

Theory

- Introduction to simulation
- Flow of simulation -- generating process realizations
- Random number generation from given distribution
 - Introduction and generation of pseudo random numbers
 - Different methods for generating random numbers with a given distribution
- Collection and analysis of simulation data
- Variance reduction techniques

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Drawing a random number from a given distribution

Generation of random variables is too important a task to be done by chance!

- *Good statistics* (i.e. obeys the distribution) and independence
 - excludes “drawing from the hat”
- *Repeatable sequence*
 - excludes real lottery or the use of physical random processes (such as radioactivity)
- *Long sequence of different numbers*
 - excludes the use of precomputed tables
- *Fast generation*
 - excludes the use of certain digits of π or e or some other well-known number

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Drawing a random number from a given distribution

- Based on the generation of so called **(pseudo) random numbers**
 - aims at generating independent random numbers from the uniform distribution $U(0,1)$
- Random numbers from any distribution can be generated, provided that random numbers from $U(0,1)$ are available, by using some of the following methods:
 - **discretisation** (\Rightarrow Bernoulli(p), Bin(n,p), Poisson(a), Geom(p))
 - **rescaling** ($\Rightarrow U(a,b)$)
 - **inverse transformation (inversion of the cdf function)** ($\Rightarrow \text{Exp}(\lambda)$)
 - **other transformations** ($\Rightarrow N(0,1) \Rightarrow N(\mu,\sigma^2)$)
 - **rejection method** (works for any distribution)
 - **characterisation of the distribution** (reduction to other distributions) (\Rightarrow Erlang(n,λ), Bin(n,p))
 - **composition method**
- Programming languages, libraries and tools supporting simulation usually have routines available for the generation of random numbers from the most common distributions

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Generation of random numbers

- A random number generator refers to an algorithm which produces a sequence of (apparently) random integers Z_i in some range $0,1,\dots,m-1$
 - the sequence is always periodic (one aims at as long a period as possible)
 - strictly speaking, the numbers generated by an algorithm are not random but on the contrary deterministic; the sequence just looks random, i.e. is pseudorandom
 - in practice, such numbers will do provided that the generation is done “carefully”
- The “randomness” of the generated numbers have to be checked by appropriate statistical tests
 - the uniformity of the distribution in the range $\{0,1,\dots,m-1\}$
 - the independence of the generated numbers (often just uncorrelatedness)
- Simplest algorithms are so called *linear congruential generators*. A subclass of these are formed by the so called multiplicative congruential generators.
- In either case, each generated random number is determined by the previous one, $Z_{i+1} = f(Z_i)$.
- Other methods: additive congruential generators, shuffling

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Linear congruential generator (LCG)

- Linear congruential random number generator produces random integers Z_i in the range $\{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ using the following formula (the period is at most m):

$$Z_{i+1} = (aZ_i + c) \bmod m$$

- The generator is fully defined given the parameters a , c and m
- In addition, one needs the seed Z_0
- The parameters must be chosen carefully; otherwise the sequence can be anything but random
- Under some conditions the sequence has the maximum period m
 - for instance, m of the form $2^a b$, c odd, a of the form $4^k + 1$

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Multiplicative congruential generator (MCG)

- Multiplicative congruential random number generator produces integers Z_i in the range $\{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ using the following formula:

$$Z_{i+1} = (aZ_i) \bmod m$$

- This is a special case of LCG with the choice $c = 0$
- The algorithm is fully defined given the parameters a and m
- In addition, one needs the seed Z_0
- Also now, the parameters have to be chosen carefully in order to get pseudo random numbers
- By the choice $m = 2^b$ (with any b) the period is at most 2^{b-2}
- In the best case the period can be $m - 1$
 - for instance when m is prime and a is chosen appropriately

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Generation of random numbers from the uniform distribution $U(0,1)$

- If a (pseudo) random number generator produces a (pseudo) random integer I in the range $\{0,1,\dots,M-1\}$, then the normalised variable $U = I/M$ approximately obeys the uniform distribution $U(0,1)$ in the range $(0,1)$

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The use of the seed numbers

(depending on the rand-algorithm used some of the instructions are relevant / irrelevant)

