

Master Degree in Statistics for Data Science  
2024-2025

*Resampling and Simulation*

## Worksheet 2

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## EXERCISE 1

The time  $T$ , measured in days, during which a manufacturing system remains non-operational each time it breaks down, is described by a cumulative distribution function (cdf) given by:

$$F_T(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - \left(\frac{2}{t}\right)^3 & \text{if } t > 2 \\ 0 & \text{if } t \leq 2 \end{cases}$$

Apply the inverse transform method and write a function that simulates samples from the above cdf.

Given the previous CDF, we are asked to simulate samples using the inverse transform method. The inverse transform method involves finding the inverse of the CDF. To simulate samples, we can use the following steps:

1. Set  $U \sim U(0, 1)$ , a uniform random variable.
2. Solve for  $t$  in terms of  $U$  using the inverse of the CDF.

### Inverse CDF:

We can start with:

$$U = 1 - \left(\frac{2}{t}\right)^3,$$

Rearranging for  $t$ :

$$t = \frac{2}{(1 - U)^{(1/3)}}.$$

Now, we are in disposition for writing a function in R that simulates samples based on the given CDF.

## R

CODE 1. Simulating samples from the CDF using the inverse transform method

```
1 # Function to simulate samples from the CDF using the inverse
  transform method
2 simulate_T <- function(n) {
3   # Generate uniform random variables
4   U <- runif(n)
5   # Apply the inverse CDF
6   T_samples <- 2 / (1 - U)^(1 / 3)
7   return(T_samples)
```

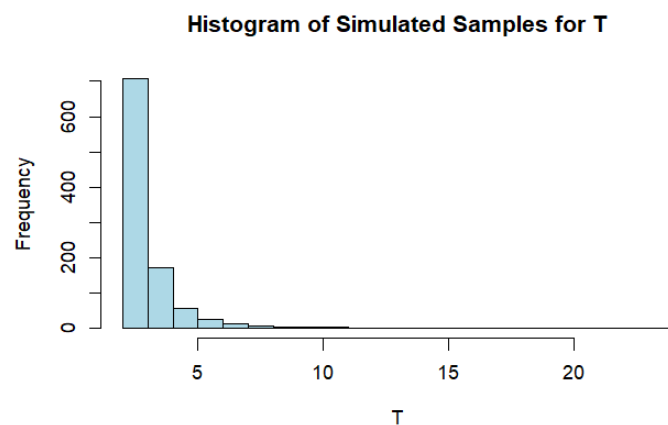
```

8 }
9
10 # Test the function by generating 1000 samples
11 set.seed(123)
12 samples_T <- simulate_T(1000)
13 hist(samples_T, breaks = 30, main = "Histogram of Simulated Samples
    for T", xlab = "T", col = "lightblue")

```

**Figure 1**

*Histogram of Simulated Samples for T*



R Outcome

```

## First 10 simulated samples
[1] 3.285212 2.151949 7.139156 2.155628 2.322301 3.144130 7.218222
2.516681 2.008957 2.211103

```

## Rcpp

We can do this exercise with Rcpp too, that it is useful in a lot of circumstances when R is slow (e.g. loops), Rcpp is the package that allows us to integrate C++ inside of R.

CODE 2. Simulating samples from the CDF using the inverse transform method

```

1 #include <Rcpp.h>
2 using namespace Rcpp;
3
4 // [[Rcpp::export]]
5 NumericVector simulate_T_rcpp(int n) {
6   NumericVector samples(n);
7   for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {
8     // Generate a random number U ~ U(0, 1)
9     double U = R::runif(0, 1);
10    // Apply the inverse of CDF

```

```

11     samples[i] = 2 / pow(1 - U, 1.0/3.0);
12   }
13   return samples;
14 }
15
16 // Use the function to simulate 1000 samples from the CDF using Rcpp
17 library(Rcpp)
18 sourceCpp("Exercisel_Worksheet2.cpp")
19 set.seed(123)
20 samples_T <- simulate_T_rcpp(1000)
21 hist(samples_T, breaks = 30, main = "Histogram of Simulated Samples
    for T", xlab = "T", col = "lightblue")

```

## First 10 simulated samples

```

[1] 3.285212 2.151949 7.139156 2.155628 2.322301 3.144130 7.218222
2.516681 2.008957 2.211103

