# Lecture 8: Random Number Generation and Simulations STAT UN2102 Applied Statistical Computing

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# **Topics for Today**

- Random Number Generation. Random numbers in R and the linear congruential generator.
- Simulation.
  - Simulating random variables using R base functions.
  - The sample() function to simulate discrete random variables.
  - Acceptance-rejection algorithm.

## Section I

# Random Number Generation

We've made references to random number generation throughout the course without understanding where they come from.

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#### Today's Lecture

- How does R produce random numbers?
- It doesn't!
- R uses tricks that generate pseudorandom numbers that are indistinguishable from real random numbers.

**Pseudorandom generators** produce a deterministic sequence that is indistinguishable from a true random sequence if you don't know how it started.

#### Random Numbers in R

There are many ways to generate random numbers in R. Below we generate 10 random variables distributed uniformly over the unit interval.

```
> runif(10)
```

```
[1] 0.2756871 0.5916548 0.2601711 0.3175934 0.4632539
```

[6] 0.6562926 0.7128874 0.8610900 0.2065024 0.3168160

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[6] 0.6562926 0.7128874 0.8610900 0.2065024 0.3168160

On your machine, you'll see different random numbers.

#### Random Numbers in R

To recreate the same random numbers, use the function set.seed().

- > set.seed(10)
- > runif(10)

```
[1] 0.50747820 0.30676851 0.42690767 0.69310208 0.08513597
```

 $[6] \ \ 0.22543662 \ \ 0.27453052 \ \ 0.27230507 \ \ 0.61582931 \ \ 0.42967153$ 

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```

#### Try it again.

```
> set.seed(10)
> runif(10)
```

```
[1] 0.50747820 0.30676851 0.42690767 0.69310208 0.08513597 [6] 0.22543662 0.27453052 0.27230507 0.61582931 0.42967153
```

## Linear Congruential Generator (LCG)

A Linear Congruential Generator (LCG) is an algorithm that produces a sequence of pseudorandom numbers based on the recurrence relation formula:

$$X_n = (aX_{n-1} + c) \mod m$$

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# Simulating from [0,1]

- The  $1^{st}$  number is produced from a seed, and then used to generate the  $2^{nd}$ . The  $2^{nd}$  value is used to generate the  $3^{rd}$ , and so on.
- Values are always between 0 and m-1, and the sequence repeats every m occurrences.
- Dividing by the *m* gives you uniformly distributed random numbers between 0 and 1 (but never quite hitting 1).
- The LCG algorithm motivates how we can simulate a sequence of pseudorandom numbers from the unit interval.

# Linear Congruential Generator (LCG)

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# Simulating from [0,1]

- The LCG is a *pseudorandom* number generator because after a while, the sequence in the stream of numbers will begin to repeat.
- More sophisticated variants of the LCD exist.

## Simple Code Example

```
> seed <- 10
> new.random <- function(a = 5, c = 12, m = 16) {
+  out <- (a*seed + c) %% m
+  seed <<- out
+  return(out)
+ }</pre>
```

## Simple Code Example

```
> seed <- 10
> new.random <- function(a = 5, c = 12, m = 16) {
+  out <- (a*seed + c) %% m
+  seed <<- out
+  return(out)
+ }</pre>
```

#### Remember function environments?

The symbol << — allows you to assign a new global variable in a local environment.

# Simple Code Example

```
> seed <- 10
> new.random <- function(a = 5, c = 12, m = 16) {
+  out <- (a*seed + c) %% m
+  seed <<- out
+  return(out)
+ }</pre>
```

#### Modular Arithmetic

Modular arithmetic is performed using the symbol %%.

```
> 4 %% 4; 4 %% 3
```

[1] 0

[1] 1

# Try it out..

```
> out.length <- 20
> variants <- rep(NA, out.length)
> for (i in 1:out.length) {variants[i] <- new.random()}
> variants
```

```
[1] 14 2 6 10 14 2 6 10 14 2 6 10 14 2 6 10 14 2 [19] 6 10
```

## Try it out..

```
> out.length <- 20
> variants <- rep(NA, out.length)
> for (i in 1:out.length) {variants[i] <- new.random()}
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```

```
[1] 14 2 6 10 14 2 6 10 14 2 6 10 14 2 6 10 14 2 [19] 6 10
```

- The generator shuffled some of the integers 0, 1, ..., m-1=15 into an "unpredictable" order.
- Want the generator to shuffle all of these integers, but this generator only gives 4.

# Try it again with different inputs...

