Computational Statistics

Lecture 4: Simulating from Discrete Random Variables

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Binomial RV

Simulating a Bernoulli random variable

Consider a student who guesses on a multiple choice test question which has five options: the student may guess correctly with probability 0.2 and incorrectly with probability 1 - 0.2 = 0.8. How well is doing this student in a simulated test consisting of 20 questions?

> set.seed(23207) > guesses = runif(20) > correctAnswers = (guesses < 0.2) > table(correctAnswers) correctAnswers FALSE TRUE 14

The student would score in this simulated test 6/20, i.e. 6 correct answers out of 20 showing an empirical success probability of 6/20 = 0.3.

Simulating a binomial random variable

The sum X of m independent Bernoulli random variables, coded : 0 (False) and 1 (True), each having a success probability of p gives a binomial random variable $\sim \mathcal{B}(m,p)$ representing the number of successes in m Bernoulli trials. X can take values in the set $\{0, 1, 2, ..., m\}$ with probability:

$$P(X = x) = {m \choose x} p^{x} (1-p)^{m-x}, x = 0, 1, 2, ..., m.$$

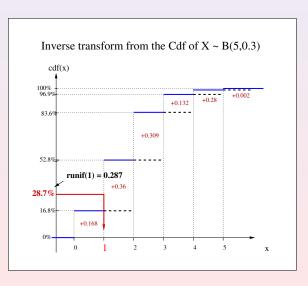
We may compute in R the probability of observing 6 successes in 20 trials, when the success probability is 0.2 :

> dbinom(x=6,size=20,prob=0.2) = 0.1090997.

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Simulating a discrete random variable by inverse transform

> db=dbinom(0:5,5,0.3)[1] 0.16807 0.36015 [3] 0.30870 0.13230 [6] 0.02835 0.00243 # cumsum(db) = cdf > pbinom(0:5,5,0.3)[0] 0.16807 [1] 0.52822 [2] 0.83692 [3] 0.96922 [4] 0.99757 [5] 1.00000 > u = runif(1)[1] 0.287 # inv. cdf = quantile > gbinom(u,5,0.3)[1] 1 > rbinom(nSim, 5, 0.3)[1] 1 2 3 1 2 ...

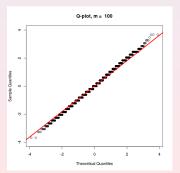


The Central Limit Theorem for binomial variables

If $X \sim \mathcal{B}(m, p)$, and

$$Z = \frac{X - mp}{\sqrt{mp(1-p)}},$$

then $Z \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ when m gets large.



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Simulating a Poisson random variable

The Poisson distribution $X \sim \mathcal{P}(\lambda)$ is the limit of a binomial distribution $\mathcal{B}(n,p_n)$ when $n\to\infty$ and $p_n\to 0$, but where the expected value np_n and the variance $np_n(1-p_n)$ converge to a same constant value λ , the *rate* of the Poisson distribution. The possible discrete values a *Poisson variable* can take are the natural numbers $\{0,1,2,..\}$ with probability:

$$P(X = x) = \frac{e^{-x}\lambda^x}{x!}, \quad x = 0, 1, 2, ...$$

The *mean* and the *variance* of a Poisson variable are both equal to the rate λ .

Example

Suppose traffic accidents occur at an intersection with a mean rate of 3.7 per year. Assuming a Poisson model, a simulation of the potential number of accidents per year may be run in R like follows:

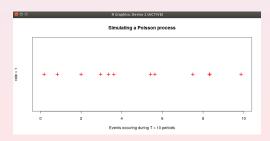
```
> nSim = 10
> rate = 3.7
> X = rpois(n=nSim,lambda=rate)
> summary(X)
    Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
    1.0    3.0    3.0    3.4    4.0    6.0
```

Simulating a Poisson processes

One way to simulate a Poisson process is the following :

- 1. Generate n as a Poisson random number with parameter λT ,
- 2. Generate *n* independent uniform random numbers on the interval [0, *T*].

```
> lambda = 1
> T = 10
> n = rpois(1,lambda*T)
[1] 12
> events = runif(n,0,T)
> x = sort(events)
[1] 0.1841019 0.8309076 2.0048382
[4] 2.9605278 3.3489711 3.6107790
[7] 5.4219458 5.6337490 7.5043275
[10] 8.2991724 8.3431913 9.8656030
> y = rep(1,n)
> plot(x,y,pch="+",xlim=c(0,T),cex=2,col="red",yaxt='n',ylab='rate = 1')
```



Poisson processes

A Poisson process is a simple model of the collection of events that occur during a given time period. A *homogenous* Poisson process has the following properties:

- 1. The number of events during a time period is Poisson distributed with a rate *proportional* to the observation period;
- 2. The running process has *no memory of past events*, i.e. the numbers of events in non overlapping time periods are all independent one of the other.

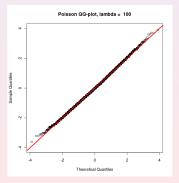
In particular, a Poisson process with rate λ observed in a period [0, T] shows on average λT events.

The Central Limit Theorem for Poisson variables

If $X \sim \mathcal{P}(\lambda)$, and

$$Z = \frac{X - \lambda}{\sqrt{\lambda}},$$

then $Z \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ if λ gets large.



Exponential random numbers

Exponential random variables model usually such things as failure times T of mechanical or electronic components, or the time T it takes a server to complete service to a customer. The exponential distribution is characterized by a *constant failure rate*, denoted λ .

Random variable T has an exponential distribution with rate $\lambda>0$ if its cdf F_T is the following :

$$F_T(t) = P(T \leqslant t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}$$

for any nonnegative t. Differentiating the distribution function with respect to t gives the exponential density function :

$$f_T(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$$

The expected value of an exponential random variable is $1/\lambda$ and its variance is $1/\lambda^2$.