```

We obtain the same samples as expected, because we are using a random seed for reproducibility. And now, we can finally compare the performance in terms of computational cost between R and C++ (Rcpp). To perform this comparison we apply the library `microbenchmark` as follows:

### Comparing the performance R vs. Rcpp:

CODE 3. Comparing the speed of the 2 functions

```

1 library(microbenchmark)
2 Comparison1 <- microbenchmark(simulate_T(1000), simulate_T_rcpp
    (1000), times = 1000)
3 print(Comparison1)

```

Unit: microseconds

	expr	min	lq	mean	median	uq	max	neval
	<code>simulate_T(1000)</code>	105.0	107.5	116.9555	109.2	111.5	2942.9	1000
	<code>simulate_T_rcpp(1000)</code>	77.8	79.8	85.0483	81.0	82.5	564.5	1000

Looking to the previous output, we can observe the remarkable difference in the speed between the two different ways of solving this exercise. Continuing with this exercise, we have improve it with a possible code to do the same but in Python:

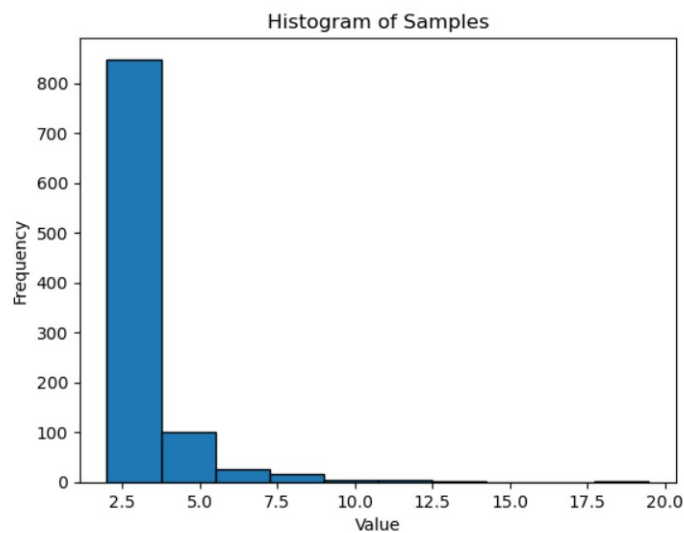
## Python

CODE 4. Proposal for exercise 1 in Python

```
1 import numpy as np
2 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
3
4 np.random.seed(123)
5
6 # sample from inverse
7 def sample_from_cdf(n=1):
8     U = np.random.uniform(0, 1, n)
9     T = 2 * (1 - U) ** (-1/3)
10    return T
11
12 # generate & plot samples
13 samples = sample_from_cdf(1000)
14
15 plt.hist(samples, edgecolor='black')
16 plt.title('Histogram of Samples')
17 plt.xlabel('Value')
18 plt.ylabel('Frequency')
19 plt.show()
```

**Figure 2**

*Histogram of Simulated Samples for  $T$*



Python Outcome

And we can observe how the histogram of samples performed in Python is basically the same as the histogram of samples from R.

## EXERCISE 2

A random variable  $T$  follows a Pareto distribution with scale parameter equal to 2 and shape parameter equal to 3. We can use its density function as an instrumental density function to simulate samples from another Pareto model whose tail is not as heavy. Consider now a random variable  $S$  (Pareto with scale parameter 2 and shape parameter 4) with cdf

$$F_S(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - \left(\frac{2}{t}\right)^4 & \text{if } t > 2 \\ 0 & \text{if } t \leq 2 \end{cases}$$

(a) Determine  $M$  such that  $f_S(t) \leq M f_T(t)$ , where  $f_S$  and  $f_T$  are the density functions of  $S$  and  $T$ .

We are given two Pareto distributions:

- A random variable  $T$  with the CDF  $F_T(t) = 1 - \left(\frac{2}{t}\right)^3$  for  $t > 2$ .
- A random variable  $S$  with the CDF  $F_S(t) = 1 - \left(\frac{2}{t}\right)^4$  for  $t > 2$ .

The density functions for  $S$  and  $T$  are the derivatives of their respective CDFs:

$$f_T(t) = \frac{6}{t^4}, \text{ for } t > 2,$$

$$f_S(t) = \frac{8}{t^5}, \text{ for } t > 2,$$

We want to find  $M$  such that:

$$\frac{8}{t^5} \leq M \leq \frac{6}{t^4},$$

Simplifying this inequality:

$$\frac{8}{6} \leq Mt$$

$$M \geq \frac{4}{3} \text{ for all } t > 2,$$

Thus,  $M = \frac{4}{3}$  works.

