

## Random numbers from *continuous* probability distributions

It is often useful to generate random numbers which have a known distribution. In many cases this might be the Normal distribution, but specific scenarios may be better modelled by something else such as a *Rayleigh*, *Exponential*, *Gamma* or *Weibull* form.

As long as we are able to **generate uniformly distributed random numbers** in the range  $[0,1]$ , and we are able to evaluate the **inverse cumulative distribution function**, we can generate random numbers from *any* continuous probability distribution.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x)dx = 1 \quad \text{Defining property of any distribution } p(x)$$

$$E[x] = \mu = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xp(x)dx \quad \text{Mean}$$

$$V[x] = E[x^2] - \mu^2 = \sigma^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 p(x)dx - \mu^2 \quad \text{Variance}$$

Note means, variances (and higher *moments* relating to 'skewness' and 'kurtosis') can often be more easily determined using the **Moment Generating Function** (MGF) of a distribution.

$$M_x(t) = E[e^{xt}]$$

$$E[x^n] = \left. \frac{\partial^n M}{\partial t^n} \right|_{t=0}$$

The MGF is useful for *both* continuous and discrete distributions. However, the concept of **Probability Generating Functions** (PGF) is also useful for discrete distributions.

## How to generate the random numbers $x$

$$F(x) = P(u \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x p(u)du \quad \text{Cumulative distribution function}$$

$$r \sim U(0,1)$$

$$\therefore x = F^{-1}(r)$$

This will generate random numbers with probability density  $p(x)$ , since the range of the cumulative distribution function is:

$$0 \leq F(r) \leq 1$$

The generation of uniformly distributed random numbers is a function in many computer languages such as Python, C or MATLAB. `x = rand( a, b )` is the code in MATLAB. This will generate an array of size *ab* with random numbers in the range  $[0,1]$ .

These functions are typically pseudorandom, i.e. based upon an *algorithm*. For true randomness, physical 'noise' is required. You can download samples of atmospheric noise from <https://www.random.org>

## Uniform distribution

$$x \sim U(a,b)$$

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

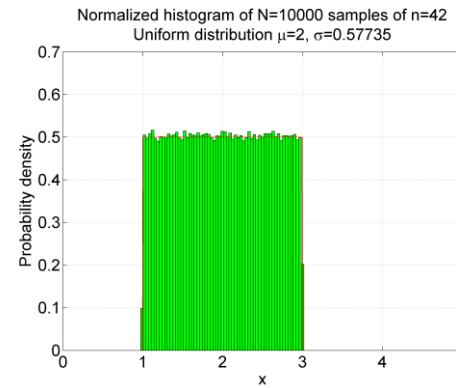
$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & a \leq x \leq b \\ 1 & x \geq b \end{cases}$$

$$F^{-1}(x) = a + (b-a)x$$

$$M_x(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{tb} - e^{ta}}{t(b-a)} & t \neq 0 \\ 1 & t = 0 \end{cases}$$

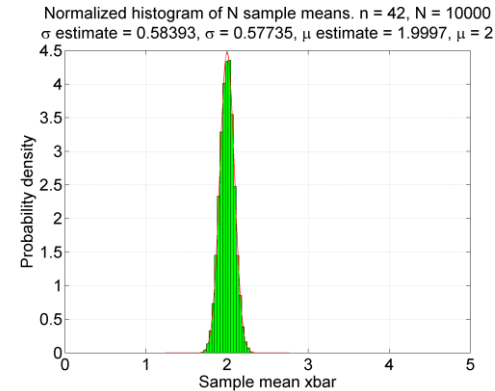
$$\mu = \frac{1}{2}(a+b)$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12}(b-a)^2$$



A **normalized histogram** of samples should match the predicted distribution. A normalized histogram is one where the total area of the bars is unity.

To **normalize**, scale the probability density of the histogram by the **sum of the probability densities** x **the bar width**.



The **Central Limit Theorem** states that if the sample size  $n$  is large enough, the distribution of sample means tends to a Normal distribution, regardless of the *population* distribution.

