

Chapter 3

Random Number Generation & Curve Fitting

3.1 Using R

► A function $f(x)$ is said to be a polynomial of degree 1 if $f(x) = a_0x + a_1$ with $a_0 \neq 0$.

3.1.1 Plot Distributions

■ Usually in R, we can find $f(x)$ or, $P(X = x)$ of a random variable X for various distributions.

► For discrete distribution example: i) 'dbinom(x, n, p)' finds $P(X = x)$ with $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$; ii) 'dpois(x, λ)' finds $P(X = x)$ with $X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda)$; iii) 'dnbinom(x, r, p)' finds $P(X = x)$ with $X \sim \text{Negative Binomial}(r, p)$; iv) 'dgeom(x, p)' finds $P(X = x)$ with $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$.

► For continuous distribution example: i) 'dnorm(x, μ, sd)' finds $f(x)$ with $X \sim N(\mu, sd)$; ii) 'dgamma($x, shape, rate$)' finds $f(x)$ with $X \sim \text{Gamma}(shape, rate)$; iii) 'dchisq(x, n)' finds $f(x)$ with $X \sim \chi_n^2$; iv) 'dbeta($x, shape1, shape2$)' finds $f(x)$ with $X \sim \text{Beta}(shape1, shape2)$.

Example 3.1. Plot the graph of binomial distribution with parameters $n = 10, p = 0.2$ i.e. $\text{Bin}(10, 0.2)$. Here, X is a random variable denotes the number of success in n^{th} trial then the probability mass function (pmf) of X is $P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x}, x = 0, 1, \dots, n$; p is the success probability and $q = 1 - p$. Here we say that $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$.

► **R Code:**

```
n=10
```

```

p=0.2
x=0:n # Range of Binomial
f=dbinom(x, n, p, log = FALSE) # Value of PMF
plot(x,f,type="h",xlim=c(min(x),max(x)),ylim=c(0,1),lwd=2,col="blue",ylab="P(X=x)")
points(x,f,pch=16,cex=1,col="dark red")

```

► **R Plot**: See the plot Fig. 3.1.

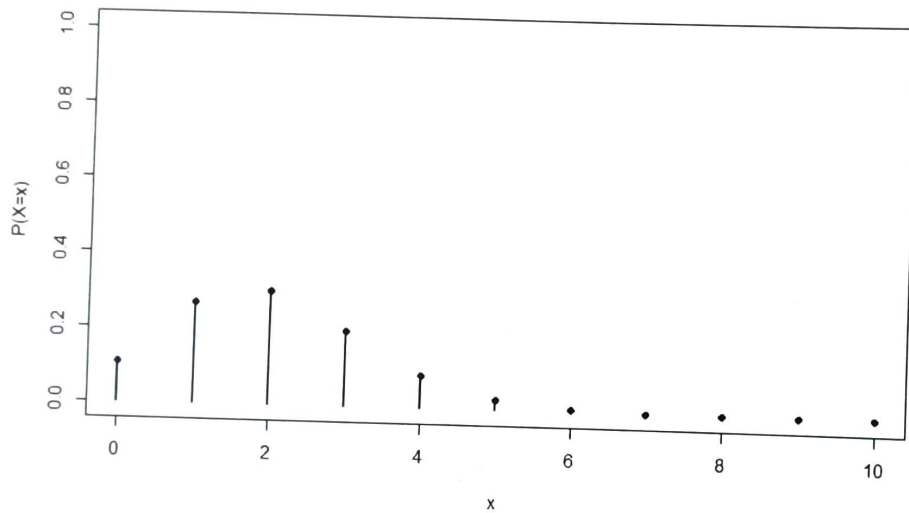


Figure 3.1: PMF of Binomial Distribution for $n = 10$, $p = 0.2$.

[Do It Yourself] 3.1. Plot the graph of Poisson distribution with parameters $\lambda = 2$ i.e. $Poi(2)$. Here, X is a random variable denotes the number of occurrence in the interval of interest then the probability mass function (pmf) of X is $P(X = x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}$, $x = 0, 1, \dots, \infty$; λ is the average number of events in the given interval. Here we say that $X \sim Poi(\lambda)$.