- Don't use the seed 0
- Avoid even values
- Don't use one random number sequence for several purposes
 - e.g. if the numbers (u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots) have been used to generate interarrival times, the same sequence should not be used to generate service times
- When using different sequences (streams) make sure that the sequences don't overlap
 - if the seed of one sequence is included in another sequence, then from that point on the sequences are identical
 - if you have to generate 10000 interarrival times and 10000 service times, the sequence of random numbers $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{10000})$ used for the generation of interarrival times can be computed starting from the seed u_0
 - service times can be generated using the numbers $(u_{10001}, \dots, u_{20000})$, i.e. the seed is u_{10000}
 - if the sequences are not stored but the numbers are generated as they are needed you have to figure out the seed u_{10000} in advance by computing all the numbers $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{10000})$; these have to be recomputed during the simulation for the generation of the first sequence

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Generation of a discrete random variable

- Let $U \sim U(0,1)$
- Let X be a discrete r.v. with the range $S = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ or $S = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
- Denote $F(i) = P\{X \leq i\}$
- Then the random variable Y , where

$$Y = \min\{i \in S \mid F(i) \geq U\}$$

obeys the same distribution as X ($Y \sim X$).

- This is called the discretization method. In fact it is the inverse transformation method for a discrete distribution
- Example: Bernoulli(p) distribution:

$$Y = 1_{\{U > 1-p\}} = \begin{cases} 0, & U \leq 1-p \\ 1, & U > 1-p \end{cases}$$

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Generation of a discrete random variable (continued)

- The described method, where the value of the random variable $U \sim U(0,1)$ is compared consecutively with the values of the cdf is general
- Making many comparisons, however, can be computationally slow (the generations are done in the inner loops of the simulator and must be fast)
- In some simple cases the method based on comparisons can be replaced by a method where the value of the random number to be generated can directly be computed from the value of U using a simple formula
- Some examples are given in the following table

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Generation from simple discrete distributions

- In the following U, U_1, \dots, U_n denote independent random variables $\sim U(0,1)$
- $\text{int}(X) = \lfloor X \rfloor =$ integer part of X

Distribution	Expression for generation
Symmetric bivalued $\{0,1\}$ distribution $P\{X = 0\} = P\{X = 1\} = 0.5$	$\text{int}(2U)$ or $\text{int}(U + 0.5)$
Symmetric bivalued $\{0,1\}$ distribution $P\{X = 0\} = 1 - p, P\{X = 1\} = p$	$\text{int}(U + p)$
Bivalued $\{-1,1\}$ distribution $P\{X = 0\} = 1 - p, P\{X = 1\} = p$	$2 \text{int}(U + p) - 1$
Trivalued $\{0,1,2\}$ distribution probs:t = $\{1 - p_1 - p_2, p_1, p_2\}$	$\text{int}(U + p_2) + \text{int}(U + p_1 + p_2)$
Uniform discrete distribution $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$	$\text{int}(nU)$
Uniform discrete distribution $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$	$\text{int}(nU) + 1$
Binomial distribution $\text{Bin}(n, p)$	$\sum_{i=1}^n \text{int}(U_i + p)$

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Generation of a discrete random variable (continued)

- Often it is not possible to generate a discrete r.v. directly from a given r.v. $U \sim U(0,1)$
- Then one needs to compute the CDF $F(x)$ and store it in an appropriate data structure
- Simple search mechanisms:
 - store values of $F(x)$ in a vector and perform a linear search from the beginning
 - improved search: any more advanced search, e.g., a binary search
 - improved binary search: store the value of the index where $F(x)$ equals roughly 0.5, whence one can find with one comparison on which "side" the result lies, and then perform a binary search (or linear search)
- Optimal search (minimum number of comparison operations)
 - use a Huffman tree to represent $F(x)$

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Using a Huffman tree to generate discrete rv:s

- Store the distribution in a Huffman tree, so that the most probable candidates have the shortest path.
- The Huffman tree is created with the following algorithm:
 - Create an ordered list of nodes. The elements in the list represent values of the rv and are ordered by probability. These nodes will be the leaves in the tree.
 - Take the first two items from the list (two smallest probabilities) and create a parent node for them so that the smaller child is on the left. The probability of the new node will be the sum of the children. The new node is added to the list in the right position.
 - Repeat the previous step until the list has only one element, which is the root of the tree.
- Now the sample generation goes as follows:
 - Generate a random number $U \sim U(0,1)$ and compare it to the probability of the left child.
 - If the value is smaller, move to the left child. If it is greater, subtract the probability of the left child from the random number U and move to the right child. Compare the random number to the probability of the new left child.
 - Repeat the previous step until the current node is a leaf.