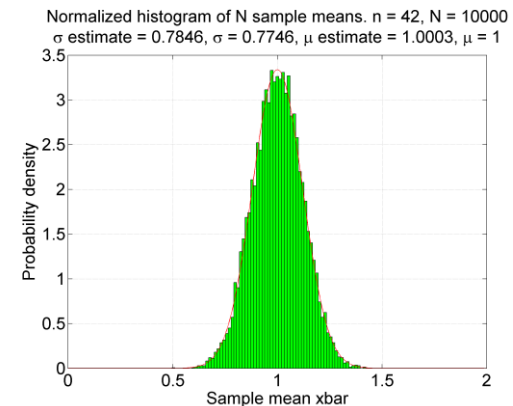
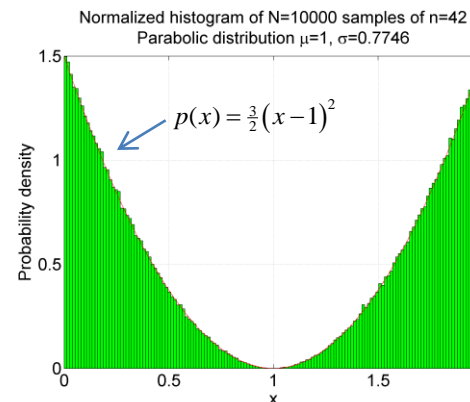
$$\bar{x} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

The distribution mean is the population mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation is the population standard deviation  $\sigma$  divided by the square root of the sample size  $n$ .

## An example non-normal distribution: a "parabolic distribution"

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{2}(x-1)^2 & 0 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}\left((x-1)^3 + 1\right) & 0 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 1 & x \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

$$F^{-1}(x) = \sqrt[3]{2x-1} + 1 \quad \mu = 1 \quad \sigma^2 = \frac{3}{5}$$



The distribution of sample means still tends to a Normal distribution!

## Normal Distribution

The classic 'bell shaped' curve. Also known as the *Gaussian* distribution. Mean  $\mu$  corresponds to the peak of the distribution and standard deviation  $\sigma$  scales the width. The *Central Limit Theorem* states the sample means of *any* distribution will tend to a Normal distribution if the sample size is large enough.

$$x \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$$

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

$$F^{-1}(x) = \mu + \sigma\sqrt{2}\operatorname{erf}^{-1}(2x-1)$$

$$M_x(t) = e^{\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2}$$

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

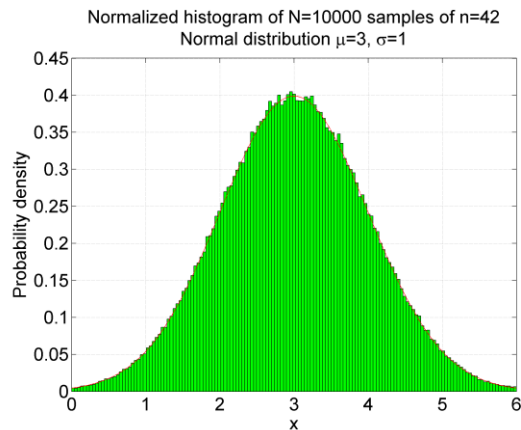
$$z \sim N(0, 1)$$

$$p(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2}$$

$$\Phi(z) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{z}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

$$\Phi^{-1}(z) = \sqrt{2}\operatorname{erf}^{-1}(2z-1)$$

**Standard normal distribution** using substitution  $z$



## Exponential distribution

Describes the time between independent events which occur at a given rate i.e. a *Poisson* process.

$$x \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda)$$

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

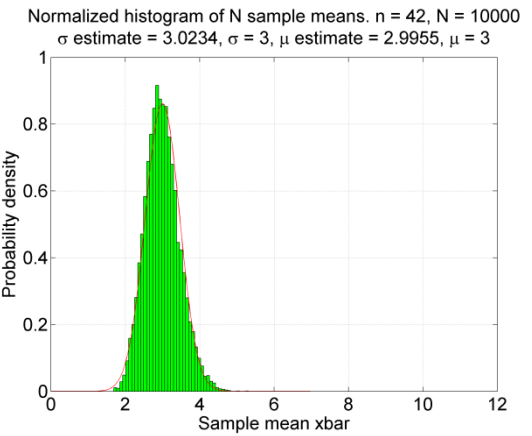
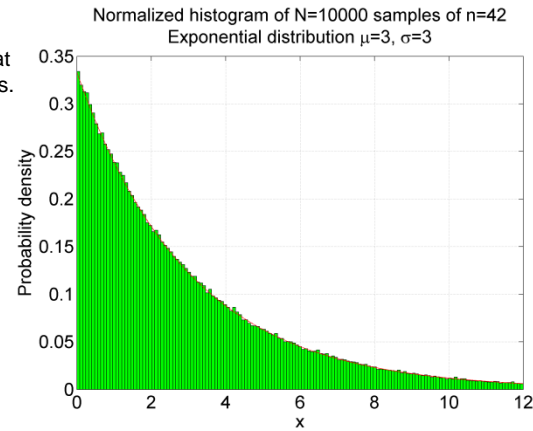
$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$$