[Do It Yourself] 3.2. Plot the graph of Negative Binomial distribution with parameters $r = 2$, $p = 0.3$ i.e. $NB(2, 0.3)$. Here, X is a random variable denotes the number of failures that precede the r^{th} success then the probability mass function (pmf) of X is $P(X = x) = \binom{x+r-1}{x} p^r q^x$, $x = 0, 1, \dots, \infty$; $r \geq 1$. Here we say that $X \sim NB(r, p)$.

[Do It Yourself] 3.3. Plot the graph of Geometric distribution with parameters $p = 0.3$ i.e. $Geo(0.3)$. Here, X is a random variable denotes the number of failures that precede the 1^{st} success then the probability mass function (pmf) of X is $P(X = x) = pq^x$, $x = 0, 1, \dots, \infty$. Here we say that $X \sim Geo(p)$.

■ Geometric distribution is a special case of negative binomial distribution for $r = 1$.

Example 3.2. Plot the graph of normal distribution with parameters $\mu = 0.4$, $sd = \sigma = 1.2$ i.e. $N(0.4, 1.2)$. Here, X is a random variable with probability density function (pdf) of

X is $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$, $-\infty < x < \infty$; μ is mean and σ is sd. Here we say that

$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$.

► **R Code:**

```
x=seq(-5,5,0.1) # Generate sequence of x values
f=dnorm(x, mean = 0.4, sd = 1.2) # Generate f(x)
plot(x,f,type="l",xlim=c(min(x),max(x)),ylim=c(0,1),lwd=2,col="blue",ylab="f(x)")
```

► **R Plot:** See the plot Fig. 3.2.

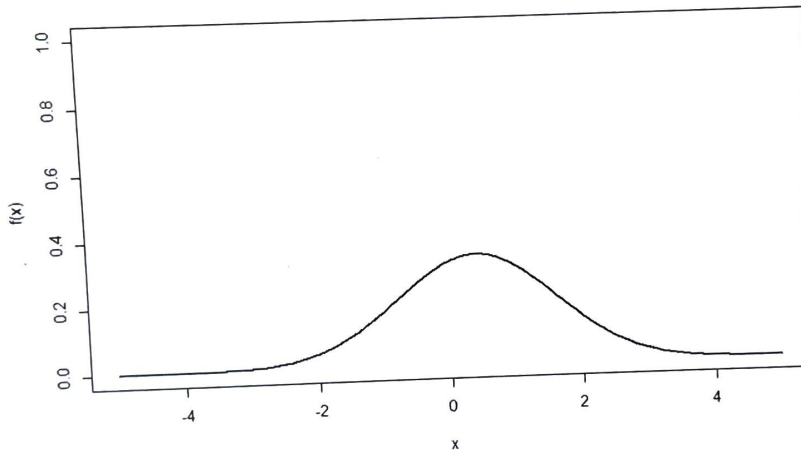


Figure 3.2: PDF of Normal Distribution for $\mu = 0.4$, $sd = \sigma = 1.2$.

Example 3.3. Plot the multiple graphs of normal distribution from $N(0.4, 1.2)$, $N(0.4, 0.6)$ and $N(0.4, 1.8)$.

► **R Code:**

```
x=seq(-5,5,0.1) # Generate sequence of x values
f=dnorm(x, mean = 0.4, sd = 1.2) # Generate f(x)
f1=dnorm(x, mean = 0.4, sd = 0.6) # Generate f(x)
f2=dnorm(x, mean = 0.4, sd = 1.8) # Generate f(x)
plot(x,f,type="l",xlim=c(min(x),max(x)),ylim=c(0,1),lwd=2,col="blue",ylab="f(x)")
lines(x,f1,type="l",xlim=c(min(x),max(x)),ylim=c(0,1),lwd=2,col="red")
```

```
lines(x,f2,type="l",xlim=c(min(x),max(x)),ylim=c(0,1),lwd=2,col="green")
legend(3,0.8,legend=c("N (0.4,1.2)", "N (0.4,0.6)", "N (0.4,1.8)"),
col=c("blue", "red", "green"),lty=c(1,1,1))
```

► **R Plot**: See the plot Fig. 3.3.

