Assignment 2

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Clear R environment

rm(list = ls())

Problem 1

Consider the integral

$$\int_{-1}^{1} \int_{-1}^{1} 1_D(x,y) dx dy$$

Where $1_D(x, y)$ is the indicator function defined so that

$$1_D(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \le 1, 0 \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

As a crude first attempt, consider the estimator

$$\theta_{CMC} = \frac{4}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_D(X_i, Y_i)$$

A.) Argue for why θ_{CMC} is a monte carlo estimator for the integral above.

According to this wikipedia article which was accessed the 9th October, 2020, the monte carlo estimate for a multidimensional definite integral

$$I = \int_{\Omega} f(\bar{x}) d\bar{x}$$

where Ω is a subset of \mathbb{R}^m , has volume

$$V = \int_{\Omega} d\bar{\boldsymbol{x}}$$

The naive Monte Carlo approach is to sample points uniformly on Ω given N uniform samples,

$$\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n \in \Omega,$$

I can be approximated by

$$I \approx \Omega_N \equiv V \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(\bar{\boldsymbol{x}_i})$$

Which is true due to the law of large numbers.

In our case, which is also very similar to the example on the wikipedia article for monte carlo integration, $\Omega = [-1,1] \times [-1,1]$ with $V = \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{-1}^{1} dx dy = 4$ which gives the following crude way to estimate I

$$I = \frac{4}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} 1_D(X_i, Y_i)$$

Which is the proposed estimator θ_{CMC} .

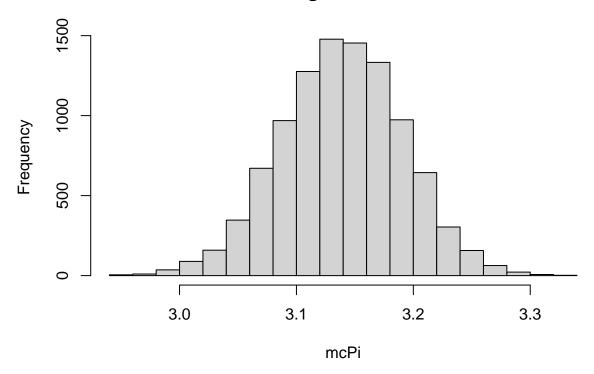
A.) Show that $1_D(X_i, Y_i)$ has a bernoulli distribution with $p = \frac{\pi}{4}$

The function returns success or failure, and is therefore has an potential 'bernoulli distribtion. To calculate $P(X^2 + Y^2 \le 1)$ we need to calculate the

c) Implementation of monte carlo estimate of θ_{CMC} with N=1000

```
# Indicator function for unit circle
indicator1 <- function (x, y) {</pre>
  return((x^2+y^2 <= 1))
}
mcEstimatePi <- function (Sims) {</pre>
                                         # function for monte carlo estimate
  mcPi <- numeric(Sims)</pre>
  for (i in 1:Sims) {
    N < -1000
                                             # Number of samples
                                             # x values from uniform
    x \leftarrow runif(N, -1, 1)
    y <- runif(N, -1, 1)
                                            # y values from uniform
    mcPi[i] <- (4/N)*sum(indicator1(x, y)) # return monte carlo estimate</pre>
  return(mcPi)
Sims <- 10000
                                             # Simulations of pi
mcPi <- mcEstimatePi(Sims)</pre>
                                     # Function call
summary(mcPi)
                                             # Summary stats for MC estimate
##
      Min. 1st Qu. Median
                                Mean 3rd Qu.
                                                  Max.
                               3.141
                                        3.176
##
     2.940
              3.104
                       3.140
                                                 3.336
hist(mcPi)
                                             # Histogram
```

Histogram of mcPi



```
mean(mcPi)
```

[1] 3.140853

var(mcPi)

[1] 0.002734594

We see that the distribution is approxamately normally distributed with sample mean at approx Mean = 3.141 and sample variance at approx Variance = 0.00260. This is du to the central limit theorem because our estimate of pi is based on a sum of several samples.

d.) Calculate probability of correctly estimating to two decimal places

```
mean(mcPi < 3.15) - mean(mcPi <= 3.14)
```

