## YSC4204: STATISTICAL COMPUTING PROBLEM SET 2

EAST: SEAN SAITO, JOHN REID, HRISHI OLICKEL, CHONG WOON HAN

(1) The C code to implement meanC() is as follows:

We call this function in R using the following R Code:

```
# Automatically sets working directory to source file location
this.dir <- dirname(parent.frame(2)$ofile)
setwd(this.dir)

# Problem 1 - Writing a mean function in C to be used in R
meanR <- function(x) {
    # Placeholder for result
    res = 0.0
    n = length(x)

    dyn.load("mean.so")
    m = .C("meanC", x=as.double(x), n=n, res=res)
    return(m$res)
}</pre>
```

(2) (a) With reference to Figure 2, let the red line (the "radius") be  $y_1$  and let the blue line (the chord) be  $y_2$ .

We need to find the point  $(p_1, q_1)$ . To do so, we will first find the lines  $y_1$  and  $y_2$ , then "step" from  $(p_0, q_0)$  to  $(p_1, q_1)$  by adding the distance from  $(p_0, q_0)$  to the midpoint.

$$y_1 = \frac{q}{2p}x. \quad \text{(Since } y_1 \text{ bisects the perpendicular from } (p_0, q_0) \text{ to the } x\text{-axis)}$$

$$y_2 = \frac{-2p}{q}x + c. \quad \text{Substitute in } (p, q)$$

$$q = \frac{-2p}{q} \cdot p + c.$$

$$q^2 = -2p^2 + qc.$$

$$c = \frac{q^2 + 2p^2}{q}.$$

$$\Rightarrow y_2 = \frac{-2p}{q}x + \frac{q^2 + 2p^2}{q}.$$

Date: September 4, 2016.

We need to find the intersection of  $y_1$  and  $y_2$ , so we set  $y_1 = y_2$ .

$$\begin{split} \frac{qx}{2p} &= \frac{-2px}{q} + \frac{q^2 + 2p^2}{q}, \\ q^2x + 4p^2x &= 2pq^2 + 4p^3, \\ x(q^2 + 4p^2) &= 2pq^2 + 4p^3, \\ x &= \frac{2pq^2 + 4p^3}{q^2 + 4p^2}. \end{split}$$

To find y, we substitute x into the equation for  $y_1$ ,

$$y = \frac{q}{2px},$$

$$= \frac{q}{2p} \cdot \left(\frac{2pq^2 + 4p^3}{q^2 + 4p^2}\right),$$

$$= \frac{2pq^3 + 4p^3q}{2pq^2 + 8p^3},$$

$$= \frac{q^3 + 2p^2q}{q^2 + 4p^2}.$$

Now we need to find  $(p_1, q_1)$ . We know that the distance from  $(p_0, q_0)$  to the midpoint is equal to the distance from the midpoint to  $(p_1, q_1)$ . Breaking it into components:

$$p_1 = p_0 + 2(p_2 - p_0)$$
, where  $p_2$  is the x-coordinate of the mid point  $= 2p_2 - p_0$ .

Similarly,  $q_1 = 2q_2 - q_0$ .

$$p_{1} = 2p_{2} - p,$$

$$= 2\left(\frac{2pq^{2} + 4p^{3}}{q^{2} + 4p^{2}}\right) - p,$$

$$= \frac{4pq^{2} + 8p^{3} - pq^{2} - 4p^{2}}{q^{2} + 4p^{2}},$$

$$= \frac{3pq^{2} + 4p^{3}}{q^{2} + 4p^{2}},$$

$$= \frac{p(4p^{2} + q^{2}) + 2pq^{2}}{4p^{2} + q^{2}},$$

$$= p + 2p\left(\frac{q^{2}}{4p^{2} + q^{2}}\right),$$

$$= p(1 + 2\left(\frac{\frac{q^{2}}{p^{2}}}{q^{2}}\right)),$$

$$= p(1 + 2\left(\frac{r}{q^{2}}\right),$$

$$= p(1 + 2s).$$

$$q_{1} = 2q_{2} - q_{0},$$

$$= 2\left(\frac{q^{3} + 2p^{2}q}{q^{2} + 4p^{2}}\right) - q,$$

$$= \frac{2q^{3} + 4p^{2}q - q^{3} - 4p^{2}q}{q^{2} + 4p^{2}},$$

$$= \frac{q^{3}}{q^{2} + 4p^{2}},$$

$$= q \cdot \frac{q^{2}}{q^{2} + 4p^{2}},$$

$$= q \cdot \left(\frac{q^{2}}{p^{2}} \cdot \frac{p^{2}}{4p^{2} + q^{2}}\right),$$