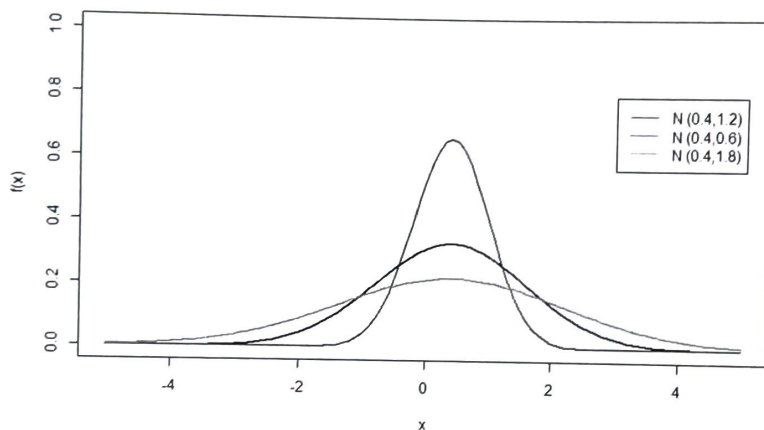


Figure 3.3: PDF of Normal Distribution for $\mu = 0.4$, $sd = \sigma = 1.2$.

[Do It Yourself] 3.4. Plot the graph of gamma distribution with parameters shape = $\alpha = 2$, rate = $\beta = 0.5$ i.e. $\text{Gamma}(2, 0.5)$. Here, X is a random variable with probability density function (pdf) of X is $f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta}$, $x > 0$; α is shape and β is rate. Here we say that $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$. Plot the multiple graphs of gamma distribution from $\text{Gamma}(2, 0.5)$, $\text{Gamma}(2, 2.5)$ and $\text{Gamma}(1.2, 2)$.

[Do It Yourself] 3.5. Plot the graph of Chi-square distribution with parameters $df = n = 3$ i.e. χ_3^2 . Here, X is a random variable with probability density function (pdf) of X is $f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})2^{n/2}} x^{n/2-1} e^{-x/2}$, $x > 0$; n is degrees of freedom. Here we say that $X \sim \chi_n^2$. Plot the multiple graphs of Chi-square distribution from χ_3^2 , χ_6^2 and χ_8^2 .

[Do It Yourself] 3.6. Plot the graph of Beta distribution with parameters shape1 = $a = 1.1$, shape2 = $b = 1.3$ i.e. $\text{Beta}(1.1, 1.3)$, (Type I). Here, X is a random variable with probability density function (pdf) of X is $f(x) = \frac{1}{B(a,b)} x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1}$, $0 < x < 1$; a, b are shape parameters. Here we say that $X \sim \text{Beta}(a, b)$. Plot the multiple graphs of Beta distribution from $\text{Beta}(1.5, 1.4)$, $\text{Beta}(1.1, 1.4)$ and $\text{Beta}(1.5, 1.1)$.

- Exponential distribution is a special case of Gamma distribution for $\alpha = 1$.
- You can easily plot any distribution function i.e. $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$ instead of PMF/

PDF by using 'q' instead of 'p' command. For example, 'qbinom', 'qnorm' for binomial and normal distribution respectively.

► Also theoretically the range of x is $(-\infty, \infty)$, so just use feasible range for a distribution.

3.1.2 Random Number Generation

■ Usually in R, we can generate random numbers from various distributions. This is a very strong feature of 'R Programming'.

► For discrete distribution example: i) 'rbinom(y, n, p)' generate y number of random samples from $X \sim Bin(n, p)$; ii) 'rpois(y, λ)' generate random samples from $X \sim Poi(\lambda)$; iii) 'rlnbinom(y, r, p)' generate random samples from $X \sim Negative\ Binomial(r, p)$; iv) 'rgeom(x, p)' generate random samples from $X \sim Geo(p)$.

► For continuous distribution example: i) 'rnorm(y, μ, sd)' generate random samples from $X \sim N(\mu, sd)$; ii) 'rgamma($y, shape, rate$)' generate random samples from $X \sim Gamma(shape, rate)$; iii) 'rchisq(y, n)' generate random samples from $X \sim \chi_n^2$; iv) 'rbeta($y, shape1, shape2$)' generate random samples from $X \sim Beta(shape1, shape2)$; v) 'runif(y, a, b)' generate random samples from $X \sim U[a, b]$.