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

$$M_x(t) = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \quad ; \quad t < \lambda$$

$$\mu = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$



## Rayleigh distribution

When orthogonal  $x, y$  components of a vector are Normally distributed, the magnitude of the vector is Rayleigh distributed.

$$x \sim \operatorname{Ra}(k)$$

$$p(x) = \frac{x}{k^2} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2k^2}}$$

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-\frac{x^2}{2k^2}}$$

$$F^{-1}(x) = k\sqrt{-2\ln(1-x)}$$

$$M_x(t) = 1 + \sigma t e^{\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\pi} \left( \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{\sigma t}{\sqrt{2}+1}\right) \right)$$

$$\mu = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} k \quad \sigma = \sqrt{\frac{4-\pi}{2}} k$$

$$\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

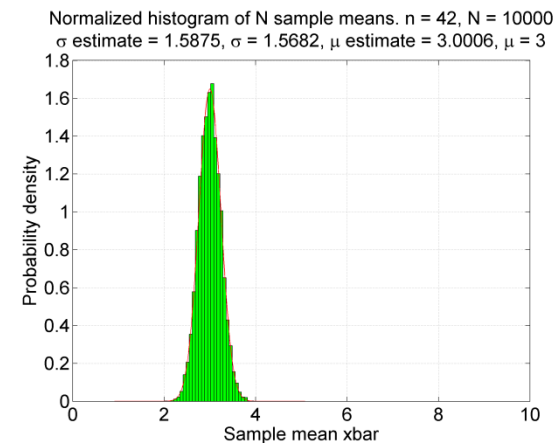
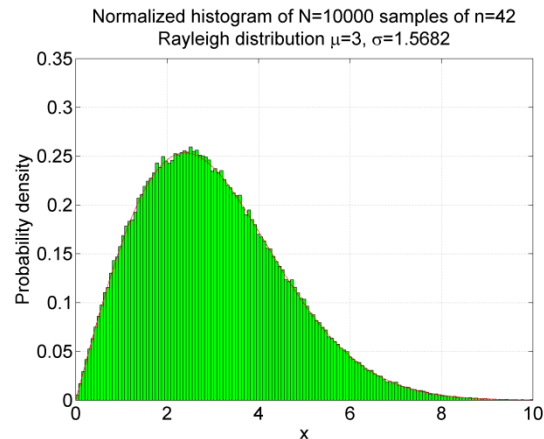
Error function

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$$

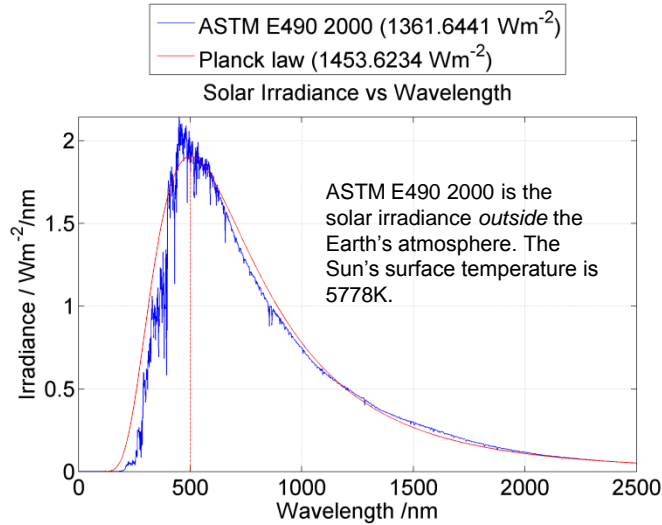
Gamma function

$$\gamma(x, a) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} \int_0^x t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt$$

Lower incomplete gamma function



**Planck distribution** of black-body radiation of wavelength  $\lambda$



$$B(\lambda) = \frac{2\pi hc^2}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda k_B T}} - 1}$$

Red	620-750nm
Yellow	570-590nm
Green	495-570nm
Blue	450-495nm

$k_B = 1.381 \times 10^{-23} \text{ JK}^{-1}$	Boltzmann's constant
$h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kgs}^{-1}$	Planck's constant
$c = 2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ ms}^{-1}$	Speed of light