```
> out.length <- 20
> variants <- rep(NA, out.length)
> for (i in 1:out.length) {
+  variants[i] <- new.random(a = 131, c = 7, m = 16)
+ }
> variants
```

```
[1] 5 6 9 2 13 14 1 10 5 6 9 2 13 14 1 10 5 6 [19] 9 2
```

# Try it again with different inputs...

```
> out.length <- 20
> variants <- rep(NA, out.length)
> for (i in 1:out.length) {
+  variants[i] <- new.random(a = 131, c = 7, m = 16)
+ }
> variants
```

```
[1] 5 6 9 2 13 14 1 10 5 6 9 2 13 14 1 10 5 6
[19] 9 2
```

A bit better by making sure c and m are relatively prime.

## One more try...

```
> out.length <- 20
> variants <- rep(NA, out.length)
> for (i in 1:out.length) {
+  variants[i] <- new.random(a = 129, c = 7, m = 16)
+ }
> variants
```

```
[1] 9 0 7 14 5 12 3 10 1 8 15 6 13 4 11 2 9 0
[19] 7 14
```

## What Actually Gets Used...

```
[1] 0.2414938 0.4868097 0.9560252 0.1789021 0.8930807
[6] 0.3094601 0.4947667 0.6213101 0.8339265 0.4841096
[11] 0.4813287 0.5115348 0.8728538 0.6784677 0.1766823
[16] 0.9381840 0.6604821 0.3395404 0.5585955 0.6441623
```

## What Actually Gets Used...

```
[1] 0.2414938 0.4868097 0.9560252 0.1789021 0.8930807
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[16] 0.9381840 0.6604821 0.3395404 0.5585955 0.6441623
```

Type ?Random to get more info on random number generators used in R.

## Section II

# Simulating Random Variables

#### Simulation

A stochastic model (probabilistic model) can give the distribution of some random variable Y. This random variable can be a complicated multivariate object with many independent components.

#### Why Do We Care About Simulation?

- To understand a model.
- To check a model.
- To fit a model.

# Why Do We Care About Simulation?

#### To Understand a Model:

- Simulate model output. Simulate model accuracy and precision.
- Simulate how a hypothesis testing procedure behaves under  $H_0$  and under  $H_A$ . Do the empirical results match the developed theory?
- Simulate the sampling distribution and variation of an estimator.
   Assume some parametric form on the model or use nonparametric methods such as the bootstrap procedure or permutation tests.

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- Cross-Validation.
- Simulated data from a stochastic model should resemble the real data.

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#### To Fit a Model:

Markov Chain Monte Carlo Methods (MCMC).

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For common distributions, R has many built-in functions for simulating and working with random variables. These functions allow us to:

- Plot density functions (look up pmfs and pdfs if needed),
- · Compute probabilities,
- Compute quantiles,
- Simulate random draws from the distribution.

#### **R** Commands

- dfoo is the probability density function (pdf) or probability mass function (pmf) of foo.
- pfoo is the cumulative probability function (cdf) of **foo**.
- qfoo is the quantile function (inverse cdf) of foo.
- rfoo draws random numbers from foo.

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- rfoo draws random numbers from foo.

# Normal Density

```
> dnorm(0, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

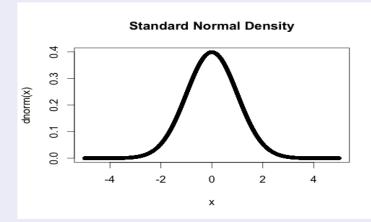
[1] 0.3989423

```
> 1/sqrt(2*pi)
```

[1] 0.3989423

# Normal Density

> x <- seq(-5, 5, by = .001)
> plot(x, dnorm(x), main="Standard Normal Density", pch=20)



#### Normal CDF

- > # P(Z < 0)
- > pnorm(0)

```
[1] 0.5
```

- ># P(-1.96 < Z < 1.96)
- > pnorm(1.96) pnorm(-1.96)
- [1] 0.9500042

### R Commands for Distributions

## Normal Quantiles

```
> # P(Z < ?) = 0.5
```

> qnorm(.5)