Example 3.4. Generate 50 random samples from binomial distribution with parameters $n = 10, p = 0.2$ i.e. $Bin(10, 0.2)$. Also draw the histogram.

► **R Code:**

```
y=rbinom(50, 10, 0.2) # Generate 50 Random Samples from Bin(10,0.2)
y
hist(y,col='green') # Plot may be different for each run
```

► **R Plot:** See the plot Fig. 3.4.

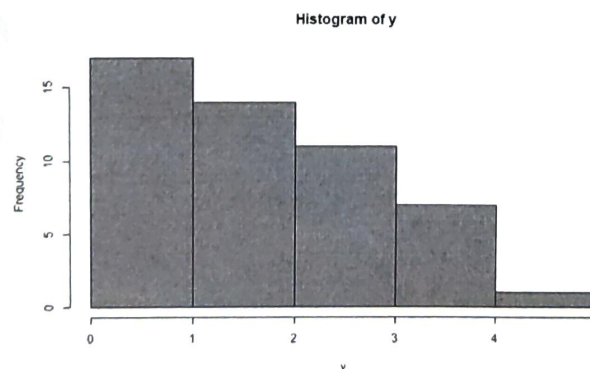


Figure 3.4: Histogram of $Bin(10, 0.2)$ for 50 random samples.

[Do It Yourself] 3.7. Generate 100 random samples from $Poi(2)$, $NB(2,0.3)$, $Geo(0.3)$. Also draw the respective histograms.

Example 3.5. Generate 500 random samples from Normal distribution with parameters $\mu = 1$, $sd = \sigma = 1.2$ i.e. $N(1,1.2)$. Also draw the histogram.

► **R Code**:

```
y=rnorm(500, 1, 1.2) # Generate 500 Random Samples from N(1,1.2)
y
round(y,3) # To round off numbers
hist(y,col='green') # Plot may be different for each run
hist(y,col='red',breaks=15) # Different intervals
```

► **R Plot**: See the plot Fig. 3.5.

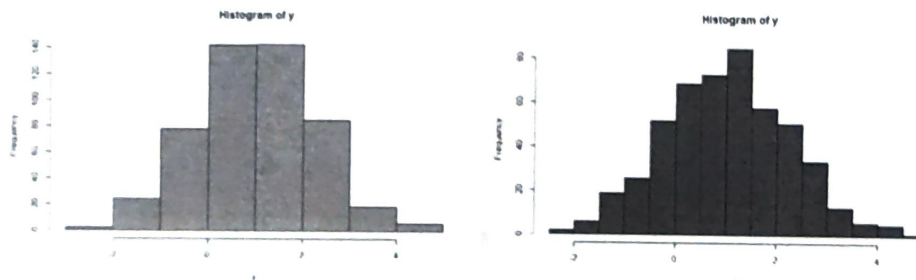


Figure 3.5: Histogram of $N(1,1.2)$ for 500 random samples: a) Default Breaks b) 15 Breaks.

[Do It Yourself] 3.8. Generate 1000 random samples from $\text{Gamma}(2, 2.5)$, χ_3^2 , $\text{Beta}(1.1, 1.4)$, $U[2, 5]$. Also draw the respective histograms.

3.1.3 Sampling Procedures

- Population is a large group and usually we want to draw conclusion about it. Practically it is quite difficult to work with the population due to various associated costs.

- Sample is a part of the population based on which you will draw the conclusion about the population.

- As we will use the sample instead of population, it is very important to know how we will draw the sample from a population.

- It is also important how many samples (i.e. sample size) we will draw from the population to get a better result. However, it is beyond the scope of this book.

- The sampling frame is the actual list of individuals that the sample will be drawn from. Ideally, it should include the entire target population. For Example, if you have a 1 sq.

km. garden consists with coconut, mango, apple and palm tree and you want to sample mango, coconut tree then the sampling frame will be the whole list of mango, coconut tree.

■ Here we will use R to draw n number of samples using various sampling methods.

■ Usually we use two types of sampling procedure i) Probability sampling methods (e.g. Simple random sampling, Systematic sampling, Stratified sampling, Cluster sampling) and ii) Non-probability sampling (e.g. Convenience sampling, Voluntary response sampling, Purposive/ Judgement sampling, Quota sampling).