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Example of using a Huffman tree

Iteration 1

List: (0.1, 1), (0.15, 4), (0.20, 3), (0.25, 5), (0.30, 2)

Tree:

```

      0.25:*
     /  \
    /    \
0.10:1  0.15:4
    
```

value	f(x)	F(x)
1	0.10	0.10
2	0.30	0.40
3	0.20	0.60
4	0.15	0.75
5	0.25	1.00

Iteration 2

List: (0.20, 3), (0.25, *), (0.25, 5), (0.30, 2)

Tree:

```

      0.45:*
     /  \
    /    \
0.20:3  0.25:*
       /  \
      /    \
0.10:1  0.15:4
    
```

Iteration 4

List: (0.45, *), (0.55, *)

Tree:

```

      -----1.0:*-----
     /                     \
    /                       \
0.45:*                     0.55:*
 /  \                   /  \
0.20:3 0.25:*         0.25:5 0.30:2
 /  \                   /  \
0.10:1 0.15:4
    
```

Iteration 3

List: (0.25, 5), (0.30, 2), (0.45, *)

Tree:

```

      0.55:*
     /  \
    /    \
0.25:5  0.30:2
    
```

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Generation of a random variable from the uniform distribution

- Let $U \sim U(0,1)$
- Then $X = a + (b - a)U \sim U(a,b)$
- An arbitrary uniform distribution is thus obtained simply by scaling

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Inverse transformation method

- Let $U \sim U(0,1)$
- Let X be a continuous r.v. in the range $S = [0, \infty)$
- Assume that the cdf of X , $F(x) = P\{X \leq x\}$, is monotonously growing and has the inverse function $F^{-1}(y)$
- Then the random variable Y , where

$$Y = F^{-1}(U)$$

obeys the same distribution as X ($Y \sim X$).

- This is called the inverse transformation method (inversion of the cdf function)
- Proof: Since $P\{U \leq z\} = z$ for all z in the range $[0,1]$, then the following holds

$$P\{Y \leq x\} = P\{F^{-1}(U) \leq x\} = P\{U \leq F(x)\} = F(x)$$

Thus $Y \sim X$.

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Generation of a random variable from the exponential distribution

- Let $U \sim U(0,1)$
- Let $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$
- The cdf of X , $F(x) = P\{X \leq x\} = 1 - \exp(-\lambda x)$, is monotonously increasing; thus it has an inverse function $F^{-1}(y) = -(1/\lambda) \ln(1 - y)$
- Since $U \sim U(0,1)$, then also $1 - U \sim U(0,1)$
- Thus the inverse transformation method gives us
- Algorithm

$$X = F^{-1}(1-U) = -(1/\lambda) \log U$$

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Generation of a random variable from the Weibull distribution

- The Weibull distribution $W(\lambda, \beta)$ is a generalisation of the exponential distribution
- The cdf of $X \sim W(\lambda, \beta)$ is $F(x) = P\{X \leq x\} = 1 - \exp(-(\lambda x)^\beta)$
- This has the inverse function $F^{-1}(y) = (1/\lambda)[- \ln(1 - y)]^{1/\beta}$
- Algorithm

$$X = F^{-1}(1 - U) = (1/\lambda)(-\log U)^{1/\beta}$$

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Generation of arrivals from a Poisson process

- The most important model for the arrival processes used in the analysis of telecommunication systems is the **Poisson process**
- Poisson process with arrival intensity λ can be characterized as process with interarrival times which are independent and obey the exponential distribution $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$
- Denote the arrival time of customer n by t_n
- The arrival instants can be consecutively generated using the formula $t_{n+1} = t_n + X_n$, where $X_n \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$
- Another way to generate a realisation of a Poisson process in the interval $(0, T)$:
 - draw the total number of arrivals N from Poisson distribution $N \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda T)$
 - draw the location of each arrival instant t_n in $(0, T)$ from the uniform distribution $t_n \sim U(0, T)$
 - the instants t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n (in order) constitute a realisation of the Poisson process

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Generation of arrivals from a nonstationary Poisson process (1)