$I = \int_0^\infty B(\lambda, T) d\lambda = \sigma T^4$	Total radiation intensity ( $\text{Wm}^{-2}$ )
$\sigma = \frac{2\pi^5 k_B^4}{15c^2 h^3} \approx 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ Wm}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-4}$	Stefan-Boltzmann constant

Note:  $\int_0^\infty \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} dx = \frac{\pi^4}{15}$

**Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution** of molecular speeds  $v$  in an *ideal gas*.  
 $m$  is the molecular mass and  $T$  the absolute temperature.

$$p(v)dv = 4\pi \left( \frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} v^2 e^{-\frac{\frac{1}{2}mv^2}{k_B T}} dv$$

$$\overline{v^2} = E[v^2] = \frac{3k_B T}{m} \therefore v_{rms} = \sqrt{\overline{v^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{3k_B T}{m}}$$

$$p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} (k_B T)^{-\frac{3}{2}} \sqrt{\varepsilon} e^{-\frac{\varepsilon}{k_B T}} d\varepsilon$$

$$E\left[\frac{1}{2}mv^2\right] = \frac{3}{2}k_B T$$

$$E[\varepsilon] = \text{degrees of freedom} \times \frac{1}{2}k_B T$$

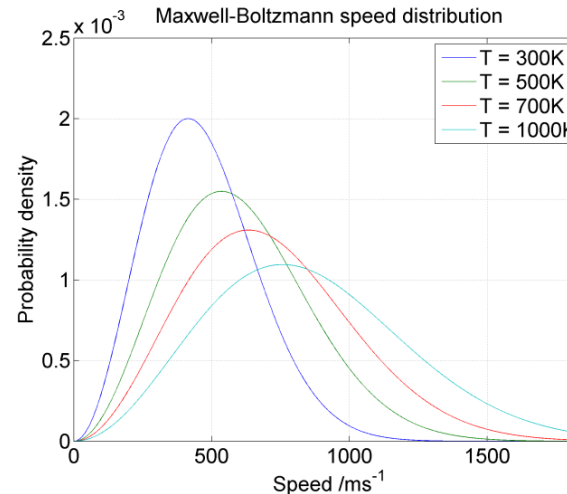
$I_n = \int_0^\infty x^n e^{-ax^2} dx$  Useful standard integrals

$$I_n = \frac{n-1}{2a} I_{n-2}$$

$$I_0 = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a}}$$

$$I_1 = \frac{1}{2a}$$

$$I_2 = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{4a^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$



## Weibull distribution

$$x \sim W(k, \lambda)$$

$$p(x) = \frac{k}{\lambda} \left( \frac{x}{\lambda} \right)^{k-1} e^{-\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^k}; \quad 0 \leq x < \infty$$

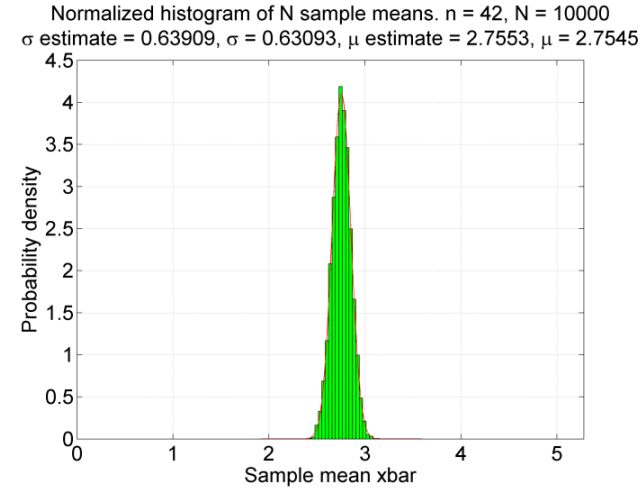
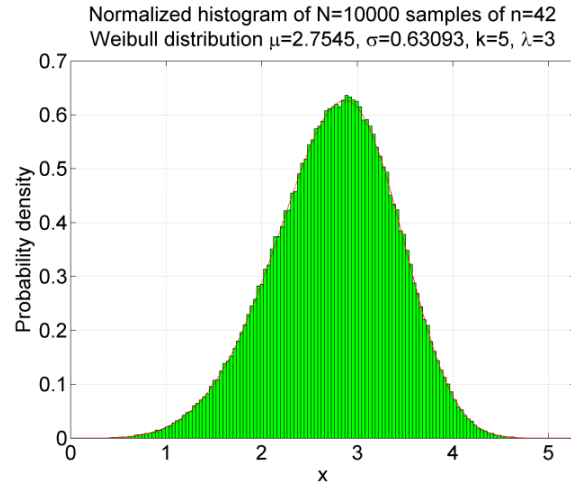
$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^k}$$

$$F^{-1}(x) = \lambda (-\ln(1-x))^{\frac{1}{k}}$$

$$M_x(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n \lambda^n}{n!} \Gamma\left(1 + \frac{n}{k}\right); \quad k \geq 1$$

$$\mu = \lambda \times \Gamma\left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right)$$

$$\sigma^2 = \lambda^2 \Gamma\left(1 + \frac{2}{k}\right) - \mu^2$$



$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$$

Gamma function

$$\gamma(x, a) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} \int_0^x t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt$$