■ **Simple Random Sampling (SRS)**: Here we will draw sample from whole population and each member will select with equal probability.

► SRS can be drawn in two ways: a) With replacement i.e. SRSWR and b) Without replacement i.e. SRSWOR.

Example 3.6. Suppose there are 100 people numbered from 1 to 100. You want select 20 among them to give movie ticket. Use SRSWR (one people may get multiple tickets) and SRSWOR to select these lucky people.

► **R Code**:

```
y1=sample(c(1:100),size=20,replace =T) # Sample using SRSWR
y1
y2=sample(c(1:100),size=20,replace =F) # Sample using SRSWOR
y2
```

[Do It Yourself] 3.9. Suppose there are 10 plant named: Areca Palm, English Ivy, Indian Basil, Spider Plant, Snake plant, Weeping Fig, Azalea, Dracaena, Aloe Vera and Small Coconut. Select four of these by using SRSWR and SRSWOR.

■ **Systematic Sampling**: Just randomly draw a starting point and then select rest of the element at a regular interval.

► The best way is to draw random samples from Systematic Sampling is to use Circular Systematic Sampling. For example, you want to draw $n = 12$ samples from population of size $N = 90$. Then just draw any number r from 1 to N and find a number $k = N/n = 90/12 \approx 7$ (nearest integer). The samples are $r, r + k, \dots$. Note that, if any sample cross the value 90 then we will divide that number by 90 and take 'remainder + 1'.

Example 3.7. Suppose there are 90 people numbered from 1 to 90. You want to select 17 among them to give movie ticket. Use Circular Systematic Sampling to select these lucky people.

► **R Code**:

```
N=90
n=17
r=sample(c(1:90),size=1) # One sample using SRS
```

```

r
k=N/n
k=5 # Check the above k and write the nearest integer
samp=seq(r,r+k*n,k) # Generate systematic sample
samp=samp%%90+1 # Use modulo function i.e. remainder
samp

```

[Do It Yourself] 3.10. Suppose there are 1000 trees with numbering. Select 140 of these by using Circular Systematic Sampling.

■ **Stratified Sampling**: Divide the whole population into strata (or, homogenous subsets) based on similar characteristics and then use SRS or, Systematic RS from each strata.

► Sample size may not be equal for each strata.

Example 3.8. Suppose there are 800 students in Zoology. Among them 500 are girls and 300 are boys. You want to select 50 among them with equal number of boys and girls for a scholarship. Use Stratified Sampling to select these lucky people.

► **R Code**:

```

fem=sample(c(1:500),size=25,replace =F) # Sample for Strata 1
fem
mal=sample(c(1:300),size=25,replace =F) # Sample for Strata 2
mal

```

[Do It Yourself] 3.11. Suppose there are 1200 students in Zoology. Among them 800 are girls and 400 are boys. You want to select 60 among them for a conference with same proportion reflects the population. Use Stratified Sampling to select these lucky people.

[Do It Yourself] 3.12. Suppose you want to study the characteristics of students with various annual family income. Then you may create strata (groups) according to the annual family income i.e. based on some income range, draw SRS.

■ **Cluster Sampling**: Divide the whole population into subgroups based on similar characteristics like the population (i.e. cluster) and then use RS to select one or, more cluster.

► In single-stage cluster sampling, all members of the chosen clusters are then included in the study.

► In two-stage cluster sampling, first select the cluster and then select its member randomly (instead of all like single-stage).

► In multi-stage cluster sampling, is an extension of two-stage sampling.

► For example, A research firm in the UK conducted a survey in which it divided the country into its counties and randomly selected some of these counties as a cluster sample (the first stage of sampling). Each county was then divided into its towns, and areas were chosen at random from each town (the second stage of sampling). Finally, within each town, each town was divided into small areas and households were selected at random from each area. These households formed the sample population for the research study (third stage of sampling).

Example 3.9. The company has offices in 50 cities across the country (all with roughly the same number of employees in similar roles). Due to travel restriction, it is not possible to visit every office to collect the data. Now using R, find 10 office (stage 1 cluster). Then from these 10 offices select 5 employees from each office (stage 2 cluster).