(b) Write an acceptance-rejection algorithm to simulate from  $F_S$ .

Our proposal for the acceptance-rejection algorithm to simulate from  $F_S$  is the following:

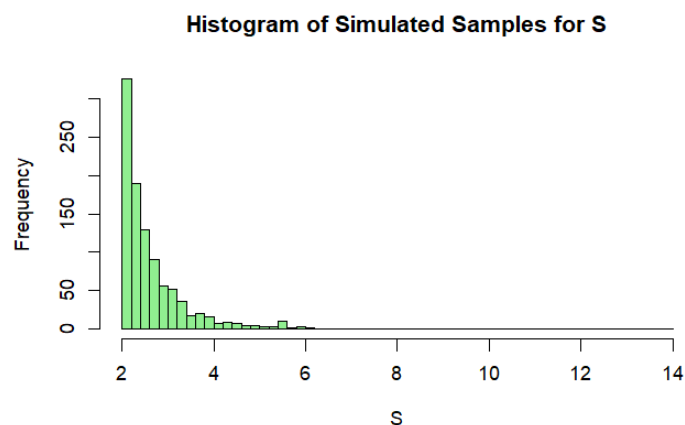
## R

CODE 5. Acceptance-Rejection algorithm to simulate from  $F_S$

```
1
2 # Function for acceptance-rejection sampling
3 simulate_S <- function(n) {
4   samples_S <- numeric(n)
5   i <- 1
6   while (i <= n) {
7     # Propose a sample from T using its PDF
8     T_candidate <- 2 / (1 - runif(1))^(1/3)
9     # Generate a uniform random number for acceptance
10    U <- runif(1)
11
12    # Accept with probability proportional to the ratio of densities
13    if (U <= (8/6) * (T_candidate^(-5)) / (T_candidate^(-4))) {
14      samples_S[i] <- T_candidate
15      i <- i + 1
16    }
17  }
18  return(samples_S)
19 }
20
21 # Generate samples and check the first 10
22 set.seed(123)
23 samples_S <- simulate_S(10000)
24 hist(samples_S, breaks = 50, main = "Histogram of Simulated Samples
    for S", xlab = "S", col = "lightgreen")
```

**Figure 3**

*Histogram of Simulated Samples for S*



R Outcome

As before, we can solve this statement in other languages as Python, and this is what



we are going to do:

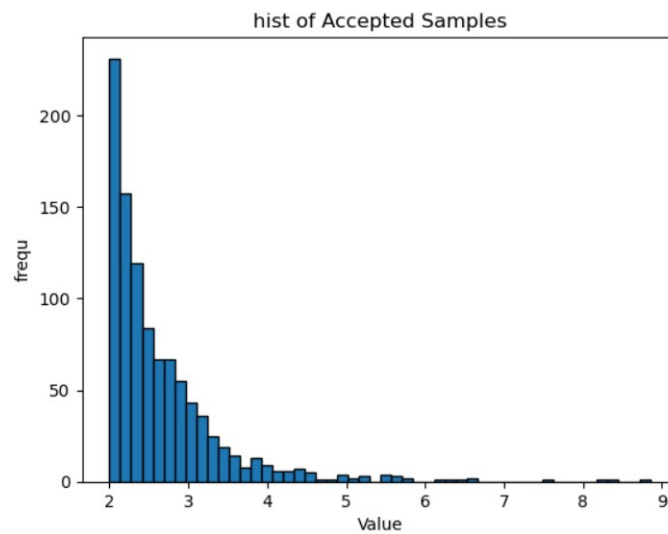
CODE 6. Acceptance-Rejection algorithm to simulate from  $F_S$  in Python

```
1 import numpy as np
2 import scipy.stats as stats
3
4 # Sample generation algo
5 def sample_pareto_s(n):
6
7     # params
8     x_m = 2
9     alpha_T = 3
10    alpha_S = 4
11    M = 4/3
12
13    samples = []
14    samples_rejected = []
15    while len(samples) < n:
16        T = (np.random.pareto(alpha_T, 1) + 1) * x_m # sample
17        U = np.random.uniform(0, 1)
18
19        # acceptance ratio
20        acceptance_ratio = (8 / T**5) / (M * (6 / T**4))
21
22        if U <= acceptance_ratio:
23            samples.append(T[0])
24        else:
25            samples_rejected.append(T[0])
26    return np.array(samples), np.array(samples_rejected)
27
28 # run Monte Carlo
29 MC = 1000
30 samples, samples_rejected = sample_pareto_s(MC)
31
32 plt.hist(samples, bins=50, edgecolor='black')
33 plt.title('hist of Accepted Samples')
34 plt.xlabel('Value')
35 plt.ylabel('frequ')
```

And the output is the following histogram:

**Figure 4**

*Histogram of Simulated Samples for  $S$*



Python Outcome

With this histogram in python we have finished this statement.