Lower incomplete gamma function

## Gamma distribution

Note this is the distribution of a *sum* of independent, Exponentially distributed random variables

$$x \sim \text{Gamma}(k, \theta); \quad k, \theta > 0$$

$$p(x) = \frac{x^{k-1}}{\Gamma(k)\theta^k} e^{-\frac{x}{\theta}}$$

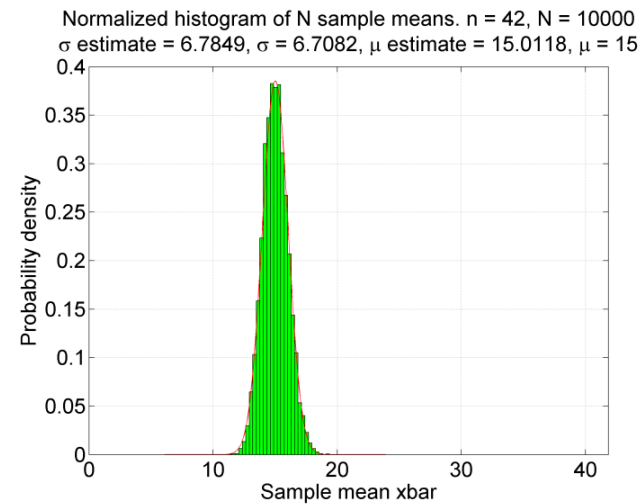
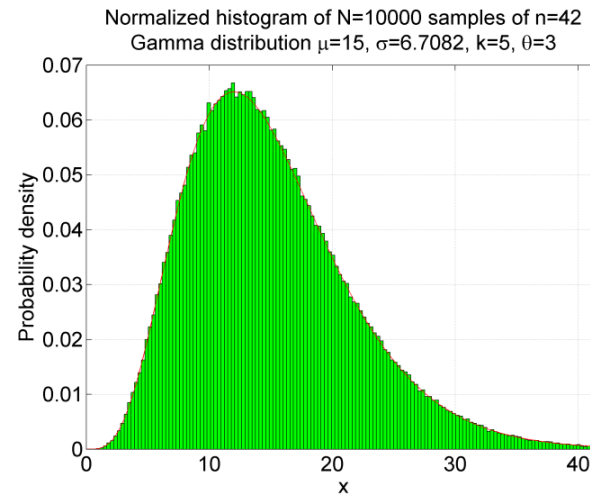
$$F(x) = \gamma\left(\frac{x}{\theta}, k\right)$$

$$F^{-1}(x) = \theta \gamma^{-1}(x, k)$$

$$M_x(t) = (1 - \theta t)^{-k}; \quad t < \frac{1}{\theta}$$

$$\mu = k\theta$$

$$\sigma^2 = k\theta^2$$



$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt \quad \gamma(x, a) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} \int_0^x t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt$$

## $\chi^2$ distribution

The distribution of sum of squares of independent random variables *which are themselves distributed* by a Normal distribution with mean 0 and standard deviation 1.

$$z_i \sim N(0,1)$$

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^k z_i^2$$

$$x \sim \chi^2(k)$$

$$p(x) = \frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}k-1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x}}{2^{\frac{1}{2}k} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}k)}$$