3.1.4 Fitting Exponential Curve

- ▶ The exponential regression model is defined as $y = ae^{bx}\epsilon$. Here a, b are unknown parameters will be estimated from the data.
- ▶ Taking log both sides we have, $\ln(y) = a' + bx + \epsilon'$, where $a' = \ln(a)$, $\epsilon' = \ln(\epsilon)$. Now we can fit simple linear regression with $\hat{a} = e^{a'}$.

Example 3.10. Fit an exponential curve $y = ae^{bx}$ based on the data: X: 0 0.01 0.03 0.05 0.07 0.09 0.11 0.13 0.15 0.17 0.19 0.21; Y: 1 1.03 1.06 1.38 2.09 3.54 6.41 12.6 22.1 39.05 65.32 99.78. Draw the regression line over the scatter plot.

▶ **R Code**:

```
x=c(0,0.01,0.03,0.05,0.07,0.09,0.11,0.13,0.15,0.17,0.19,0.21)
y=c(1,1.03,1.06,1.38,2.09,3.54,6.41,12.6,22.1,39.05,65.32,99.78)
y1=log(y)
fit=lm(y1 ~ x) # Lin Reg Fit
a=exp(fit$coefficients[1])
b=fit$coefficients[2]
summary(fit)
plot(x,y,xlab = 'X', ylab='Y',ylim=c(0,100),col='blue',main='Exponential Fit',
cex=1.2,pch=16)
x1 = seq(min(x),max(x)+0.1,0.01)
y1 = a*exp(b*x1)
lines(x1, y1, lty = 1, col = "darkgreen", lwd = 2)
```

▶ **R Plot**: See the plot Fig. 3.6.

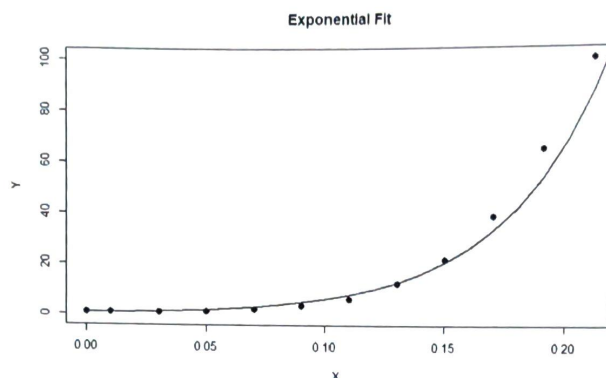


Figure 3.6: Fitting exponential curve over data.

[Do It Yourself] 3.13. Fit an exponential curve $y = ae^{bx}$ based on the data: $X: 0 \ 0.01 \ 0.03 \ 0.05 \ 0.07 \ 0.09 \ 0.11 \ 0.13 \ 0.15 \ 0.17 \ 0.19 \ 0.21$; $Y: 1 \ 1.03 \ 1.06 \ 1.38 \ 2.09 \ 3.54 \ 6.41 \ 12.6 \ 22.1 \ 39.05 \ 65.32 \ 99.78$. Draw the regression line over the scatter plot.

3.1.5 Fitting Distribution

Example 3.11. Twelve dice were thrown 2630 times and each time the number of dice which had 5 or, 6 on the uppermost face was recorded. The result are as follows:

No. of dice with upper 5, 6	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frequency	18	115	326	548	611	519	307
No. of dice with upper 5, 6	7	8	9	10	11	12	-
Frequency	133	40	11	2	0	0	-

Using R, fit a binomial distribution when p is unknown. Also fit a binomial distribution when $p = 1/3$.

► **R Code**:

```
x=c(0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12)
f=c(18,115,326,548,611,519,307,133,40,11,2,0,0)
n=sum(f)
m=12
dat=rep(x,f)
```

```

hist(dat,col="blue",xlab="x",main="Histogram") # Idea about the Distribution
p=mean(dat)/m # Estimate of p = bar(x)/m
q=1-p
f1=f*0 # Initialize expected frequency
f1[1]=q^m # Intial value is q^m
for (i in 1:11) {
f1[i+1]=((m-i+1)/i)*(p/q)*f1[i]
}
f1[13]=1-sum(f1) # Adjusting total probability
Ef=n*f1 # Expected frequency
Out=data.frame(x,Ef,f)
colnames(Out) =c("|x|", "|Expected Frequency|", "|Observed Frequency|")
format(Out, scientific = F,digit = 3)

```

► **R Plot**: See the plot Fig. 3.7.