[1] 0.0606

e.) Introducing antithetic variables

The assignment proposes two antithetic variables V = a + b - X = -X and W = -Y

These will not reduce the monte carlo variance since X and Y are independent uniform random variables and due to their independence there is no negative correlation gained by just flipping the sign of both variables from X and Y to

```
-X and -Y.
```

```
x <- runif(1000, -1, 1)
y <- runif(1000, -1, 1)
cov(-x, -y)
```

[1] 0.005560362 f.) Let's see if our variance is reduced by doing exercise c. with the new variables. mcEstimatePi <- function (Sims) {</pre> # function for monte carlo estimate mcPi <- numeric(Sims)</pre> for (i in 1:Sims) { N <- 1000 # Number of samples $x \leftarrow runif(N, -1, 1)$ # x values from uniform y <- runif(N, -1, 1) # y values from uniform mcPi[i] <- (4/N)*sum(indicator1(-x, -y)) # mcEstimate with new variables return(mcPi) } Sims <- 10000 # Simulations of pi mcPi <- mcEstimatePi(Sims)</pre> # Function call summary(mcPi) # Summary stats for MC estimate ## Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max. ## 3.108 3.140 3.142 3.176 3.316 mean(mcPi) ## [1] 3.141544 var(mcPi) ## [1] 0.002651184 g.) Check if shift function reduces variance shift <- function(u) {</pre> # Introducing shift function return(((u+2.0) %% 2.0) - 1.0) mcEstimatePi <- function (Sims) {</pre> # function for monte carlo estimate mcPi <- numeric(Sims)</pre> for (i in 1:Sims) { N <- 1000 # Number of samples $x \leftarrow runif(N, -1, 1)$ # x values from uniform $y \leftarrow runif(N, -1, 1)$ # y values from uniform sx <- shift(x)</pre> sy <- shift(y) mcPi[i] <- (4/N)*sum(indicator1(sx, sy)) # mcEstimate with new variables return(mcPi) } Sims <- 10000 # Simulations of pi mcPi <- mcEstimatePi(Sims)</pre> # Function call summary(mcPi) # Summary stats for MC estimate

```
## Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
## 2.952 3.108 3.144 3.142 3.176 3.352
mean(mcPi)
```

[1] 3.14209

```
var(mcPi)
## [1] 0.002718705
h.) Use important sampling
f <- function (x, y, sigma) {
  return((1/(2*pi*sigma^2))*exp(-(x^2)/(2*sigma^2))*exp(-(y^2)/(2*sigma^2)))
}
mcEstimatePi <- function (Sims, sigma) { # function for monte carlo estimate
 mcPi <- numeric(Sims)</pre>
  for (i in 1:Sims) {
   N < -1000
                                             # Number of samples
   x \leftarrow rnorm(N, 0, sigma^2)
                                            # x values from uniform
   y <- rnorm(N, 0, sigma^2)
                                            # y values from uniform
   mcPi[i] <- mean(indicator1(x, y) / f(x, y, sigma))</pre>
 return(mcPi)
}
mcPi <- mcEstimatePi(10000, 0.3)
summary(mcPi)
     Min. 1st Qu. Median
                             Mean 3rd Qu.
```

Problem 2

Define $\lambda(t)$ in R

```
# Specify the intensity function for storms
lambdastorm <- function(t) {
  (297 / 10)*(1 + cos(2*pi*(t + (1/10)))) * (1 - (exp(-t/10)/2)) + 3/5
}
lambdastorm(0.5)</pre>
```

[1] 3.574416

a.) Calculating number of storms, expected value and variance

According to Rizzo on page 103. A poisson process with a intensity function $\lambda(t)$ has the property that the number of events N(t) in interval [0,t] has the poisson distribution with mean

$$E[N(t)] = \int_0^t \lambda(y)dy$$

Which in our case gives

```
integrate(lambdastorm, 0, 1)
```

```
## 16.29763 with absolute error < 1.8e-13
```

Which we have confirmed by the simulation above which has a simulated mean of approximately 16.3 Let's find the expected number of storms in 2025 by calculating the integral

```
integrate(lambdastorm, 5, 6)
```

```
## 21.80713 with absolute error < 2.4e-13
```

And let's find the expected value and standard deviation of storms in 2020 and 2021 combined