$$= q \cdot \left(\frac{r}{\frac{4p^{2} + q^{2}}{p^{2}}}\right),$$

$$= q \cdot \left(\frac{r}{q^{2} + q^{2}}\right),$$

$$= q \cdot \left(\frac{r}{q^{2} + q^{2}}\right),$$

$$= q \cdot s.$$

We've just shown that  $(p_1, q_1)$  are the same as the values of p and q after the k = 1 iteration of the loop. Since both points lie on the circle,  $\sqrt{p_1^2 + q_1^2} = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ . Hence we can consider this to be the loop invariant. For each iteration, the line from (0,0) to  $(p_k, q_k)$  remains on the circle while moving towards the x axis. This means

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} q_k = 0 \Rightarrow \lim_{k \to \infty} p_k = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}.$$

This becomes true when  $q_k$  becomes insignificant. In practice however, 3 iterations are necessary to approach decent accuracy, hence the limit of k = 3.

(b) There are two cases where **pythag2** fails and **pythag** works:

```
x = 3e200
y = 4e200
pythag2(x,y)
> [1] Inf
pythag(x,y)
> [1] 5e200
x = 3e-200
y = 4e-200
> pythag2(x,y)
[1] 0
> pythag(x,y)
[1] 5e-200
```

The reason **pythag2** fails while **pythag** runs is due to possible overflow and underflow generated in the intermediate result of  $x^2 + y^2$ . For extremely large and small numbers, this value will limit the possible inputs of x and y to a range smaller than that of allowed by the floating points being used. **pythag** prevents this by iteratively approximating the value, where p approaches the result.

(3) The standard Laplacian distribution is given by  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}e^{|x|}$ .

To obtain the inverse transform  $F_X^{-1}(x)$ , we must first take the integral of f(x), and then find the inverse of the integral.

We will first separate f(x) into cases

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}e^x & \text{if } x < 0\\ \frac{1}{2}e^{-x} & \text{if } x >= 0 \end{cases}$$

Taking the integral, we get

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}e^x & \text{if } x < 0\\ 1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-x} & \text{if } x >= 0 \end{cases}$$

For the second case, the indefinite integral gives us  $-\frac{1}{2}e^{-x} + c$ , and we need  $F_X(x)$  to be a cumulative distribution, so we have c = 1.

For the inverse transform, we must again do case analysis. For  $F_X(x) = \frac{1}{2}e^x$ :

$$y = \frac{1}{2}e^{x}$$
$$2y = e^{x}$$
$$x = \ln(2y).$$

At x = 0,  $F_X(x) = 0.5$ , so this first case of the integral holds true for x < 0.5. Case 2:

$$y = 1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-x}$$

$$y - 1 = -\frac{1}{2}e^{-x}$$

$$2 - 2y = e^{-x}$$

$$\ln(2 - 2y) = -x$$

$$x = -\ln(2 - 2y).$$

This holds true for x >= 0.5. Therefore,  $F_X^{-1}(x)$  is given by the following

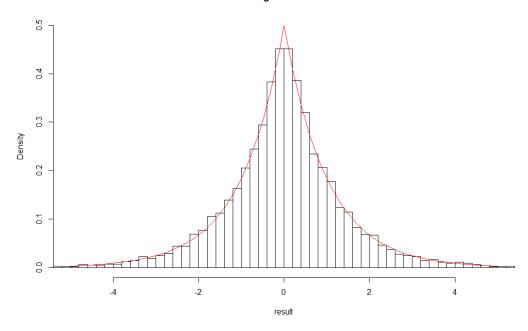
$$G_X(x) = \begin{cases} \ln{(2y)} & \text{if } x < 0.5\\ \ln{(2-2y)} & \text{if } x >= 0.5 \end{cases}$$

This is easy to translate into R.