- Sometimes the assumption of a constant arrival rate for the Poisson arrivals is not valid (cf. time controlled public votings or competitions)
 - A Poisson process for which the arrival rate is a function of time, $\lambda(t)$, is called a nonstationary Poisson process
- Two methods: thinning or inverse transform
- Thinning method
 - Poisson process with intensity λ from which arrivals are accepted with a probability p (rejected with prob. $1-p$) is still a Poisson process, but with intensity $p\lambda$
 - In simulation $\lambda(t)$ is known and it is possible to determine an upper bound $\lambda^* \geq \lambda(t), \forall t$
 - Idea: One generates arrivals with intensity λ^* and a particular arrival at time t' is accepted with probability $\lambda(t')/\lambda^*$
- Algorithm: let t_n be the arrival instant of the n^{th} customer
 1. Set $\tau = t_n$
 2. Generate $U_1, U_2 \sim U(0,1)$
 3. Set $\tau = \tau - (1/\lambda^*) \ln U_1$
 4. If $U_2 \leq \lambda(\tau)/\lambda^*$ return $t_{n+1} = \tau$, else goto step 2
- Problem: Generation of "extra" arrivals
 - inefficient if λ^* is large compared with the majority of the values of $\lambda(t)$ (for example, high and narrow spikes in the shape of the rate function)

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Generation of arrivals from a nonstationary Poisson process (2)

- Inverse transform: comparable with the inverse transform method of the cdf
- Define the function $\Lambda(t)$

$$\Lambda(t) = \int_0^t \lambda(y) dy$$

- $\Lambda(t)$ denotes the average number of arrivals in the interval $[0, t]$
- Idea: Generate first arrival instants τ_n with Poisson intensity 1 and perform the transformation $t_n = \Lambda^{-1}(\tau_n)$, where $\Lambda^{-1}(y)$ is the inverse function of $\Lambda(y)$. Then, arrivals t_n constitute a Poisson process with intensity $\lambda(t)$
- Algorithm: let τ_n denote the arrival instant of the n^{th} customer generated with intensity 1, t_n denotes the actual arrival time with intensity $\lambda(t)$
 1. Generate $U_1 \sim U(0,1)$
 2. Set $\tau_{n+1} = \tau_n - \ln U_1$
 3. Return $t_{n+1} = \Lambda^{-1}(\tau_{n+1})$
- Benefit: all arrival events can be utilized
 - Problem: solving the inverse function may be difficult/impossible

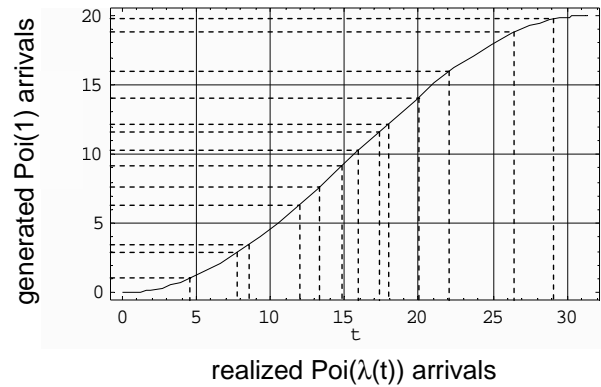
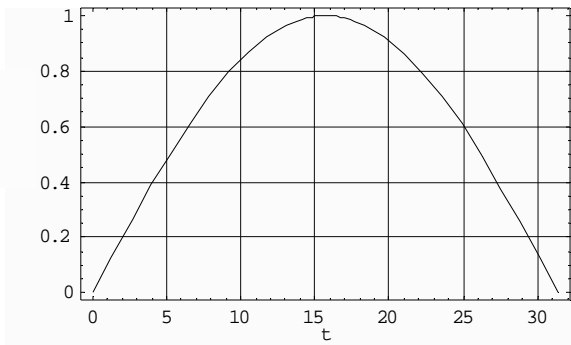
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Generation of arrivals from a nonstationary Poisson process (3)

- Example of the inverse transform method

$$\lambda(t) = \sin(t/10) \quad , \quad t \in [0, 10\pi] \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \Lambda(t) = 10(1 - \cos(t/10))$$



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Generation of random variable from the normal distribution

- Let U and V be independent random variables from $U(0,1)$
- According to so called Box-Müller method the random variables X and Y , where

$$X = \sqrt{-2 \ln U} \cos(2\pi V)$$

$$Y = \sqrt{-2 \ln U} \sin(2\pi V)$$

are independent random variables obeying the distribution $N(0,1)$

- An arbitrary normal distribution is obtained by scaling: $\mu + \sigma X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

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