Expected value is calculated using the integral below

```
integrate(lambdastorm, 0, 2)
```

```
## 33.92776 with absolute error < 2.3e-08
```

Which means the number of events in 2020 and 2021 combined is poisson distributed with $\lambda = 39.72776$. The variance of a poisson distribution is $Var(X) = \lambda$ (according to Rizzo on page 44).

$$SD(X) = \sqrt{Var(X)} = \sqrt{33.92776} = 5.824754$$

b.) Find smallest possible λ_{max} for all $\lambda(t)$, $t \geq 0$

The function $\lambda(t)$ does not have a global maximum because it is modeled with a increasing winter intensity due to climate change that does not stop increasing. Solving for $\frac{d}{dt}\lambda(t)=0$ gives an infinite number of potential maximum or minimum points and there is no λ_{max} for all $\lambda(t)$ values.

c.) Validate previous points by simulation

simtNHPP borrowed from lectures on stochastic processes

```
# Function for simulating arrival times for a NHPP between a and b using thinning
simtNHPP <- function(a,b,lambdamax,lambdafunc){</pre>
  # Simple check that a not too small lambdamax is set
  if(max(lambdafunc(seq(a,b,length.out = 100)))>lambdamax)
    stop("lambdamax is smaller than max of the lambdafunction")
  # First simulate HPP with intensity lambdamax on a to b
  expectednumber <- (b-a)*lambdamax
  Nsim <- 3*expectednumber # Simulate more than the expected number to be certain to exceed stoptime
  timesbetween <- rexp(Nsim,lambdamax) # Simulate interarrival times
  timesto <- a+cumsum(timesbetween)</pre>
                                     # Calculate arrival times starting at a
  timesto <- timesto[timesto<b] # Dischard the times larger than b
  Nevents <- length(timesto) # Count the number of events
  # Next do the thinning. Only keep the times where u<lambda(s)/lambdamax
  U <- runif(Nevents)
  timesto <- timesto[U<lambdafunc(timesto)/lambdamax]</pre>
  timesto # Return the remaining times
}
Nsim <- 1000
a <- 0
b <- 1
NHPPnumbers <- vector(length=Nsim)
for(i in 1:Nsim) {
  NHPPnumbers[i] <- length(simtNHPP(a=a,b=b,</pre>
                            lambdamax=max(lambdastorm(seq(a, b, 0.01))),
                            lambdafunc=lambdastorm))
}
# Exepcted number of storms in 2020
mean(NHPPnumbers)
```

[1] 16.274

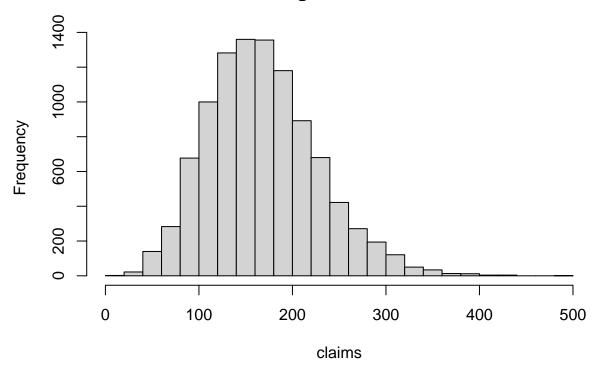
```
Nsim <- 1000
a <- 5
b <- 6
NHPPnumbers <- vector(length=Nsim)</pre>
for(i in 1:Nsim) {
  NHPPnumbers[i] <- length(simtNHPP(a=a, b=b,</pre>
                            lambdamax=max(lambdastorm(seq(a, b, 0.01))),
                            lambdafunc=lambdastorm))
}
# Exepcted number of storms in 2025
mean(NHPPnumbers)
## [1] 21.521
Nsim <- 1000
a <- 0
b <- 2
NHPPnumbers <- vector(length=Nsim)</pre>
for(i in 1:Nsim) {
  NHPPnumbers[i] <- length(simtNHPP(a=a, b=b,</pre>
                            lambdamax=max(lambdastorm(seq(a, b, 0.01))),
                            lambdafunc=lambdastorm))
}
# Expected number of storms in 2020 and 2021
mean(NHPPnumbers)
## [1] 33.698
# Variance of number of storms in 2020 and 2021
var(NHPPnumbers)
## [1] 35.0058
# Standard deviation of number of storms in 2020 and 2021
sd(NHPPnumbers)
## [1] 5.91657
```