**(c) Use your simulation algorithm to check that  $E[S] = 8/3 = 2.6667$ . Show a 99% confidence interval algorithm based on MC = 10000 observations.**

To check the expectation  $E[S] = 8/3$ , we can compute the sample mean of the generated values.

**R**

CODE 7. Checking the expectation is equal to  $8/3$

```
1 # Compute the sample mean
2 mean_S <- mean(samples_S)
3 mean_S # Should be close to  $8/3 = 2.6667$ 
```

The mean of  $S$  is: 2.674881

The result is very near to the theoretical value. Now, we can also compute a 99% confidence interval using the standard error.

CODE 8. Computing the 99% confidence interval

```
1 # 99% Confidence interval
2 stderr_S <- sd(samples_S) / sqrt(length(samples_S))
```

```

3 ci_lower <- mean_S - 2.576 * stderr_S
4 ci_upper <- mean_S + 2.576 * stderr_S
5 c(ci_lower, ci_upper) # 99% confidence interval

```

```
[1] 2.601231 2.748532
```

This is the final result for the exercise 2. The confidence interval is narrow, so we have done a good job estimating the expectation of  $S$ .

We are going to propose a solution for this exercise in Rcpp:

## Rcpp

CODE 9. Proposal in Rcpp for exercise 2

```

1 #include <Rcpp.h>
2 using namespace Rcpp;
3
4 // [[Rcpp::export]]
5 NumericVector simulate_S_rcpp(int n) {
6   NumericVector samples(n);
7   int i = 0;
8   while (i < n) {
9     // Propose a sample from T using the inverse CDF
10    double T_candidate = 2 / pow(1 - R::runif(0, 1), 1.0/3.0);
11
12    // Generate a random number U ~ U(0, 1)
13    double U = R::runif(0, 1);
14
15    // Accept with proportional probability to the ratio of the
16    // density functions
17    if (U <= (8.0 / 6.0) * pow(T_candidate, -5.0) / pow(T_candidate,
18      -4.0)) {
19      samples[i] = T_candidate;
20      ++i;
21    }
22  }
23  return samples;
24 }
25
26 // Use the function to simulate 1000 samples from the CDF using Rcpp
27 library(Rcpp)
28 sourceCpp("Exercise2_Worksheet2.cpp")
29 set.seed(666)
30 samples_S_rcpp <- simulate_S(1000)
31 hist(samples_S_rcpp, breaks = 50, main = "Histogram of Simulated
32   Samples for S", xlab = "S", col = "lightgreen")

```

```

31 // Compute the sample mean
32 mean_S_rcpp <- mean(samples_S_rcpp)
33 print(mean_S_rcpp) # Should be close to 8/3 = 2.6667
34
35 // 99% Confidence interval
36 stderr_S_rcpp <- sd(samples_S_rcpp) / sqrt(length(samples_S_rcpp))
37 ci_lower_rcpp <- mean_S_rcpp - 2.576 * stderr_S_rcpp
38 ci_upper_rcpp <- mean_S_rcpp + 2.576 * stderr_S_rcpp
39 c(ci_lower_rcpp, ci_upper_rcpp) # 99% confidence interval

```

The mean of S is: 2.674881  
 [1] 2.601231 2.748532

We obtain the same result as before, now we can compare again the performance between R and C++, we apply the microbenchmark library.

## Comparing performances R vs. Rcpp

CODE 10. Comparing the speed of the 2 functions

```

1 library(microbenchmark)
2 ## Compare the results of the two methods
3 Comparison2 <- microbenchmark(simulate_S(1000), simulate_S_rcpp
4                               (1000), times = 1000)
5 print(Comparison2)

```

Unit: microseconds

	expr	min	lq	mean	median	uq	max
	simulate_S	2403.4	2714.65	3379.7160	2870.5	3127.95	28825.0
	simulate_S_rcpp	220.8	236.50	282.0873	245.7	263.75	1210.4

From the previous output, we can observe how the difference in the speed between R and C++ in microseconds is huge, with C++ obtaining an outstanding performance.

