

## Generating Random Variables

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## Motivation

- ❑ We need to generate/simulate random variables in
  - simulating a queueing model if solving the model is too difficult
  - simulating traffic generation, user logon/logoff, component failures, etc., when simulating a networking environment
- ❑ The challenge is twofold.
  - to make sure the result is truly random
  - to make sure the result follows a designated distribution

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## Generating Uniform Random Variables

- Linear Congruential Method (by D. H. Lehmer, 1949)

$$X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m, \quad n \geq 0$$

where  $0 \leq X_0 < m$  is called the *seed* (the starting value),  $m > 0$  the modulus,  $0 \leq a < m$  the multiplier and  $0 \leq c < m$  the increment.

- The selection of  $m$ ,  $a$ , and  $c$  values is critical to the quality of produced random values.

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- Example,  $m=10$  and  $X_0=a=c=2$  produce

2, 6, 4, 0, 2, 6, ...

- The  $X$  sequence has at most  $m$  values to draw from and must eventually repeat a cycle.
  - this will not be a problem if  $m$  is sufficiently large and all possible values are exhausted before repetition.

**Theorem.** The linear congruential sequence has period length  $m$  if and only if

1.  $c$  is relatively prime to  $m$
2.  $a-1$  is a multiple of  $p$ , for every prime  $p$  dividing  $m$
3.  $a-1$  is a multiple of 4, if  $m$  is a multiple of 4

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## Selecting Modulus

- Consider an  $n$ -bit computer.
- A natural choice of  $m$  is  $2^n$ .
  - this effectively remove divisions from the computation of  $X$  division.
  - the problem is that the result  $X$  tends to be less random in right-hand digits
  - however, since right-hand digits are insignificant, the resultant random values can be good enough for many applications

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- $m = 2^n \pm 1$ 
  - with these two  $m$  values, there are tricks in assembly programming to compute  $X$  without division
  - the results are random in all digits
- Set  $m$  to the largest prime number smaller than  $2^n$ .
  - the results are random in all digits
  - however, the computation involves real divisions, which are expensive.

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## Discussions

- ❑ The  $X$  produced above is a discrete uniform random variable ranging from 0 to  $m-1$ .
- ❑ To produce a discrete random variable  $Y$  from 1 to 100:  $Y = (X \bmod 100) + 1$ 
  - for the range from  $a$  to  $b$ ,
$$Y = (X \bmod (b - a + 1)) + a$$
- ❑ To produce a continuous uniform random variable  $Z$  in  $[0,1)$ :  $Z = X/m$ .
  - $X$  and  $m$  must be converted to floating point before the division

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## The Inverse Transformation Method

- ❑ Let  $U$  be a continuous uniform random variable in  $(0,1)$ .
- ❑ Let  $f(x)$  be the pdf of a continuous random variable  $X$  and
$$F(a) = P\{X \leq a\} = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x)dx$$
be the **cumulative distribution function**.
- ❑ We can compute  $X$  by setting  $X = F^{-1}(U)$ .
- ❑ We will justify this method by showing that the pdf of  $F^{-1}(U)$  is also  $f$ .

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## Proof

□ Since  $F$  is a monotone increasing function,

$$F^{-1}(U) \leq a \text{ if and only if } U \leq F(a).$$

□ We have

$$\begin{aligned} P\{F^{-1}(U) \leq a\} &= P\{U \leq F(a)\} \\ &= F(a) \quad (\text{because } U \text{ is uniform}) \end{aligned}$$

□ We are done.

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## Producing Exponential Random Variables

□ Since the pdf is  $f(x) = e^{-\lambda x}$ , we have

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$$

□ That is  $X = F^{-1}(U) = -\frac{\log(1-U)}{\lambda}$

□ Actually, since  $1-U$  is also a uniform random variable, it is sufficient to compute

$$-\frac{\log(U)}{\lambda}$$

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## Discussion

- The inverse transformation method can be applied to, in theory, all continuous distributions. In practice, however, figuring out  $F^{-1}(U)$  can be difficult for some distributions (such as the normal distribution).

## The Rejection Method

- Suppose that we have a method of generating a random variable  $Y$  whose pdf is  $g(y)$ .
- We wish to generate a random variable  $X$  with pdf  $f(x)$  that satisfies

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \leq c, \quad \text{for all } x \text{ (} c \text{ is a constant)}$$

- We can generate  $X$  with the following loop:
  - Step-1.** Generate  $Y$  and a uniform random variable  $U$ .
  - Step-2.** If  $U \leq f(Y)/(cg(Y))$ , set  $X=Y$ ; otherwise return to Step-1.

## Proof

- We will show that the last  $Y$ , which is used to determine the value of  $X$ , will have the same distribution with  $X$ .
- Specifically, we want to show they have the same cumulative distribution functions, that is,  $P\{Y \leq \alpha | U \leq f(Y)/cg(Y)\} = P\{X \leq \alpha\}$

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Let  $K = P\{U \leq f(Y)/cg(Y)\}$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} & P\{Y \leq \alpha | U \leq f(Y)/cg(Y)\} \\ &= \frac{P\{Y \leq \alpha, U \leq f(Y)/cg(Y)\}}{K} \\ &= \frac{\int P\{Y \leq \alpha, U \leq f(Y)/cg(Y) | Y = y\}g(y)dy}{K} \\ &= \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\alpha} (f(y)/cg(y))g(y)dy}{K} \\ &= \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\alpha} f(y)dy}{Kc} \end{aligned}$$

□ Notice that

$$1 = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow \infty} P\{Y \leq \alpha | U \leq f(Y)/cg(Y)\} = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\alpha} f(y)dy}{Kc},$$

which implies  $K=1/c$ .

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□ Finally, we have

$$P\{Y \leq \alpha | U \leq f(Y)/cg(Y)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\alpha} f(y)dy = P\{X \leq \alpha\}$$

We are done.

□ **Remark.** Since each iteration will result in an accepted  $Y$  with probability

$$P\{U \leq f(Y)/cg(Y)\} = 1/c$$

□ it follows that the number of iterations is geometric with mean  $c$ .

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## Generating Normal Random Variables

□ We wish to produce a normal random variable  $Z$  with mean 0 and variance 1.

□ We first focus on the absolute value of  $Z$ ,  $X=|Z|$ , which has the pdf

$$f(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}, \quad 0 < x < \infty$$

□ Let  $Y$  be an exponential random variable with pdf  $g(x) = e^{-x}$ ,  $0 < x < \infty$ .

□ Note that

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \sqrt{2e/\pi} e^{-(x-1)^2/2} \leq \sqrt{2e/\pi}$$

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- We can now generate  $X$  using the rejection method:

**Step-1.** Generate  $Y$  and a uniform random variable  $U$ .

**Step-2.** Set  $X=Y$  if  $U \leq e^{-(Y-1)^2/2}$

Otherwise return to Step-1.

- In average, we will need  $\sqrt{2e/\pi} \approx 1.32$  iterations.
- Lastly, set  $Z=X$  or  $Z=-X$  with equal chances.

**Remark.** A preliminary version of this method is due to Dr. Von Neumann, the very inventor of stored-instruction computing systems.