d.) Simulate claim size

To calculate the claim size for a given year, simulate a poisson process and calculate mean parameter for all storms, then draw claim size for exponential distribution with mean parameter $c(t_i)$ where t_i is time of a given storm simulated from the NHPP.

```
lambdafunc=lambdastorm))
# Draw claim size for all storms from exponential with calculated mean param
Claims[i] <- sum(rexp(length(expmean), (1/expmean)))
}
return(Claims)
}
claims <- simulate_claims(10000, 0, 1)
hist(claims, breaks=20)</pre>
```

Histogram of claims



```
# Calculate mean
mean(claims)

## [1] 168.1971

# Calculate std
sd(claims)
```

To find a confidence interval one simple approach is to calculate the standard normal confidence interval. This can be done since the distribution of means approach a normal distribution due to the central limit theorem.

[1] 58.74841

[1] 167.0456 169.3485

297.8623

To be 97.5% certain to be able to be sure that the company is able to cover all claims, 97.5% of the simulated costs must be possible to pay. I.e, the 97.5 precentile of the simulated claims must be calculated

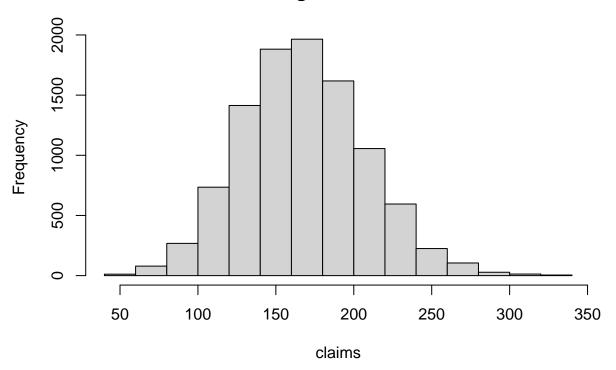
```
quantile(claims, c(0.975))
## 97.5%
```

And we see that 97.5% of the simulated costs are less than approx 300 million kroners during 2020.

e.) Calculate claims using Rao-Blackwelliztion

R code for estimating E[X] = E[Y] using equation 6 and 7 in assignment 2.

Histogram of claims



```
# Calculate mean
mean(claims)

## [1] 167.5189

# Calculate std
sd(claims)
```

We observe that the standard deviation is smaller and by inspection see that the histogram is not as wide as the previous estimate. Now, let's calculate the confidence interval for the mean of claims.

[1] 166.7158 168.3221

f.) Propose and implement improved estimator of Var(X)

Problem 3

[1] 40.97706

Load data and run simple regression

```
load("prob23.dat")
lm.obj <- lm(y ~ x1+x2+x3+x4+x5,data=df)
Rsquared <- summary(lm.obj)$r.squared</pre>
```

Rsquared

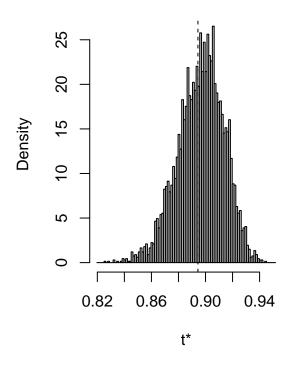
[1] 0.8943925

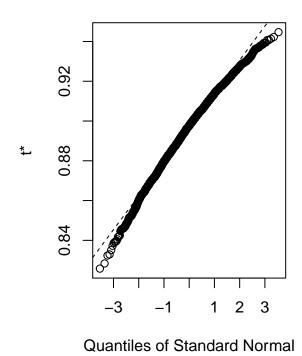
a.) Calculate B bootstrap samples for \mathbb{R}^2 and plot histogram