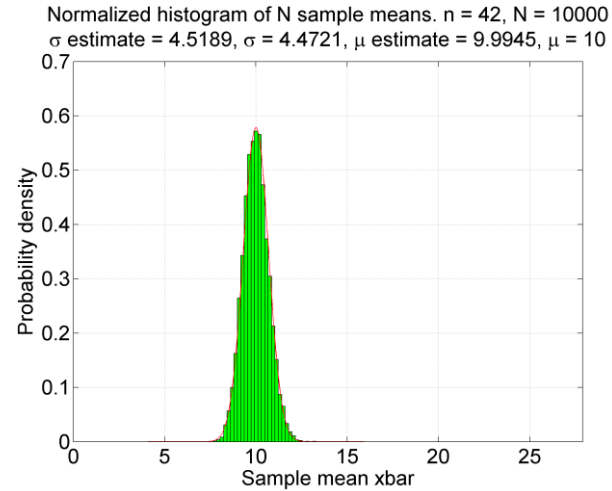
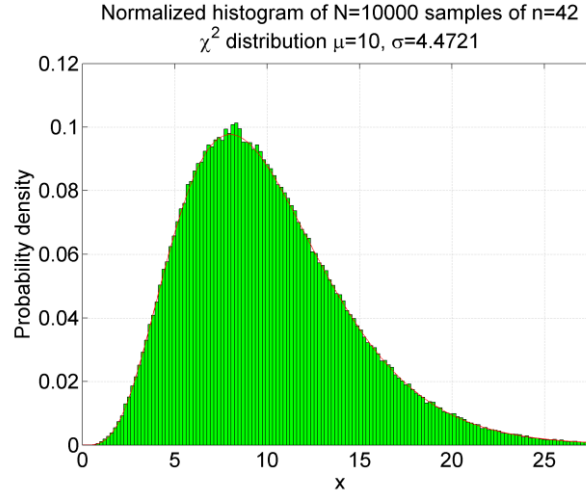
$$F(x, k) = \gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}x, \frac{1}{2}k\right)$$

$$F^{-1}(x, k) = 2\gamma^{-1}\left\{x, \frac{1}{2}k\right\}$$

$$M_x(t) = (1 - 2t)^{-\frac{1}{2}k} ; t < \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\mu = k$$

$$\sigma^2 = 2k$$



$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$$

Gamma function

$$\gamma(x, a) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} \int_0^x t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt$$

Lower incomplete gamma function

## Student's $t$ -distribution

If a sample size  $n$  is small and the sample is thought to derive from a normal distribution, the  $t$ -statistic will assess the possible range of values that the population mean will occur, given a sample mean and (unbiased) sample standard deviation.

$$t = \frac{\mu - \bar{x}}{\sqrt{s^2/n}}$$

$$t \sim \text{tdist}(v)$$

$$p(t, v) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(1+v))}{\sqrt{v\pi} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}v)} \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{v}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}(1+v)} ; v = n-1 ; n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

$$p(t, v) = \text{tpdf}(t, v)$$

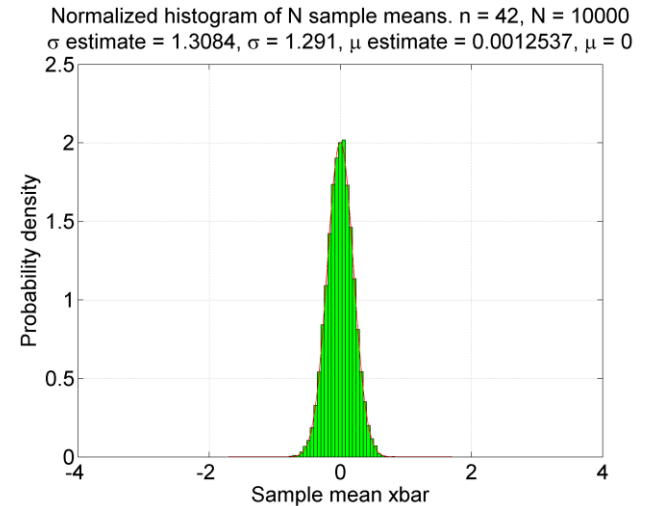
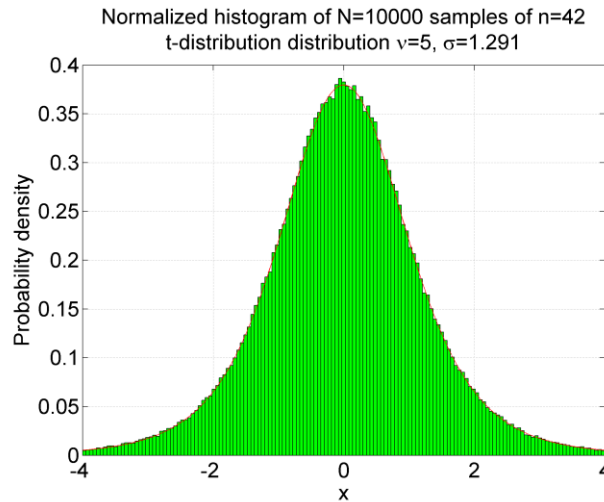
$$F(t, v) = \text{tcdf}(t, v)$$

$$F^{-1}(t, v) = \text{tinv}(t, v)$$

$$\mu = 0$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{v}{v-2}$$

These MATLAB functions require the *Statistics Toolbox*



## A selection of *discrete* probability distributions

The set of integers 0,1,2,... are the random variables. Each integer has a defined probability.