.

The resulting histogram is shown below:

## Histogram of result



(4) Suppose  $x \sim \text{Rayleigh}(\sigma)$ . The Rayleigh probability density function is

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{\sigma^2} e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)}, \quad x \ge 0, \sigma > 0.$$

The cumulative distribution function is

$$F_X(x) = \int \frac{x}{\sigma^2} e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)} dx,$$

Let  $u = -x^2/(2\sigma^2)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{du}{dx} &= \frac{-x}{\sigma^2}, \\ du &= \frac{-x}{\sigma^2} dx. \end{aligned}$$

By substitution,

$$F_X(x) = \int -e^u du,$$
  
=  $-e^u + c,$   
=  $-e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)} + c.$ 

Observe that when  $x=1, F_X(x)=0$ . Therefore c=1. Thus, we have the cumulative distribution for the Rayleigh distribution,

$$F_X(x) = 1 - e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)}$$
 for  $x \in [0, \infty)$ .

We derive  $F_X^{-1}(x)$  as follows:

$$\begin{split} y &= 1 - e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)}, \\ e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)} &= 1 - y, \\ \frac{-x^2}{2\sigma^2} &= \ln(1 - y), \\ x &= \sqrt{-2\sigma^2 \ln(1 - y)}, \\ F_X^{-1}(x) &= \sqrt{-2\sigma^2 \ln(1 - y)}. \end{split}$$

For  $u \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1)$ , and given that U and 1-U have the same distribution, we can generate Rayleigh random variables by taking

$$F_X^{-1}(u) = \sqrt{-2\sigma^2 \ln(u)}.$$

We implement this equation in R to generate n random samples from a Rayleigh( $\sigma$ ) distribution as shown below:

```
## Define function to generate Rayleigh random variables ##
rray <- function(n, sigma) {
    u <- runif(n)
    output <- sqrt(-2*sigma^2*log(u))
    return(output)
}</pre>
```

The code used to generate histograms is as follows:

```
## Set seed to ensure consistency before generating numbers and plotting ##
set.seed(0)

########## simga = 0.5 ########
x1 <- rray(10000,0.5)
hist(x1,prob=TRUE,
main="Generated rayleigh random variables with sigma=0.5",
xlab="x") # plot the histogram

## Superimpose a density line ##
xlines1 <- seq(0,round(max(x1)),0.01)
ylines1 <- (xlines1/0.5^2)*exp(-xlines1^2/(2*(0.5^2)))
lines(xlines1,ylines1)

########## sigma = 2 ########
x2 <- rray(10000,2)
hist(x2,prob=TRUE,
main="Generated rayleigh random variables with sigma=2",
xlab="x") # plot the histogram

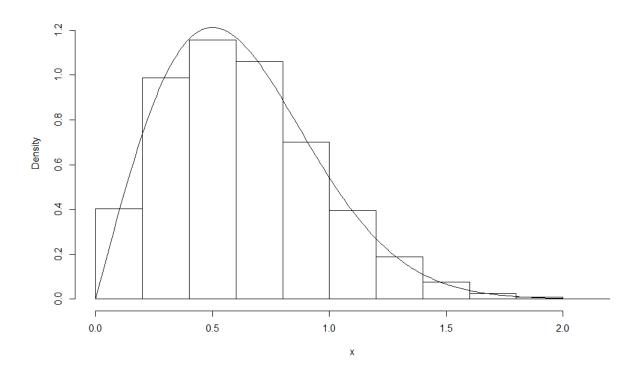
## Superimpose a density line ##
xlines2 <- seq(0,round(max(x2)),0.01)
ylines2 <- (xlines2/2^2)*exp(-xlines2^2/(2*(2^2)))
lines(xlines2,ylines2)</pre>
```

.

The resulting histograms are show below:

## Generated rayleigh random variables with sigma=0.5

PROBLEM SET 2



## Generated rayleigh random variables with sigma=2

