strings of zeros. For each of them we will count the time it takes to generate  $\mathbf{x}$  with the MATLAB functions "tic" and "toc". The initial parameters of the Binomial vector are n = 30, p = 0.2.

#### **CDF** inversion

Here we have simply implemented the algorithm in [1, p.57] which took a time  $t_1 = 0.013293$  s to complete.

### Sequence of n Bernoulli RVs

For this method, we implemented the following algorithm, which took a time  $t_2 = 0.020782$  s to complete.

#### **Algorithm 1:** sequence of n Bernoulli RVs

```
initialize empty array x;
k = 1000:
i = 1;
i = 1;
while j \leq k do
   initialize empty array b;
   while i \leq n \operatorname{do}
       generate a uniform random number r;
       if r \leq p then
          append to b the value 1;
       end
       else
           append to b the value 0;
       end
   append to x the sum of the values in b;
end
```

# Geometric string of zeros

For this last method, we implemented the following algorithm, which took a time  $t_3 = 0.078115$  s to complete.

#### **Algorithm 2:** geometric string of zeros

```
initialize empty array x; k = 1000; j = 1; \mathbf{while} \ j \leq k \ \mathbf{do} initialize empty array seq; generate a geomtric random number g; \mathbf{while} \ g + length(seq) \leq n \ \mathbf{do} append to seq a sequence of g zeros followed by a one; generate a geomtric random number g; \mathbf{end} fill the remaining space with n-g-length(seq) zeros; append to x the sum of the values in seq; \mathbf{end}
```

#### Considerations

If we increase the parameter p we notice that: with the first method the elapsed time slightly increases; the second method is independent of p as we always generate n Bernoulli RVs and so on average the elapsed time remains the same; the third method is the most sensible to the change as for increasing p the probability of sampling a zero from the geometric distribution becomes larger and larger and so the inner loop in 2 is executed for a greater number of times.

If instead we increase the parameter n we observe that: with the first method the time elapsed is, on average, the same; in the second method we generate n Bernoulli RVs and of course the time increases with n; for the third method, also in this case the elapsed time varies the most among the three because the inner loop is executed for a greater number of times if we increase n.

In general, the third method takes always much more time than the other two because it has three inner loops: one is the while loop, then we have a for loop inside the while to fill the seq array with g zeros followed by a one and then we have another for to fill the remaining spaces in seq with zeros.

# Exercise 3

We want to generate a vector of  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, ..., x_k) \sim \mathcal{P}(\lambda)$  using: (1) the CDF inversion method; (2) exponential until sum is less than 1; (3) uniform numbers until their product is greater than  $e^{-\lambda}$ . The initial value of the parameter of the Poisson distribution is  $\lambda = 1$ .

### **CDF** inversion

For this method we have simply implemented the algorithm described in [1, p.56], which took a time  $t_1 = 0.006587$  s to complete.

### Exponential sum

Here we used the following algorithm, which took a time  $t_2 = 0.022446$  s to complete.

## Algorithm 3: exponential sum

```
k = 1000:
initialize empty array x;
for j \le k do
   n = 0;
   initialize empty array e;
   while true \ do
       generate a random number sampled from the exp distribution with \mu = \frac{1}{\lambda};
       append this number to e;
       s = sum(e);
       if s > 1 then
          break;
       end
       n = length(e);
   end
   append n to x;
end
```

## Product of uniform random numbers

For this method, the following algorithm was used, which took a time  $t_3=0.010542~\mathrm{s}.$ 

# Algorithm 4: product of uniform random numbers

```
k = 1000;
initialize empty array x;
el = exp(-\lambda);
for j \le k do
   n = 0;
   initialize empty array u;
   while true do
       generate a uniform random number between 0 and 1;
       append this number to u;
       p = prod(u);
       if p < el then
          break;
       end
      n = length(u);
   end
   append n to x;
```

#### Considerations

If we let  $\lambda$  increase we will see that the second method is the most susceptible to the changes, due to the exit condition on the inner loop in 3: the larger  $\lambda$  the smaller is  $\mu$  and therefore the smaller will be the exponential random number. Thus, it takes more time to met the condition s>1 and the inner loop is executed more times. With the third method we experience only a slight increase in the elapsed time. The same reasoning conversely applies when we decrease lambda. Instead, for the first method, the elapsed time remains more or less constant.

# Exercise 4

We have a Linear-Congruential Generator (LCG) with a=18, m=101. An LCG is said to be "full period" if the generated sequence repeats itself after m numbers, i.e., its period is m. In this case, upon the generation of a sequence long five times m, we indeed have that  $x_0$ , the seed, appears in position 1, 101, 201, 301, 401 and 501. From these points onwards, the sequence starts all over again, and they are spaced precisely by m position. Hence, this LCG is "full period".

In Fig. 6 we plotted in a unit square the pairs (Ui,Ui+1) where Ui is the i-th number and Ui+1 is the (i+1)-th number of the generated sequence, respectively. We can see that, even though the points fill up the square, they follow a kind of stripes pattern, which is a flag of some (positive) correlation between the sequence and its shifted version.

Now we take a different LCG with a=2 and same m. Also this one is "full period" for the reason above, but it is worse than the first because now in Fig. 7 the pairs (Ui,Ui+1) appear along two straight lines, which means that the sequences  $x_n$  and  $x_{n+1}$  are heavily (and positively) correlated. In fact, in Fig. 8, the autocorrelation function for a lag h=1 shows a value of  $\sim 0.5$  that just cannot be negligible.

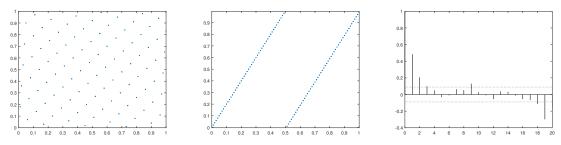


Figure 6: Scatter plot for LCG1. Figure 7: Scatter plot for LCG2. Figure 8: ACF of  $x_n$  for LCG2.

### Exercise 5

Like in the previous exercise, we analyse an LCG with parameters  $a = 65539, m = 2^{31}$ . This time, if we plot the pairs (Ui,Ui+1) as in Fig. 9, there is no preferential direction in which the dots align. However, if we consider the triple (Ui,Ui+1,Ui+2) and we perform a 3D plot, as in Fig. 10, it seems that the points are lying on multiple planes, even though from Fig. 11 we can tell that there is almost no correlation between subsequent numbers in the generated sequence  $x_n$ .

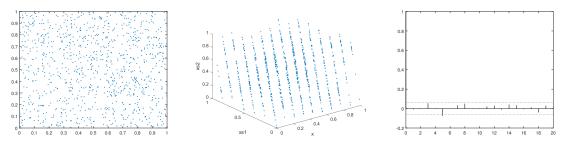


Figure 9: Scatter plot for LCG3. Figure 10: 3D scatter plot for Figure 11: ACF of  $x_n$  for LCG3. LCG3.

### References

[1] Sheldon M. Ross, Simulation, fourth edition, Academic Press, Inc., USA, 2006.