Code below is borrowed both from bootstra_examples.R file from the lectures as well as this article by statmethods.net

```
# Bootstrap 95% CI for R-Squared
library(boot)
# function to obtain R-Squared from the data
rsq <- function(formula, data, indices) {</pre>
 d <- data[indices,] # allows boot to select sample</pre>
 fit <- lm(formula, data=d)</pre>
  return(summary(fit)$r.square)
# bootstrapping with 5000 replications
results <- boot(data=df, statistic=rsq, R=5000, formula=y~x1+x2+x3+x4+x5)
# view results
results
##
## ORDINARY NONPARAMETRIC BOOTSTRAP
##
##
## Call:
## boot(data = df, statistic = rsq, R = 5000, formula = y \sim x1 + y \sim x1
       x2 + x3 + x4 + x5
##
##
## Bootstrap Statistics :
        original
                    bias
                               std. error
## t1* 0.8943925 0.002157658 0.01705536
plot(results)
```

Histogram of t





get 95% confidence interval
boot.ci(results, type=c("bca"))

We see from the histogram, the quantile plot and the confidence intervals that the bootstrap samples of \mathbb{R}^2 is fairly normal.

b.) Find bootstrap estimate for bias of \mathbb{R}^2

According to the ordinary nonparametric bootstrap using the boot library, $bias(R^2) \approx 0.00148$ and $std.err(R)^2 \approx 0.0167$

b.) Calculate 99% confidence interval

To calculate the 99% confidence interval for \mathbb{R}^2 using standard normal interval and percentile interval, we use the boot library.

```
boot.ci(results, conf=0.99, type=c("norm", "perc"))
```

BOOTSTRAP CONFIDENCE INTERVAL CALCULATIONS

```
## Based on 5000 bootstrap replicates
##
## CALL:
## boot.ci(boot.out = results, conf = 0.99, type = c("norm", "perc"))
##
## Intervals:
## Level Normal Percentile
## 99% ( 0.8483,  0.9362 ) ( 0.8465,  0.9353 )
## Calculations and Intervals on Original Scale
```

We see that the confidence interval is not quite equal, the normal confidence interval is a tiny bit wider that the percentile interval. This is due to the data not beeing quite normal. We can see this form the quantile plot above where we see that R^2 values fart from the mean of the data is not as often as expected from a standard normal distribution.

Problem 4

According to (Burkardt 2014, 20–24), the CDF of a general truncated normal distribution bounded on the interval [a, b] is

$$\psi(\bar{\mu}, \bar{\sigma}, a, b; x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \le a \\ \frac{\phi(\bar{\mu}, \bar{\sigma}^2; x) - \phi(\bar{\mu}, \bar{\sigma}^2; a)}{\phi(\bar{\mu}, \bar{\sigma}^2; b) - \phi(\bar{\mu}, \bar{\sigma}^2; a)} & a < x < b \\ 0 & b \le x \end{cases}$$

Where ϕ being the CDF of a normal distribution.

By replacing some of the notation to reflect the notation used in the assignment, namely:

- replacing x with r
- using F for notating the CDF of a normal ϕ
- the fact that $b = +\infty$ and thus the $\phi(b) = 1$
- replacing the left bound a with l

We get

$$G_R(l, \mu, \sigma; r) = \begin{cases} 0 & r < l \\ \frac{F(r) - F(l)}{1 - F(l)} & l \le r \end{cases}$$

To find the inverse $G_R^{-1}(u)$ we replace G with U where U represent the Uniform(0,1) distribution and solve for r

$$U = \frac{F(r) - F(l)}{1 - F(l)} \implies F(r) = F(l) + U(1 - F(l)) \implies r = F^{-1}(F(l) + U(1 - F(l)))$$

Which is the inverse cumulative distribution shown in the assignment.

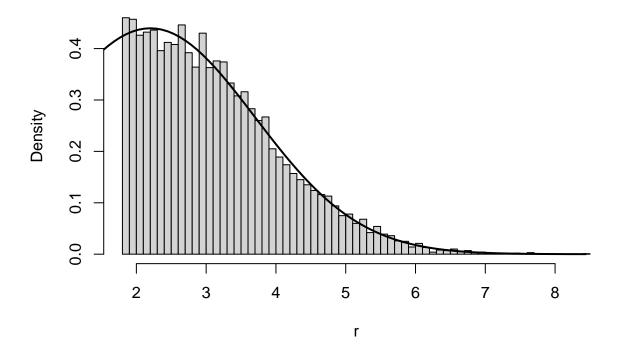
b.) Inverse transform sampling of left-truncated normal distribution

