# **Generating Random Variates**

Max Turgeon

STAT 3150–Statistical Computing

- Recognize when to use the inverse-transform method.
- Be able to generate random variates through transformations.
- Derive bounding densities for accept-reject sampling.

- A staple of modern statistical research is the **simulation study**.
  - Finite sample properties can then be compared to theoretical expectations.
- More generally, by simulating data we can study the properties of a method or a model.
- **Bayesian statistics** strongly relies on generating data to estimate the posterior density of the parameters (cf. STAT 4150).

• Recall: Let X be a random variable with CDF F(x). The **quantile** function is defined as

$$F^{-1}(p) = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid F(x) \ge p\}.$$

 $\cdot$  If X is continuous, this is simply the inverse function.

#### Theorem

If U is uniform on [0,1], then  $F^{-1}(U)$  has the same distribution as X.

• In R, we can sample random variates from U(0,1) by using the function runif:

runif(5)

## [1] 0.2681359 0.3308333 0.4411671 0.8352923 0.9690489

#### Algorithm

To generate random variates from F:

- 1. Generate random variates from U(0, 1).
- 2. Compute the quantile function  $F^{-1}$ .
- 3. Plug-in the uniform variates into  $F^{-1}$ .

## Example i

• Let X follow an exponential distribution with parameter  $\lambda$ :

$$F(x) = 1 - \exp(-\lambda x).$$

• Since X is continuous, the quantile function is the inverse of *F*:

$$p = 1 - \exp(-\lambda x) \Rightarrow \exp(-\lambda x) = 1 - p$$
$$\Rightarrow -\lambda x = \log(1 - p)$$
$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{-\log(1 - p)}{\lambda}.$$

```
lambda <- 1
# We want 1000 samples
n <- 1000
unif_vars <- runif(n)
exp_vars <- -log(1 - unif_vars)/lambda</pre>
```

```
# Compute theoretical quantiles
# using qexp
exp_theo <- qexp(ppoints(n))
qqplot(exp_theo, exp_vars)
# Add diagonal line
abline(a = 0, b = 1)</pre>
```

# Example iv



exp\_theo

Note: If U is uniform on [0, 1], so is 1 - U.

• Therefore 
$$rac{-\log(U)}{\lambda}$$
 also follows an  $Exp(\lambda)$  distribution.

# Compute the quantile function for the Cauchy distribution ${\rm Cauchy}(\theta,\gamma)$ with ${\rm CDF}$

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \arctan\left(\frac{x-\theta}{\gamma}\right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

Use the inverse transform to generate 5 random variates from  $\mbox{Cauchy}(0,1).$ 

$$p = \frac{1}{\pi} \arctan\left(\frac{x-\theta}{\gamma}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \pi(p-0.5) = \arctan\left(\frac{x-\theta}{\gamma}\right)$$
$$\Rightarrow \tan\left(\pi(p-0.5)\right) = \frac{x-\theta}{\gamma}$$
$$\Rightarrow \gamma \tan\left(\pi(p-0.5)\right) = x-\theta$$
$$\Rightarrow x = \gamma \tan\left(\pi(p-0.5)\right) + \theta.$$

Note: We always have  $\pi(p-0.5) \in \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$  for  $p \in (0, 1)$ .

## [1] -0.8263884 0.9488969 2.6537989 1.3050843
1.2012162

### Inverse Transform—Discrete Edition



Figure 1: From Wikipedia

• Let X follow a Bernoulli distribution with parameter p:

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0, \\ 1 - p & x \in [0, 1), \\ 1 & x \ge 1. \end{cases}$$

Example ii

p = 0.6



• As we can see, we have

$$F^{-1}(u) = \begin{cases} 0 & u \le 1 - p, \\ 1 & u > 1 - p. \end{cases}$$

• In other words, we sample U. If it is less than 1 - p, we set X = 0; else, we set X = 1.

## Example iv

```
p <- 0.6
n <- 1000
unif_vars <- runif(n)
# as.numeric turns FALSE into 0
# and TRUE into 1
bern_vars <- as.numeric(unif_vars > 1 - p)
```

c(mean(bern\_vars), var(bern\_vars))