Just as another option, the result for this statement in Python is the following:

CODE 11. Proposal in Python for exercise 2c

```

1 # Exp of S
2 E_S = np.mean(samples)
3 print(f"E[S]: {E_S:.4f}")
4
5 # CI 99% of S
6 std_dev = np.std(samples, ddof=1)
7 z_alpha = 2.576 # z for 99% CI

```

```

8 CI_lower = E_S - z_alpha * (std_dev / np.sqrt(MC))
9 CI_upper = E_S + z_alpha * (std_dev / np.sqrt(MC))
10
11 print(f"99% Confidence Interval: ({CI_lower:.4f}, {CI_upper:.4f})")
12
13 # plot
14 plt.hist(samples, bins=50, edgecolor='black')
15 plt.axvline(CI_lower, color='red', linestyle='--', label='99% CI')
16 plt.axvline(CI_upper, color='red', linestyle='--')
17 plt.axvline(E_S, color='black', linestyle='-', label='E[S]')
18 plt.title('hist of Accepted Samples')
19 plt.xlabel('Value')
20 plt.ylabel('frequ')
21 plt.xlim(2, 8)
22 plt.legend()

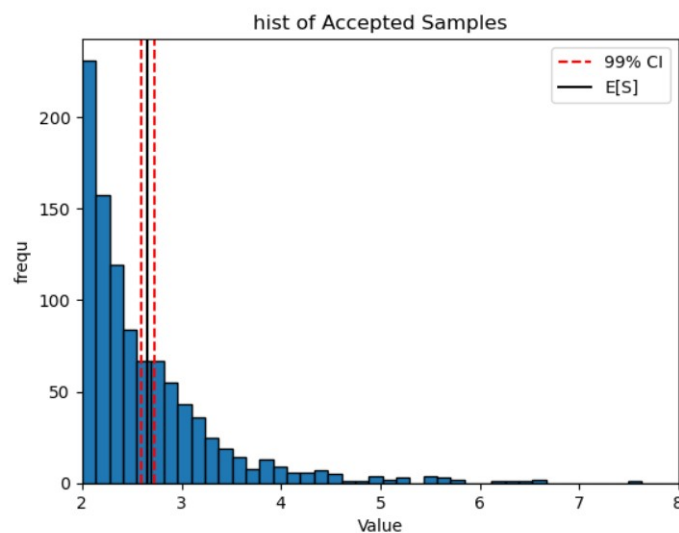
```

E[S]: 2.6598

99% Confidence Interval: (2.5953, 2.7243)

**Figure 5**

*Histogram of Simulated Samples for S with 99% Confidence Interval*



Python Outcome

We obtain very similar results, but they are not equal (R vs Python), as we know from exercises in class or as we could see from the first task.

### EXERCISE 3

A random variable  $X$  follows a truncated normal distribution within the interval  $[a, b]$  characterized by the parameters  $\mu$  (mean) and  $\sigma$  (standard deviation). Thus,  $X$  can be denoted as  $TN(\mu, \sigma, a, b)$  if its probability density function  $f_X(x)$  is defined as:

$$f_X(x) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma} \phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}{\Phi\left(\frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}$$

where  $a \leq x \leq b$  holds and  $\phi(\cdot)$  represents the normal density function, while  $\Phi(\cdot)$  represents the cumulative distribution function (cdf) of a standard normal distribution. To simulate observations from a truncated normal random variable  $TN(0,1;-1,1)$ , write functions utilizing:

(a) Rejection sampling algorithm with the density function of a standard normal distribution as a candidate function.

For the truncated normal distribution  $TN(\mu, \sigma, a, b)$ , we are asked to simulate samples using different methods.

We use the standard normal distribution as a candidate function for rejection sampling. The algorithm is as follows:

- Propose a sample from the normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma)$ .
- Reject samples outside the range  $[a, b]$ .
- Accept the sample if it lies within  $[a, b]$ .