[1] 0

```
> # P(Z < ?) = 0.975
```

> qnorm(.975)

[1] 1.959964

### R Commands for Distributions

#### Draw Standard Normal RVs

```
> rnorm(1)
```

```
[1] 0.3897943
```

```
> rnorm(5)
```

```
[1] -1.2080762 -0.3636760 -1.6266727 -0.2564784 1.1017795
```

```
> rnorm(10, mean = 100, sd = 1)
```

```
[1] 100.75578 99.76177 100.98744 100.74139 100.08935
```

[6] 99.04506 99.80485 100.92552 100.48298 99.40369

## R Base Distributions

#### Set I

Probability distribution	Functions		
Beta	pbeta, qbeta, dbeta, rbeta		
Binomial	pbinom, qbinom, dbinom, rbinom		
Cauchy	pcauchy, qcauchy, dcauchy, rcauchy		
Chi-Square	pchisq, qchisq, dchisq, rchisq		
Exponential	pexp, qexp, dexp, rexp		
F	pf, qf, df, rf		
Gamma	pgamma, qgamma, dgamma, rgamma		
Geometric	pgeom, qgeom, dgeom, rgeom		
Hypergeometric	phyper, qhyper, dhyper, rhyper		

• Access the R help documentation to look up all arguments for each function: ?pbeta, ?qbeta, ?dbeta, ?rbeta

#### R Base Distributions

#### Set II

<b>Probability Distribution</b>	Functions		
Logistic	plogis, qlogis, dlogis, rlogis		
Log Normal	plnorm, qlnorm, dlnorm, rlnorm		
Negative Binomial	pnbinom, qnbinom, dnbinom, rnbinom		
Normal	pnorm, qnorm, dnorm, rnorm		
Poisson	ppois, qpois, dpois, rpois		
Student T	pt, qt, dt, rt		
Studentized Range	ptukey, qtukey, dtukey, rtukey		
Uniform	punif, qunif, dunif, runif		
Weibull	pweibull, qweibull, dweibull, rweibull		

 Access the R help documentation to look up all arguments for each function: ?pt, ?qt, ?dt, ?rt

#### Example

- Plot the density function of the student's t distribution with df=1,2,5,30,100. Use different line types for the different degrees of freedom.
- Plot the standard normal density on the same figure. Plot this curve in red.

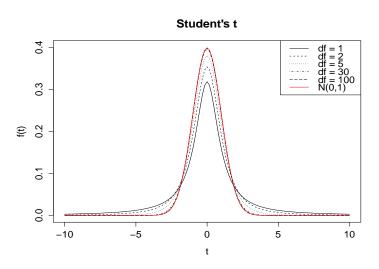
### Example

- Plot the density function of the student's t distribution with df=1,2,5,30,100. Use different line types for the different degrees of freedom.
- Plot the standard normal density on the same figure. Plot this curve in red.

#### Fun fact!

Recall that the student's t distribution converges to a standard normal distribution as  $df \to \infty$ .

#### Solution



#### **Tasks**

Recall that the gamma density function is:

$$f(x|\alpha,\beta) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1}e^{-x/\beta}}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}}, \quad 0 < x < \infty, \quad \alpha > 0, \quad \beta > 0,$$

where  $\alpha$  is the shape parameter and  $\beta$  is the scale parameter.

• For  $\alpha = 2$  and  $\beta = 1$  compute

$$Pr(X > 2)$$
 = Area under curve from 2 to infinity

• For the calculus savvy students:

$$Pr(X > 2) = \int_{2}^{\infty} f(x|\alpha, \beta) dx$$

• Plot the gamma density using shape parameters  $\alpha = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$ .

#### Solutions

Want to calculate

$$Pr(X > 2)$$
,

where  $X \sim Gamma(\alpha = 2, \beta = 1)$ .

> pgamma(2, shape = 2, rate = 1) # P(0 < X < 2)

[1] 0.5939942

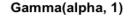
$$> 1 - pgamma(2, shape = 2, rate = 1) # P(X > 2)$$

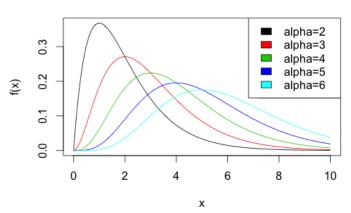
[1] 0.4060058

What about Pr(X = 2)?