## [1] 0.6410000 0.2303493

# Compare with theory
c(p, p\*(1 - p))

## [1] 0.60 0.24

- Inverse transform is just one type of transformation!
- We can use relationships between distributions to generate random variates. For example:
  - $\cdot~$  If  $Z\sim N(0,1),$  then  $Z^2\sim \chi^2(1).$
  - · If  $V_1, \ldots, V_p \sim \chi^2(1)$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^p V_i \sim \chi^2(p)$ .
  - $\cdot~$  If  $U\sim \chi^2(p)$  and  $V\sim \chi^2(q)$  , then

$$\frac{U/p}{V/q} \sim F(p,q).$$

#### # Choose degrees of freedom

- p <- 2
- q <- 4

#### # rnorm samples from a normal distribution

- U <-  $sum(rnorm(p)^2)$
- V <-  $sum(rnorm(q)^2)$

# Take ratio
(U/p)/(V/q)

## [1] 1.575616

- # What if we want 1000 replicates?
- # Use the function replicate!
- # First argument: number of replicates
- # Second argument: expression to be run multiple times

```
f_vars <- replicate(1000, {</pre>
```

```
U <- sum(rnorm(p)^2)
```

```
V <- sum(rnorm(q)^2)
```

```
(U/p)/(V/q)
```

})

```
qqplot(f_vars, qf(ppoints(1000), p, q))
# Add diagonal line
abline(a = 0, b = 1)
```

# Example iv



f\_vars

## Acceptance-Reject Method i

- Suppose you want to sample from a distribution X with density f, but you can only sample from a different distribution Y with density g.
- Further suppose that there exists a constant c>1 such that

$$\frac{f(t)}{g(t)} \le c$$

for all t such that f(t) > 0.

• The Acceptance-Reject method is a way to transform random variates of Y into random variates of X.

## Acceptance-Reject Method ii

#### Algorithm

- 1. Sample y from Y.
- 2. Sample a uniform variate u from U(0, 1).
- 3. Compute the ratio  $r := \frac{f(y)}{cg(y)}$ . If u < r, set x = y. Otherwise, reject y and repeat from Step 1.

Note: The number of iterations before we accept a draw from Y follows a geometric distribution with mean c. So we want the constant c to be as small as possible.

(If you want a proof of why this works, see UM Learn.)

# Example i

- We want to sample from  $X \sim Beta(2,2)$  whose density is f(x) = 6x(1-x).
  - The proposal distribution will be  $Y \sim Beta(1,1)$  (i.e. a uniform distribution).
- + Let  $t \in (0,1)$ . We have

$$\frac{f(t)}{g(t)} = \frac{6t(1-t)}{1} \le 6,$$

since the maximum t and 1 - t can take is 1. So we can set c = 6.

# Example ii



х

- # Set parameters----
- C <- 6 # Constant
- n <- 1000 # Number of variates</pre>
- $k \ <- \ 0 \ \#$  counter for accepted
- j <- 0 # iterations</pre>
- y <- numeric(n) # Allocate memory</pre>

```
# A while loop runs until condition no longer holds
while (k < n) {
  u < -runif(1)
  j <- j + 1
  x <- runif(1) # random variate from g</pre>
  if (u < 6 \times (1-x)/C) {
    k <- k + 1
    y[k] <- x
    }
}
```

Example v

# How many iterations did we need?
j

## [1] 6271

# Compare theoretical and empirical quantiles
p <- seq(0.1, 0.9, by = 0.1)
Qhat <- quantile(y, p) # empirical
Q <- qbeta(p, 2, 2) # theoretical</pre>

### round(cbind(Qhat, Q, diff = abs(Qhat - Q)), 3)

##		Qhat	Q	diff
##	10%	0.201	0.196	0.005
##	20%	0.283	0.287	0.004
##	30%	0.356	0.363	0.007
##	40%	0.428	0.433	0.005
##	50%	0.491	0.500	0.009
##	60%	0.564	0.567	0.004
##	70%	0.640	0.637	0.004
##	80%	0.718	0.713	0.005
##	90%	0.805	0.804	0.001

- As the graph showed, the "Rejection" region is very large.
  - In fact, it is unnecessarily large.
- With a little bit of calculus, we can show that the maximum value of 6x(1-x) is 1.5.
  - $\cdot \,$  In other words, we can set the constant c=1.5.
  - This means that we can sample from X while rejecting 4 times  $\mathit{less}$  often.

# Example viii



х

```
C <- 1.5; k <- j <- 0 # Reset counters
while (k < n) {</pre>
  u < -runif(1)
  j <- j + 1
  x < - runif(1)
  if (u < 6 \times x \times (1 - x)/C) {
    k <- k + 1
    y[k] <- x
     }
}
```

# # How many iterations did we need this time? j

## [1] 1491

- When we can compute the quantile function, the inverse transform is simple to implement.
  - But it can be hard to compute!
- We can leverage relationships between distributions to transform one random variate into another.
- · Accept-reject can be used when we have a bounding density.