### Geometric distribution

The random variable  $x$  is the number of *binary trials* (i.e. success or failure) up to, and including, the first success.  $p$  is a fixed probability of success in each independent trial.

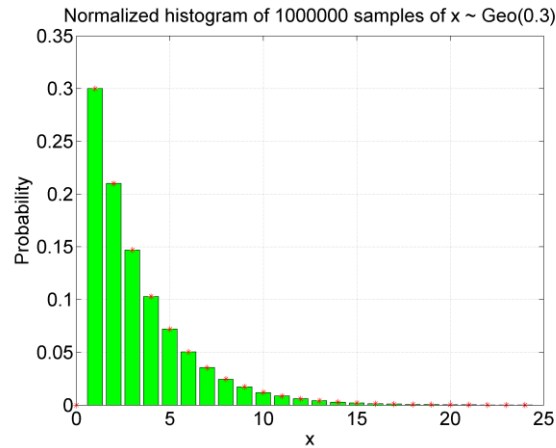
$$x \sim \text{Geo}(p)$$

$$p(x, p) = (1-p)^{x-1} p$$

$$M_x(t) = \frac{pe^t}{1-(1-p)e^t} ; t < -\ln(1-p)$$

$$\mu = \frac{1}{p}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$$



### Binomial distribution

The random variable  $x$  is the number of successes out of  $n$  independent binary (success or failure) trials.  $p$  is a fixed probability of success in each independent trial.

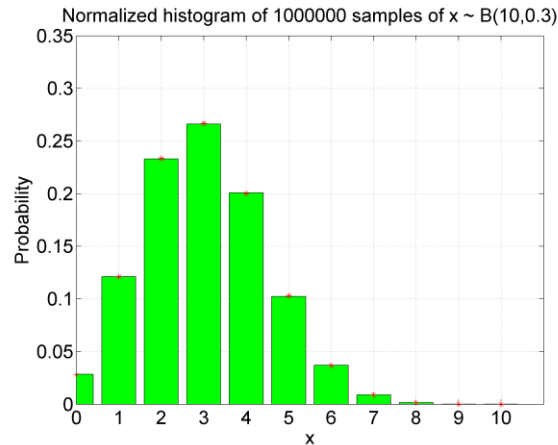
$$x \sim \text{B}(n, p)$$

$$p(x, n, p) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

$$M_x(t) = (1-p + pe^t)^n$$

$$\mu = np$$

$$\sigma^2 = np(1-p)$$



### Poisson distribution

The random variable  $x$  is the number occurrences (e.g. goals, telephone calls ....) in a set interval of time, given a mean rate of occurrence  $\lambda$ .