The code below evaluates $G_R^{-1}(u)$ by using the fact that the inverse of a CDF of a normal distribution is the quantile function of a normal distribution and utilizes the definition of the pdf of a left-truncated normal distribution defined by (Burkardt 2014, 20)

```
inverse_truncated <- function(samples, 1, mu, sigma) {
    # Sample uniform numbers
    u <- runif(samples, min = 0, max = 1)
    # Cumulative normal distribution</pre>
```

```
f <- function(x) pnorm(x, mu, sigma)</pre>
  # Inverse cumulative normal distribution (quantile)
  f.inv <- function(x) qnorm(x, mu, sigma)</pre>
  # Inverse transform sampling
  r \leftarrow f.inv(f(1) + u*(1 - f(1)))
  return(r)
}
# Density of truncated normal distribution
# Based on pdf by (Burkardt 2014, 20)
pdf_truncated <- function(x, 1, mu, sigma) {</pre>
  return(dnorm(x, mu, sigma) / (1 - pnorm(1, mu, sigma)))
}
1 <- 1.8
mu <- 2.2
sigma <- 1.5
x <- inverse_truncated(10000, 1, mu, sigma)
hist(x, probability = TRUE, xlab="r", breaks=50)
curve(pdf_truncated(x, 1, mu, sigma), 0, max(x), lwd=2, xlab = "", ylab = "", add = T)
```

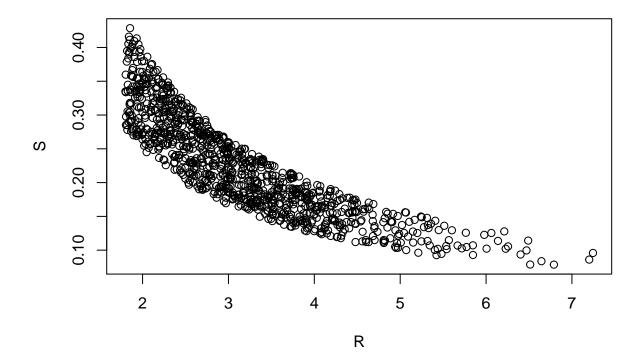
Histogram of x



b.) Calculate the theoretical mean and standard deviation

The pdf as defined in the pdf_truncated function was not possible to integrate. The function is defined again below and integrated.

```
# r*Fr(r) R integral
expected <- integrate( function(r, l=1.8, mu=2.2, sigma=1.5)</pre>
    r*(exp(-(r-mu)^2 / (2*sigma^2))/(sqrt(2*pi*sigma^2)*
    (1-pnorm(1, mu, sigma))))*(r>= 1)
  }, -Inf, Inf)$value
# r^2*Fr(r) R integral
expected_r2 <- integrate( function(r, l=1.8, mu=2.2, sigma=1.5)</pre>
    (r^2)*(exp(-(r-mu)^2 / (2*sigma^2))/(sqrt(2*pi*sigma^2)*)
    (1-pnorm(1, mu, sigma))))*(r>= 1)
  }, -Inf, Inf)$value
print(paste("Mean: ", expected))
## [1] "Mean: 3.1543441055124"
print(paste("SD: ", sqrt(expected_r2 - expected^2)))
## [1] "SD: 0.978516698425868"
print(paste("Simulated mean: ", mean(x)))
## [1] "Simulated mean: 3.15462933658174"
print(paste("Simulated sd: ", sd(x)))
## [1] "Simulated sd: 0.980861967057564"
c.) Simulate R values and S values
# No of samples
Samp <- 1000
# Simulate R from truncated normal
R <- inverse_truncated(Samp, l=1.8, mu=2.2, sigma=1.5)
\# Simulate S conditionally on R
S \leftarrow runif(Samp, 0.5/R, 0.8/R)
\# N x 2 matrix
m <- cbind(R, S)
plot(m)
```



To obtain the mean vector or expected value vector E[X] where

$$\boldsymbol{X_i} = \begin{bmatrix} R_i \\ S_i \end{bmatrix}$$
 for $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$

is a vector of R values and S values for N simulated vectors. We can estimate the mean vector by estimating the individual means for each random variable in the vectors and we get

$$E[\boldsymbol{X}] = \begin{bmatrix} E[R] \\ E[S] \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} R_i \\ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} S_i \end{bmatrix}$$