#### Solutions

```
> alpha <- 2:6
> beta <- 1
> x < - seq(0, 10, by = .01)
> plot(x, dgamma(x, shape = alpha[1], rate = beta),
      col = 1, type = "l", ylab = "f(x)",
+
     main = "Gamma(alpha, 1)")
> for (i in 2:5) {
+ lines(x, dgamma(x, shape = alpha[i], rate = beta),
        col = i
+
+ }
> legend <- paste("alpha=", alpha, sep = "")</pre>
> legend("topright", legend = legend, fill = 1:5)
```





#### **Tasks**

Let  $X \sim Binom(n, p)$ . For large n, recall the normal approximation to the binomial distribution:

$$P(X \le x) \approx \Phi\left(\frac{x + .5 - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}}\right),$$

where  $\Phi(z)$  is the cdf of the standard normal distribution.

- Let  $X \sim Binom(n = 1000, p = 0.20)$ . Using the normal approximation to the binomial distribution, compute the approximate probability  $P(X \le 190)$ .
- Calculate the exact probability  $P(X \le 190)$ .
- Let  $X \sim Binom(n = 1000, p = 0.20)$ . Simulate 500 realizations of X and create a histogram (or bargraph) of the values.

#### Solution

• The approximation is given by

$$P(X \le 190) \approx \Phi\left(\frac{190 + .5 - (1000)(0.20)}{\sqrt{(1000)(0.20)(0.80)}}\right),$$

```
> val <- 190
> n <- 1000
> p <- 0.20
> correction <- (val + 0.5 - n*p)/(sqrt(n*p*(1-p)))
> pnorm(correction) # P(Z < correction)</pre>
```

[1] 0.226314

#### Solution

```
> # P(X <= 190)
> pbinom(val, size = n, prob = p)
```

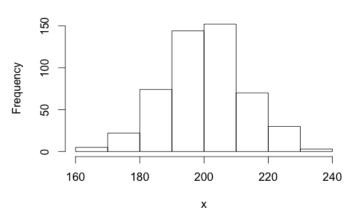
#### [1] 0.2273564

```
> # P(x = 0) + P(X = 1) + ... + P(X = 190)
> sum(dbinom(0:val, size = n, prob = p))
```

#### [1] 0.2273564

```
> x <- rbinom(500, size = n, prob = p)
> hist(x, main = "Normal Approximation to the Binomial")
```

### **Normal Approximation to the Binomial**



#### **Tasks**

Draw the following random variables. In each case calculate their sample mean, sample variance, and range (max minus min). Are the sample statistics (mean, variance, range) what you'd expect?

- 5000 normal random variables, with mean 1 and variance 8
- 4000 t random variables, with 5 degrees of freedom
- 3500 Poisson random variables, with mean 4
- 999 chi-squared random variables, with 11 degrees of freedom
- 2000 uniform random variables, between  $-\sqrt{12}/2$  and  $\sqrt{12}/2$

Repeat the above. This is just to emphasize the (obvious!) point: each time you generate random numbers in R, you get different results.

# Simulating from Probability Distributions

How do we simulate from a probability distribution?

## There are many ways...

- **Common Distributions**: Use built-in R functions (normal, gamma, Poisson, binomial, etc..).
- Uncommon Distributions: Need to use simulation.
  - Discrete random variables: Often can use sample().
  - Continuous random variables: Can use inverse transform method and the acceptance-rejection method otherwise. Today we briefly discuss the acceptance-rejection method.

We use of the sample() function to sample from

- 1. The discrete uniform distribution.
- 2. Uncommon discrete distributions (by specifying the probabilities)

Form: sample(x, size, replace = FALSE, prob = NULL)

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- 1. The discrete uniform distribution.
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Form: sample(x, size, replace = FALSE, prob = NULL)

### Recall,

We used the sample function in the **bootstrap** procedure.

We'd like to generate rvs from the following discrete distribution:

X	1	2	3
f(x)	0.1	0.2	0.7

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X	1	2	3
f(x)	0.1	0.2	0.7

```
> n <- 1000; p <- c(0.1, 0.2, 0.7)
> x <- sample(1:3, size = n, prob = p, replace = TRUE)
> head(x, 10)
```

[1] 3 3 3 3 3 3 2 2 3 3

```
1 2 3
p 0.100 0.200 0.700
p.hat 0.094 0.201 0.705
```

#### **Tasks**

- Use sample() to simulate 100 fair die rolls.
- Use runif() to simulate 100 fair die rolls. You may also want to use something like round().