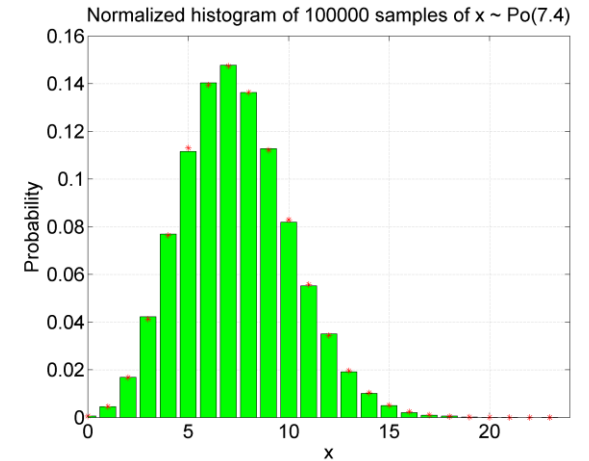
$$x \sim \text{Po}(\lambda)$$

$$p(x, \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$$

$$M_x(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$$

$$\mu = \lambda$$

$$\sigma^2 = \lambda$$



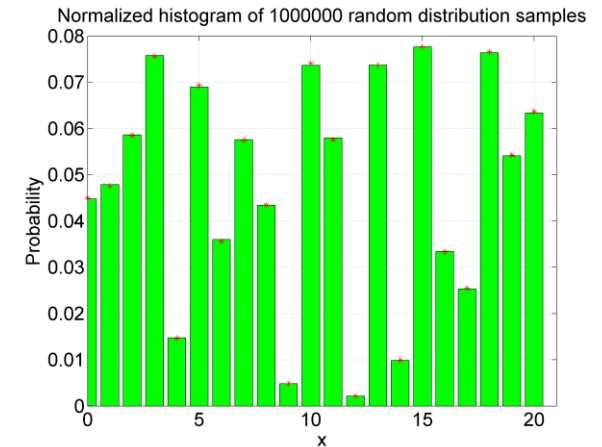
### Random distribution

$$x_i \sim \text{U}(0, 1)$$

$$P_n = \frac{x_n}{\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_j}$$

$$\mu = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} n \times p_n$$

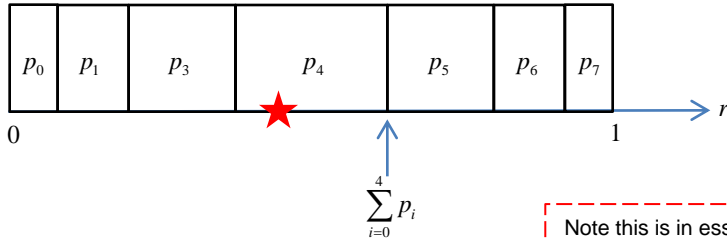
$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} n^2 \times p_n - \mu^2$$



## Generating random integers from discrete probability distributions

The fact that the sum of the probabilities in a discrete distribution must sum to unity can be used to generate random integers, assuming it is possible to generate a random number within the range [0,1].

Use the probabilities to form the edges of a series of 'boxes' which span the interval [0,1]. For every random fraction  $\sim U(0,1)$ , determine the box number which encloses the fraction. This box number is the random variable.



**Example:** consider a discrete distribution of eight possible probabilities, for the random integers 0...7 as show above. The widths of the boxes correspond to the probabilities.

A random number  $r \sim U(0,1)$  is chosen. ★  
This happens to be in the range:

$$\sum_{i=0}^3 p_i \leq r < \sum_{i=0}^4 p_i \quad \text{Cumulative distribution function}$$

so in this case the random number  $x = 4$  is selected.

%Number of binomially distributed numbers  
N = 1e6;

%Success probability  
p = 0.3;

%Number of binary trials  
n = 10;

%Fontsize for graphs  
fsize = 18;

%Distribution name  
name = 'binomial';

%Graph title string  
title\_str = ['Normalized histogram of ', num2str(N), '...  
' samples of  $x \sim B(\text{num2str}(n), \text{'', num2str}(p), \text{'')}$ '];

MATLAB code to generate  
the Binomial distribution example

Note this is in essence the same process as random number generation from continuous distributions. i.e. the output of the **inverse cumulative distribution function** with input being a random number from  $U(0,1)$

```
%Determine binomial probabilities P
P = zeros(1,n+1);
for k=0:n
    P(k+1) = nchoosek(n,k) * (p^k) * (1-p)^(n-k);
end

%Determine array of cumulative probabilities
CP = cumsum(P);
if CP(end)~=1
    CP = [CP,1];
end

%Generate N uniformly distributed random numbers in range [0,1]
z = rand(1,N);

%Define an array of cumulative probability, one element shifted.
%This is used to efficiently determine the 'bin' corresponding to z
CP0 = [0,CP(1:end-1)];

%For each number, determine the 'bin' number of a division of the interval
%[0,1] by the cumulative probabilities. If the first bin is zero, then
%these numbers should be distributed according to the probability
%distribution used to generate the cumulative probabilities.
x = zeros(1,N);
for k=1:length(CP)
    test = ( z >= CP0(k) ) & ( z <= CP(k) );
    x( test ) = k - 1;
end

%Ignore any values from final bin, if CP is longer than P
if numel(CP)>numel(P)
    x( x==numel(P) ) = [];
end

%Determine a normalized histogram of x values
xx = 0 : length(P) - 1;
h = hist( x, xx )/N;

%Plot normalized histogram
b = bar(xx,h);
set(b,'facecolor','g');
xlabel('x','fontsize',fsize);
ylabel('Probability','fontsize',fsize);
title(title_str,'fontsize',fsize);
grid on;
box on;
set(gca,'fontsize',fsize);
xlim([0,max(xx)+1]);

%Overlay probability distribution
hold on
plot(xx,P,'r*');

%Print PNG of graph
print(gcf, [name, '.png'], '-dpng', '-r300');
close(gcf);
```