**R**

CODE 12. Function for rejection sampling with normal distribution as candidate

```
1 # Function for rejection sampling with normal distribution as
  candidate
2 simulate_truncated_normal_normal <- function(n, mu, sigma, a, b) {
3   samples <- numeric(n)
4   i <- 1
5   while (i <= n) {
6     # Propose a sample from normal distribution
7     candidate <- rnorm(1, mu, sigma)
8     # Reject if the candidate is outside [a, b]
9     if (candidate >= a && candidate <= b) {
10      samples[i] <- candidate
```

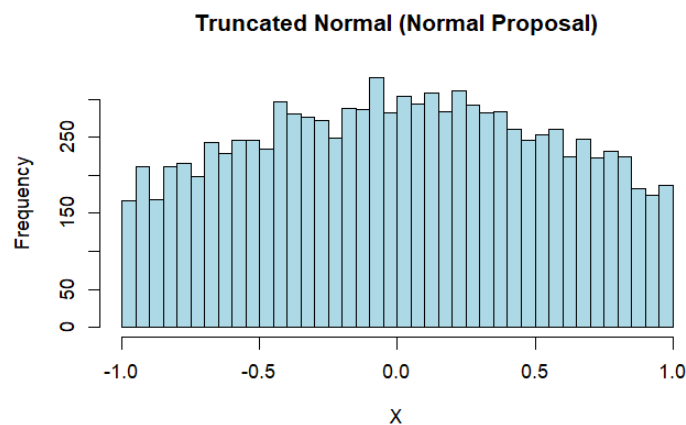
```

11     i <- i + 1
12   }
13 }
14 return(samples)
15 }
16
17 # Simulate from TN(0, 1; -1, 1)
18 set.seed(666)
19 samples_trunc_normal <- simulate_truncated_normal_normal(10000, 0,
20   1, -1, 1)
21 hist(samples_trunc_normal, breaks = 50, main = "Truncated Normal (
  Normal Proposal)", xlab = "X", col = "lightblue")

```

**Figure 6**

*Truncated Normal (Normal Proposal)*



R Outcome

As can be seen, the histogram is between -1 and 1, as we were requested and the form is as expected a gaussian bell.

**(b) A rejection sampling algorithm with the density function of a uniform distribution  $U(-1, 1)$  as the candidate function.**

We can use a uniform distribution as the proposal distribution. The process is similar, but now we generate uniform samples instead of normal ones.

**R**

CODE 13. Function for rejection sampling with uniform distribution as candidate

```

1 # Function for rejection sampling with normal distribution as
  candidate

```

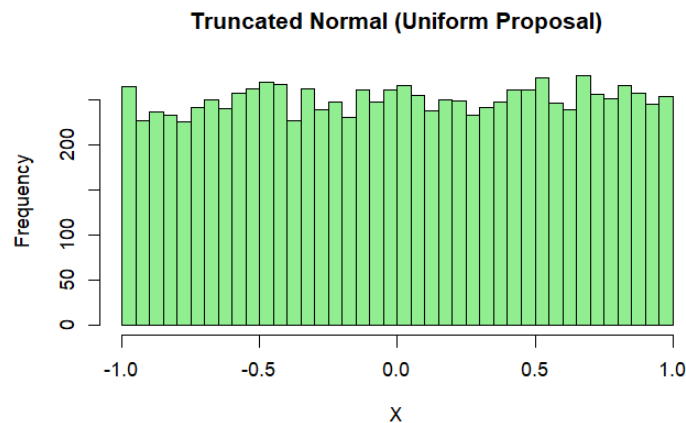
```

2 simulate_truncated_normal_normal <- function(n, mu, sigma, a, b) {
3   samples <- numeric(n)
4   i <- 1
5   while (i <= n) {
6     # Propose a sample from normal distribution
7     candidate <- rnorm(1, mu, sigma)
8     # Reject if the candidate is outside [a, b]
9     if (candidate >= a && candidate <= b) {
10      samples[i] <- candidate
11      i <- i + 1
12    }
13  }
14  return(samples)
15 }
16
17 # Simulate from TN(0, 1; -1, 1)
18 set.seed(666)
19 samples_trunc_normal <- simulate_truncated_normal_normal(10000, 0,
20   1, -1, 1)
21 hist(samples_trunc_normal, breaks = 50, main = "Truncated Normal (
22   Normal Proposal)", xlab = "X", col = "lightblue")
23
24 # Function for rejection sampling with uniform distribution as
25   candidate
26 simulate_truncated_normal_uniform <- function(n, mu, sigma, a, b) {
27   samples <- numeric(n)
28   i <- 1
29   while (i <= n) {
30     # Propose a sample from uniform distribution
31     candidate <- runif(1, a, b)
32     # Accept the candidate
33     samples[i] <- candidate
34     i <- i + 1
35   }
36   return(samples)
37 }
38
39 # Simulate from TN(0, 1; -1, 1)
40 set.seed(666)
41 samples_trunc_normal_uniform <- simulate_truncated_normal_uniform
42   (10000, 0, 1, -1, 1)
43 hist(samples_trunc_normal_uniform, breaks = 50, main = "Truncated
44   Normal (Uniform Proposal)", xlab = "X", col = "lightgreen")