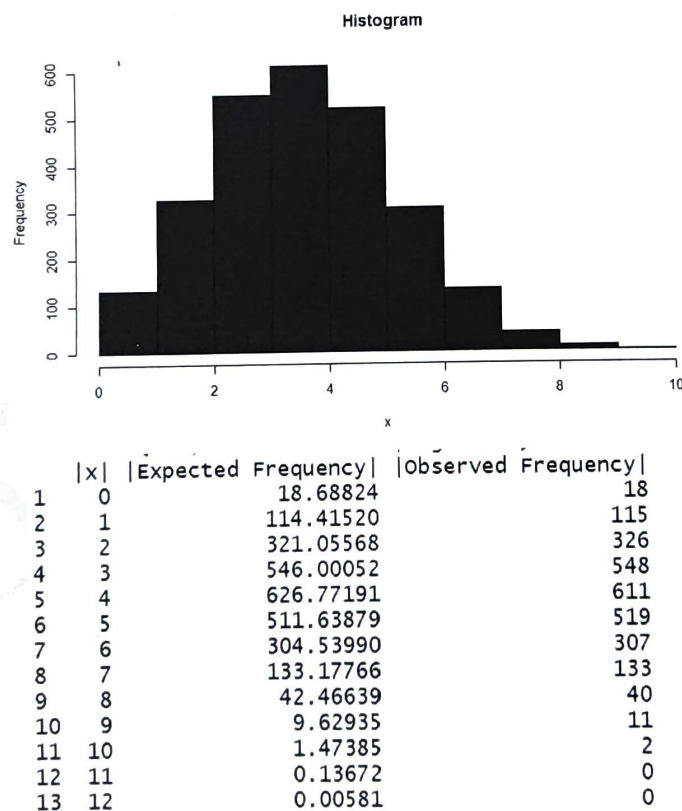


Figure 3.7: Fitting Binomial distribution over data.

■ *Second part is easy, only change the line $p = 1/3$ instead $p = \text{mean}(\text{dat})/m$, rest are same.*

Example 3.12. *The following data represents number of telephone calls received in a particular hour*

No. of Calls	0	1	2	3	4
Frequency	7	33	54	38	35
No. of Calls	5	6	7	8	9 & more
Frequency	15	7	4	1	1

Using R, fit a poisson distribution when λ is unknown.

► **R Code**:

```
x=c(0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9)
f=c(7,33,54,38,35,15,7,4,1,1)
n=sum(f)
dat=rep(x,f)
hist(dat,col="blue",xlab="x",main="Histogram") # Idea about the Distribution
lam=mean(dat) # Estimate of lambda = bar(x)
f1=f*0 # Initialize expected frequency
f1[1]=exp(-lam) # Intial value is e-lam
for (i in 1:8) {
  f1[i+1]=(lam/i)*f1[i]
}
f1[10]=1-sum(f1) # Adjusting total probability
Ef=n*f1 # Expected frequency
Out=data.frame(x,Ef,f)
colnames(Out) =c("|x|", "|Expected Frequency|", "|Observed Frequency|")
format(Out, scientific = F,digit = 3)
```