In r:

meanvec <- colMeans(m)
meanvec

R S ## 3.1772453 0.2248754

To calculate the covariance matrix $K_{RS} = \text{cov}(R, S)$ and the correlation matrix (which is the covariance matrix of standardized random variables). We use the r functions cov and cor.

cov(m)

R 0.98877620 -0.061085889 ## S -0.06108589 0.005117364 cor(m)

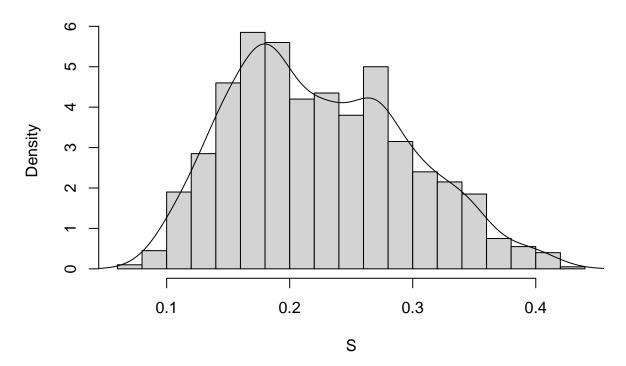
```
## R 1.0000000 -0.8587539
## S -0.8587539 1.0000000
```

d.) Histogram and distribution of S

We plot the values of S as an histogram and use the R function for estimating the density to plot the estimated density against the histogram.

```
hist(S, breaks = 20, probability = TRUE)
lines(density(S))
```

Histogram of S



And we visually can see that the density of S is **not** uniform.

Let's calculate the marginal density $f_s(s)$. The limits of integration utilizes the support of the pdf $\frac{0.5}{R} \leq S$ to determine values of R when integrating.

R code below calculates the integral

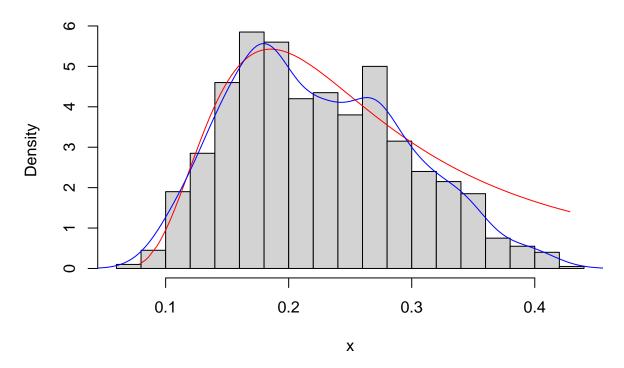
$$f_S(s) = \int_{\frac{0.5}{s}}^{\frac{0.8}{s}} f_{RS}(r, s) dr$$

```
# Marginal distribution of S
marginal_s <- function(s, 1, mu, sigma) {
   integrate (
    function(r) {
        ((exp(-(r-mu)^2 / (2*sigma^2))*10*r) /
        (sqrt(2*pi*sigma^2)*(1-pnorm(1, mu, sigma))*3))*(s >= 0.5/r)*(s<=0.8/r)</pre>
```

```
}, 0.5/s, 0.8/s
)$value
}

x <- S
x <- sort(x, decreasing = FALSE)
marginal <- numeric(length(x))
i <- 0
for (value in x) {
   i <- i+1
   marginal[i] <- marginal_s(value, 1.8, 2.2, 1.5)
}
hist(x, breaks = 20, probability = TRUE)
lines(x, marginal, col="red")
lines(density(S), col="blue")</pre>
```

Histogram of x



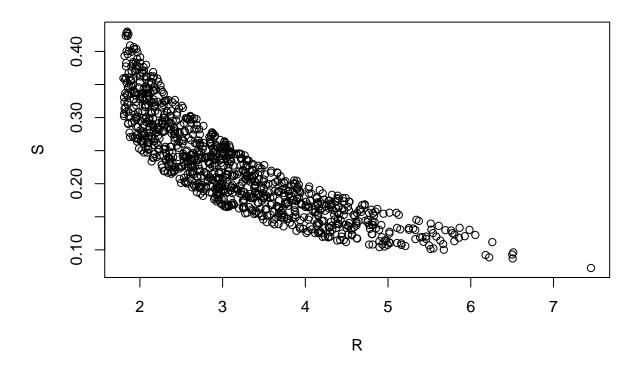
And we see that the marginal density plotted in red fits the simulated values of S quite well.

e.) Generate R and S using antithetic variables.