```



**Figure 7**  
*Truncated Normal (Uniform Proposal)*



R Outcome

As can be observed, we obtained a uniform distribution in the interval  $[-1,1]$ .

### (c) An inverse transform technique.

For the inverse transform method, we generate a random number  $(U(0,1))$  and apply the inverse of the truncated CDF.

**R**

CODE 14. Function to generate truncated normal samples using the inverse transform method

```

1
2  # Function to generate truncated normal samples using the inverse
   transform method
3  truncated_normal_inverse_transform <- function(n) {
4    # Compute the CDF values at the truncation points
5    Fa <- pnorm(-1, mean = 0, sd = 1) # CDF at a = -1
6    Fb <- pnorm(1, mean = 0, sd = 1)  # CDF at b = 1
7
8    # Generate uniform samples
9    U <- runif(n, Fa, Fb)
10
11   # Apply the inverse normal CDF (qnorm) to transform the samples
12   samples <- qnorm(U, mean = 0, sd = 1)
13
14   return(samples)
15 }
16
17 # Example usage: Generate 10,000 samples

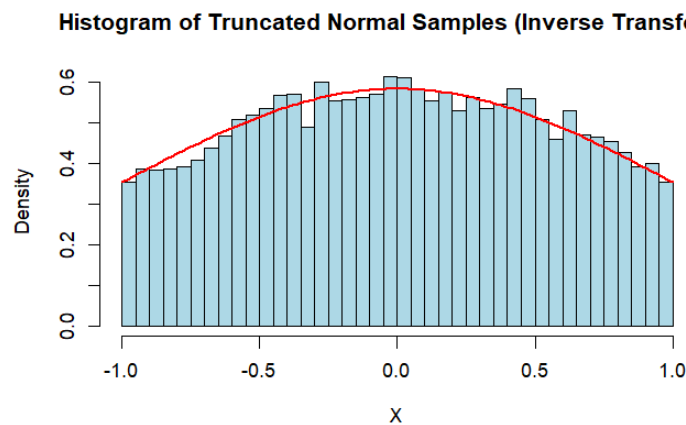
```

```

18 set.seed(666)
19 samples <- truncated_normal_inverse_transform(10000)
20
21 # Plot the histogram
22 hist(samples, breaks = 50, probability = TRUE, col = "lightblue",
23       main = "Histogram of Truncated Normal Samples (Inverse
24             Transform)",
25       xlab = "X")
26
27 # Overlay the true density of TN(0,1; -1,1)
28 curve(dnorm(x, 0, 1) / (pnorm(1, 0, 1) - pnorm(-1, 0, 1)),
29       from = -1, to = 1, col = "red", lwd = 2, add = TRUE)

```

**Figure 8**  
*Truncated Normal (Inverse Transform)*



R Outcome

Now, we are going to replicate the exercise 3 in Rcpp and finally, we will finish this task comparing the performance of the algorithms as before with `microbenchmark`.

## Rcpp

CODE 15. Exercise 3 in Rcpp

```

1 // Simulation of TN(0,1; -1,1) using rejection with standard normal
2 #include <Rcpp.h>
3 using namespace Rcpp;
4
5 // [[Rcpp::export]]
6 NumericVector truncated_normal_rejection_normal_RCPP(int n) {
7   NumericVector samples(n);
8   int i = 0;
9   while (i < n) {