► **R Plot**: *See the plot Fig. 3.8.*

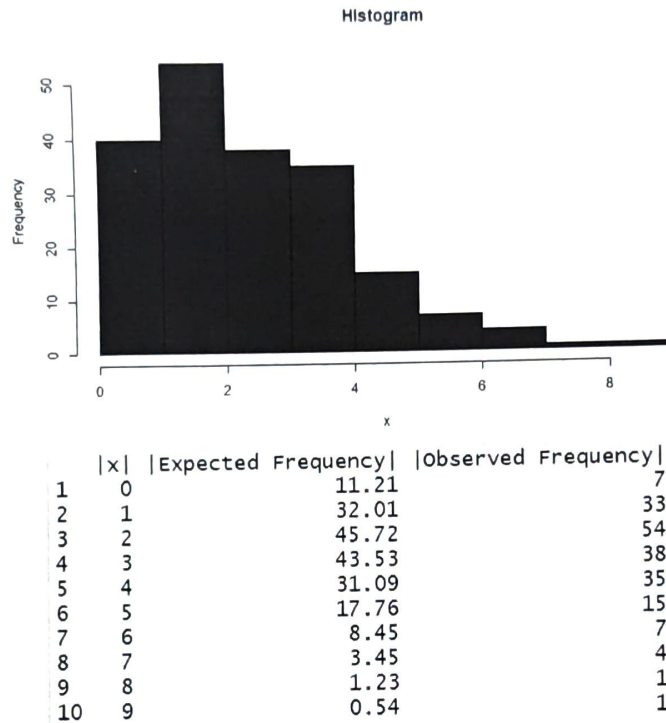


Figure 3.8: Fitting Poisson distribution over data.

[Do It Yourself] 3.14. Given a hypothetical distribution with $x : 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5$ and $f : 210 \ 125 \ 36 \ 21 \ 5 \ 2$. Fit a negative binomial distribution on the data.

Example 3.13. The following data represents the height and frequency of 180 students

Height	144 - 149	149-154	154 - 159	159 - 164
Frequency	1	3	24	58
Height	164 - 169	169 - 174	174 - 179	179 - 184
Frequency	60	27	2	2

Using R, fit a normal distribution. Also draw the normal curve over the histogram.

► **R Code**:

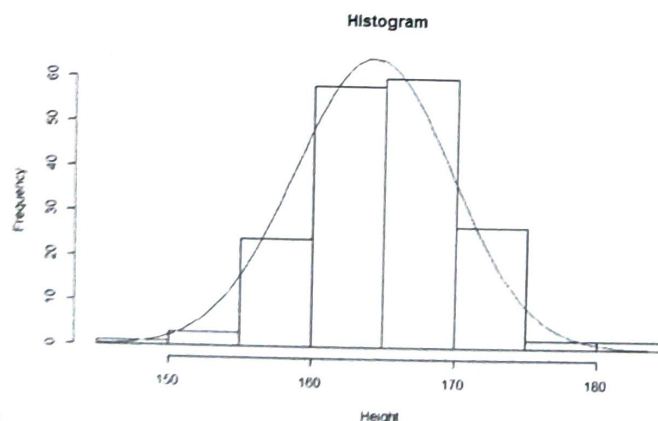
```
x=seq(146.5,181.5,5) # Midvalues
f=c(1,3,24,58,60,27,2,2)
n=sum(f)
dat=rep(x,f)
```

```

hist(dat,xlab="Height",main="Histogram",ylim=c(0,max(f)+3)) # ylim needed for curve
xbar=mean(dat) # Estimate of mu = mean(x)
s=sd(dat)
curve(n*5*dnorm(x,xbar,s),col="blue",add=T) # Add curve
xi=seq(144,184,5) # Interval values
x1=(xi-xbar)/s # Normalize
y1=dnorm(x1) # Standard normal value
F1=pnorm(x1) # Df values
F2=c(0,F1,1) # Extended DF, including -Inf, Inf
F3= diff(F2) # Actual Probability values
Ef=n*F3 # Expected frequency
x1=c(-Inf,x,Inf) # Extended x, including -Inf, Inf
f1=c(0,f,0) # Extended f, including -Inf, Inf
Out=data.frame(x1,Ef,f1)
colnames(Out) =c("|x(Mid)|", "|Expected Frequency|", "|Observed Frequency|")
format(Out, scientific = F,digit = 3)

```

► **R Plot**: See the plot Fig. 3.9.



	x(Mid)	Expected Frequency	Observed Frequency
1	-Inf	0.0208	0
2	146	0.4801	1
3	152	5.1184	3
4	156	24.9018	24
5	162	55.6166	58
6	166	57.2210	60
7	172	27.1232	27
8	176	5.9041	2
9	182	0.5868	2
10	Inf	0.0270	0

Figure 3.9: Fitting Normal distribution over data. In first column, instead of x(Mid), it is better to write the class interval e.g. $-\infty - 144$, $144 - 149$, \dots , $184 - \infty$.