We introduce an antithetic uniform variable when sampling R via the inverse transform method. u1 and u2 are negatively correlated and variance is reduced.

```
inverse_truncated_anti <- function(samples, 1, mu, sigma) {
    # Sample uniform numbers
    u1 <- runif(samples/2, min = 0, max = 1)
    u2 <- 1 - u1
    u <- c(u1, u2)</pre>
```

```
# Cumulative normal distribution
  f <- function(x) pnorm(x, mu, sigma)</pre>
  # Inverse cumulative normal distributtion (quantile)
  f.inv <- function(x) qnorm(x, mu, sigma)</pre>
  # Inverse transform sampling
  r \leftarrow f.inv(f(1) + u*(1 - f(1)))
  return(r)
}
# No of samples
Samp <- 1000
\# Simulate R from truncated normal
R <- inverse_truncated_anti(Samp, l=1.8, mu=2.2, sigma=1.5)</pre>
\# Simulate S conditionally on R
S \leftarrow runif(Samp, 0.5/R, 0.8/R)
# N x 2 matrix
m <- cbind(R, S)
plot(m)
```



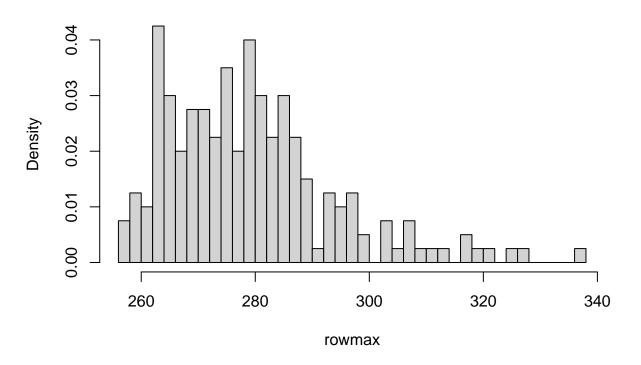
Still, we don't observe an significant reduction in the variance of the (R, S) values.

e.) Calculate hospital beds needed

Import SEIR-model

```
source("seir_model.R")
f <- seir_sim()</pre>
```

Maximum number of required beds during 2021 pr 1000000



f.) Uncertainty in daily required hospital beds

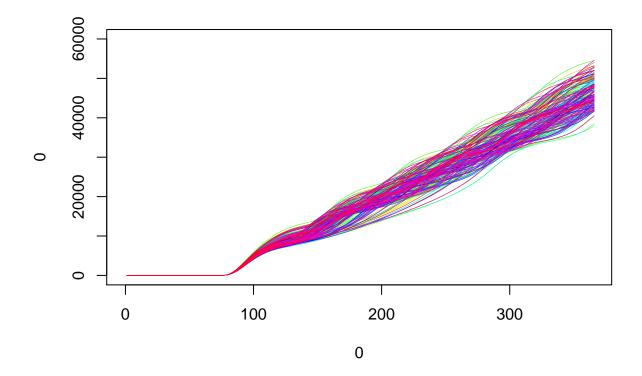
Plot cumulative sums of daily needed beds over 2021

```
library(ggplot2)
cummat <- matrix(,nsim, 365)

cl <- rainbow(200)

plot(0,0,xlim = c(0,365),ylim = c(0,60000), type = "n")</pre>
```

```
for (i in 1:nsim) {
   lines(cumsum(m[i,]), col=cl[i], type="l", lw=0.1)
}
```



We see that for our 200 simulations, the cumulative sum of daily beds needed at the end of the year is in the range of 30000 - 55000.

Bibliography

Burkardt, John. 2014. "The Truncated Normal Distribution." Department of Scientific Computing Website, Florida State University, 1-35.