```

```

10     double candidate = R::rnorm(0, 1); // Proposal from N(0,1)
11     if (candidate >= -1 && candidate <= 1) { // Accept if within the
12         interval
13         samples[i] = candidate;
14         i++;
15     }
16     return samples;
17 }
18
19 // Simulation of TN(0,1; -1,1) using rejection with uniform
20 // distribution
21 #include <Rcpp.h>
22 using namespace Rcpp;
23
24 // [[Rcpp::export]]
25 NumericVector truncated_normal_rejection_uniform_RCPP(int n) {
26     NumericVector samples(n);
27     int i = 0;
28     while (i < n) {
29         double candidate = R::runif(-1, 1); // Proposal U(-1,1)
30         double accept_prob = R::dnorm(candidate, 0, 1, false) / 0.5; //
31         // Acceptance probability
32         if (R::runif(0, 1) < accept_prob) {
33             samples[i] = candidate;
34             i++;
35         }
36     }
37     return samples;
38 }
39
40 // Simulation of TN(0,1; -1,1) using inverse transform
41 #include <Rcpp.h>
42 using namespace Rcpp;
43
44 // [[Rcpp::export]]
45 NumericVector truncated_normal_inverse_transform_RCPP(int n) {
46     NumericVector samples(n);
47     double Fa = R::pnorm(-1, 0, 1, true, false);
48     double Fb = R::pnorm(1, 0, 1, true, false);
49     int i = 0;
50     while (i < n) {
51         double U = R::runif(0, 1);
52         samples[i] = R::qnorm(Fa + U * (Fb - Fa), 0, 1, true, false);
53         i++;
54     }
55     return samples;
56 }

```

## Comparison between R and Rcpp

CODE 16. Comparison of algorithms

```
1 library(Rcpp)
2 sourceCpp("Exercise3a_Worksheet2.cpp")
3 sourceCpp("Exercise3b_Worksheet2.cpp")
4 sourceCpp("Exercise3c_Worksheet2.cpp")
5 n <- 10000
6 set.seed(666)
7 samples_normal <- truncated_normal_rejection_normal_RCPP(n)
8 samples_uniform <- truncated_normal_rejection_uniform_RCPP(n)
9 samples_inverse <- truncated_normal_inverse_transform_RCPP(n)
10
11 library(microbenchmark)
12 Comparison3 <- microbenchmark(simulate_truncated_normal_normal
13                               (10000, 0, 1, -1, 1),
14                               simulate_truncated_normal_uniform
15                               (10000, 0, 1, -1, 1),
16                               truncated_normal_inverse_transform
17                               (10000),
18                               truncated_normal_rejection_normal_RCPP
19                               (10000),
20                               truncated_normal_rejection_uniform_RCPP
21                               (10000),
22                               truncated_normal_inverse_transform_RCPP
23                               (10000),
24                               times = 1000)
25
26 print(Comparison3)
```

Unit: microseconds

expr	min	lq	mean	median	uq	max
normal_R	9922.2	11067.70	11707.3875	11349.05	11683.50	49820.7
uniform_R	6325.2	6933.55	7536.7495	7134.15	7394.80	110039.6
inverse_R	277.9	300.00	324.0749	313.70	327.45	2533.5
normal_Rcpp	492.9	530.55	552.0135	544.90	561.65	1117.1
uniform_Rcpp	1011.4	1077.40	1118.2521	1108.40	1134.90	2550.1
inverse_RCPP	182.9	196.95	209.2799	203.00	214.75	1008.9

## Performance Analysis

The benchmark results indicate that the Rcpp implementations significantly improve performance. The inverse transform method in Rcpp is the fastest, with a mean execution time of only 209.3 microseconds. The rejection sampling methods using normal and uniform distributions are slower, especially in pure R implementations. The standard normal

rejection method in R takes the longest time due to a lower acceptance rate. Therefore, for efficiency, the inverse transform method in Rcpp is recommended.

## FINAL CONCLUSION

In this work, we explored different methods for simulating random variables with specific probability distributions. Using the inverse transform method, we generated samples from a given cumulative distribution function, demonstrating a fundamental technique in stochastic simulation. We also implemented an acceptance-rejection algorithm to simulate from a modified Pareto distribution, carefully selecting an instrumental density function to ensure efficiency. Finally, we examined the truncated normal distribution, implementing three different simulation approaches—rejection sampling with normal and uniform proposals, and the inverse transform method—allowing for a comparative analysis of their computational efficiency.

Our results show that the choice of simulation method significantly impacts computational performance. While the inverse transform method is often straightforward and efficient, rejection sampling can become computationally expensive depending on the acceptance rate. The use of Rcpp further enhanced efficiency, particularly in rejection sampling scenarios. These findings highlight the importance of selecting appropriate simulation techniques based on the characteristics of the target distribution and available computational resources.