Simulating T by inverse transform

Suppose $T \sim \exp(\lambda)$. Then $F_T(t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t} = P(T \le t)$. If u denotes $P(T \le t)$, solving for t in $u = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}$ gives

$$t = \frac{-\log(1-u)}{\lambda}.$$

Therefore, if $U \sim \mathcal{U}(0,1)$, then $1-U \sim U$ and

$$T = -\frac{\log U}{\lambda} \sim exp(\lambda)$$

See Lesson 3 for an R example code.

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Simulating a Poisson process – another way

It can be shown that the time separating two subsequent events occurring in a Poisson process of rate λ is exponentially distributed with rate λ .

This leads to a simple way for simulating a Poisson process on the fly.

Example

Simulate the moments in time where the first 25 events may occur in a Poisson process of rate 1.5.

> X = rexp(25, rate = 1.5)
> cumsum(X)
[1] 0.7999769 1.0924413 2.2480730 2.6270703 2.8888372 4.5510017
[7] 5.4118919 5.6875902 5.8969009 6.5536986 7.6601004 7.8540837
[13] 8.2793790 9.4287367 10.5200363 10.5464784 11.4369748 11.7930954
[19] 11.9409715 12.5444665 13.2704827 14.5333422 14.6247818 16.0576074
[25] 16.1842825

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$\Gamma(\alpha,\beta)$ variables

The Gamma random variable $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$, with real parameters $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta > 0$, has *density* p(x) for x > 0:

$$p(x) = \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\int_0^{\infty} t^{\alpha-1} e^{-t} dt} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta x}.$$

The *mean and variance* are respectively given by α/β and α/β^2 . In the $\Gamma(\alpha,\beta)$ probability law, the β parameter enters only as a scaling :

$$\Gamma(\alpha,\beta) \sim \frac{1}{\beta}\Gamma(\alpha,1).$$

To generate a $\Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$ random number, it is hence sufficient to generate a $\Gamma(\alpha, 1)$ random number and divide it by β .

Integer alpha parameter

If $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha,1)$ with α a small integer, X is in fact distributed as the waiting time to the α th event in a random Poisson process of unit mean.

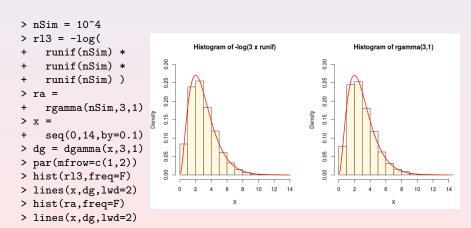
Since the waiting time between two consecutive events is distributed following an exponential law with $\lambda=1$, we can hence simply add up α exponentially distributed waiting times, i.e. logarithms of uniform random numbers.

Furthermore, since the sum of logarithms is equal to the logarithm of the product, we may simulate X by computing the product of α uniform random numbers and then take minus the log.

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Simulation and visual checking of a random variable $X \sim \mathcal{G}(\alpha = 3, \beta = 1)$



Sum rule and CLT for gamma variables

Useful properties of the gamma distribution :

1. If we have to simulate the sum of a set of independent $X_i \sim \Gamma(\alpha_i, \beta)$ variables with different α_i 's, but sharing the same β parameter, we may consider that their sum $Y = \sum_i X_i$ is again distributed like a gamma variable :

$$Y \sim \Gamma(\sum_i \alpha_i, \beta).$$

- 2. If $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$ when $\alpha \gg \beta$, then $X \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{N}(\alpha/\beta, \alpha/\beta^2)$.
- 3. If the α_i are integers, we may directly simulate X with the minus log of the product of the corresponding number $\sum_i \alpha_i$ of uniform random numbers, divided by β .

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Simulate a binomial variable

Exercise

- 1. Suppose the proportion p of defective production is 0.15 for a manufactoring operation. Simulate the number of defectives for each hour of a 24-hour period, assuming 25 units are produced every hour. Check if the number of defectives ever exceeds 5. Repeat assuming p = 0.2 and then 0.25.
- 2. Write a binomial random variable generator in R with parameters: 'n' successes, 'm' trials, and success probability 'p', using the cumulated density function (cdf) inversion method.
- 3. Write a similar binomial random variable generator in R based on the summing up of corresponding independent Bernoulli random variables
- 4. The previous generator requires m uniform pseudo random numbers for one simulated binomial number. Design a similar generator for a binomial random variable which requires only one uniform random number for each simulated binomial number.

Simulate a Bernoulli variable

Exercise

- 1. Suppose a class of 100 students writes a 20-question True-False test, and everyone in the class guesses the answers with a success probabilioty of 0.2:
 - 1.1 Use simulation to estimate the average mark over the 100 students as well as the standard deviation of the marks.
 - 1.2 estimate the proportion of students who would obtain a mark of 30% or higher.
- 2. Write an R function which simulates 500 light bulbs, each of which has probability 0.99 of working. Using simulation, estimate the expected value and variance of the random variable X, which is 1 if the light bulb works and 0 if it does not work. What are the theoretical values?

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Simulating a Poisson process

Exercise

- 1. Conduct a simulation experiment to check, on a large number $(nSim = 10^4)$ of realizations on a period of 10 minutes, the reasonableness of the assumption that the numbers X of events from a rate 1.5 per minute Poisson process which occur between the fourth and fifth minute of these processes are indeed Poisson distributed with rate 1.5.
- 2. Use the incremental quantile agent from Lesson 5 for estimating the quantiles of distribution X.
- 3. Use the qqplot R command to graphically compare the quantiles of distribution X with the quantiles of a corresponding theoretical Poisson distribution.