#### Solution

```
> n <- 100
> rolls <- sample(1:6, n, replace = TRUE)
> table(rolls)
```

```
rolls
1 2 3 4 5 6
21 12 22 15 16 14
```

> rolls <- floor(runif(n, min = 0, max = 6))
> table(rolls)

```
rolls

0 1 2 3 4 5

21 12 7 15 18 27
```

## Simulating from Probability Distributions

How do we simulate from a probability distribution?

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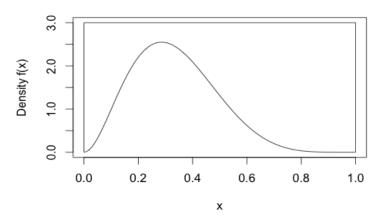
- **Common Distributions**: Use built-in R functions (normal, gamma, Poisson, binomial, etc..).
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### Sample from a Not-Common Distribution?

- How do we sample from a not-common distribution?
- E.g., not normal, not binomial, not gamma, etc..
- Suppose we do have the pdf f(x).
- Rejection sampling obtains draws exactly from the target distribution.
- How? By sampling candidates from an easier distribution then correcting the sampling probability by randomly rejecting some candidates.

Suppose the pdf f is zero outside an interval [c, d], and  $\leq M$  on the interval.

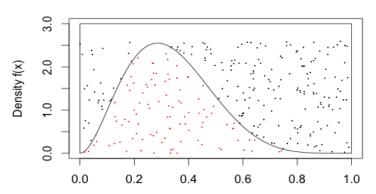
#### A Sample Distribution



We can draw from uniform distributions in any dimension. Do it in two:

```
> x1 <- runif(300, 0, 1); y1 <- runif(300, 0, 2.6)
> selected <- y1 < dbeta(x1, 3, 6)
```

#### A Sample Distribution



> mean(selected)

[1] 0.3366667

> accepted.points <- x1[selected]</pre>

```
> mean(selected)
```

```
[1] 0.3366667
```

```
> accepted.points <- x1[selected]</pre>
```

- > # Proportion of sample points less than 0.5.
- > mean(accepted.points < 0.5)</pre>

```
[1] 0.8118812
```

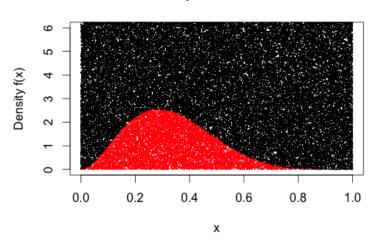
- > # The true distribution.
- > pbeta(0.5, 3, 6)

[1] 0.8554688

For this to work efficiently, we have to cover the target distribution with one that sits close to it.

```
[1] 0.1006
```

### A Sample Distribution



## Formally,

- We'd like to sample from a pdf, f.
- Suppose we know how to sample from a pdf g and we can easily calculate g(x).
- Let  $e(\cdot)$  denote an *envelope*, with the property

$$e(x) = g(x)/\alpha \ge f(x),$$

for all x for which f(x) > 0 for a given constant  $0 < \alpha \le 1$ .

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• Sample  $Y \sim g$  and  $U \sim Unif(0,1)$  and if U < f(Y)/e(Y), accept Y, otherwise reject it.

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#### Note

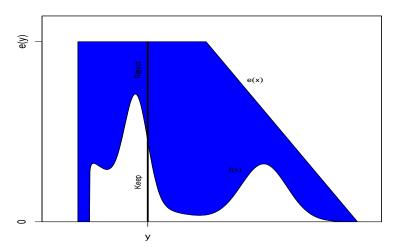
- ullet lpha is the expected proportion of candidates that are accepted.
- Draws accepted are iid from the target density f.

First, find a suitable density g and envelope e. Then the algorithm proceeds as follows:

- 1. Sample  $Y \sim g$ .
- 2. Sample  $U \sim \text{Unif}(0,1)$ .
- 3. If U < f(Y)/e(Y), accept Y. Set X = Y and consider X to be an element of the target random sample. Equivalent to sampling  $U|y \sim U(0, e(y))$  and keeping the value if U < f(y).
- 4. Repeat from step 1 until you have generated your desired sample size.

# Illustration of Acceptance-Rejection Sampling

Illustration of acceptance-rejection sampling for a target distribution, f, using a rejection sampling envelope e.



# Envelope

### Good envelopes have the following properties:

- 1. Envelope exceeds the target everywhere e(x) > f(x) for all x.
- 2. Easy to sample from g.
- 3. Generate few rejected draws.

## A simple approach to finding the envelope:

Determine  $\max_x \{f(x)\}$ , then use a uniform distribution as g, and  $\alpha = 1/\max_x \{f(x)\}$ .

## Example: Beta distribution

## Beta(4,3) distribution

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- We'll take g to be the uniform distribution on [0,1]. Then, g(x)=1.
- Let  $f.max = max_{x \in [0,1]} f(x)$ , then we form envelope with  $\alpha = 1/f.max$ ,

$$e(x) = g(x)/\alpha = f.max \ge f(x).$$

# Example: Beta pdf and envelope

#### Solution Part I

```
> f <- function(x) {
+   return(ifelse((x < 0 | x > 1), 0, 60*x^3*(1-x)^2))
+ }
> x <- seq(0, 1, length = 100)
> plot(x, f(x), type="l", ylab="f(x)")
```

$$f'(x) = 180x^2(1-x)^2 - 120x^3(1-x) = 0 \rightarrow x = 0.6.$$

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  $\rightarrow$   $x = 0.6.$ 

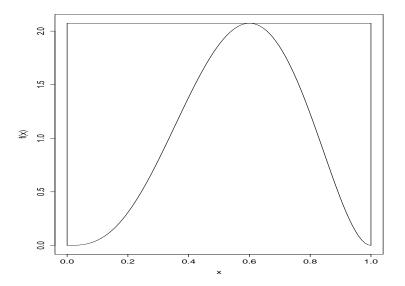
```
> xmax <- 0.6
> f.max <- 60*xmax^3*(1-xmax)^2
```

# Example: Beta pdf and envelope

#### Solution Part I

```
> e <- function(x) {
+   return(ifelse((x < 0 | x > 1), Inf, f.max))
+ }
> lines(c(0, 0), c(0, e(0)), lty = 1)
> lines(c(1, 1), c(0, e(1)), lty = 1)
> lines(x, e(x), lty = 1)
```

# Example: Beta pdf and Envelope



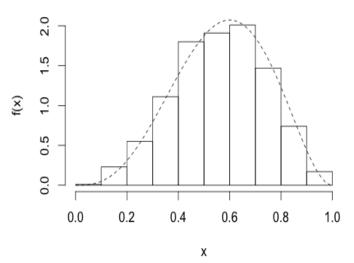
# Example: Accept-Reject Algorithm for Beta distribution

#### Solution Part II

```
> n.samps <- 1000 # number of samples desired
> n <- 0
                                 # counter for number samples acc
> samps <- numeric(n.samps) # initialize the vector of output</pre>
> while (n < n.samps) {</pre>
+ y <- runif(1) #random draw from g
+ u <- runif(1)
+ if (u < f(y)/e(y)) {
+ n <-n+1
+ samps[n] <- y
+ }
+ }
> x < - seq(0, 1, length = 100)
> hist(samps, prob = T, ylab = "f(x)", xlab = "x",
         main = "Histogram of draws from Beta(4,3)")
> lines(x, dbeta(x, 4, 3), lty = 2)
```

# Example: Accept-Reject Algorithm for Beta distribution

# Histogram of draws from Beta(4,3)



#### **Tasks**

Draw the following random variables. In each case calculate their sample mean, sample variance, and range (max minus min). Are the sample statistics (mean, variance, range) what you'd expect?

- 5000 normal random variables, with mean 1 and variance 8
- 4000 t random variables, with 5 degrees of freedom
- 3500 Poisson random variables, with mean 4
- 999 chi-squared random variables, with 11 degrees of freedom
- 2000 uniform random variables, between  $-\sqrt{12}/2$  and  $\sqrt{12}/2$

Repeat the above. This is just to emphasize the (obvious!) point: each time you generate random numbers in R, you get different results.