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# A Method of Sampling Certain Probability Densities Without Inversion of Their <br> Distribution Functions 



## by

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# A METHOD OF SAMPLING CERTAIN PROBABILITY DENSITIES WITHOUT INVERSION OF THEIR DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS 

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ABSTRACT


#### Abstract

A Monte Carlo device is described which bypasses the inversion $x=P^{-1}(r)$ involved in directly sampling the distribution $P(x)$ of a stochastic variable $x$ with given density $p(x)$. The method is practical for all linear and a broad class of quadratic densities.


## I. INTRODUCTION

It is a well-knowa maxim of Monte Carlo practice that one should never compute the square root $x=\sqrt{r}$ of a random number, but rather set $x$ equal to the greater of two such numbers. In general, if $p(x)$ is the density of a stochastic variable $x$ on $[a, b]$, and $P(x)=\int_{a}^{x} p(x) d x$ its distribution, the direct way of sampling for $x$ consists in setting a random number $r=P(x)$ and solving for $x=P^{-1}(r)$. This is how the equation $x=\sqrt{r}$ arises from the density $p(x)=$ $2 x$ on [ 0,1$]$. Since such inversions are usually time consuming if not intractable, it is important to provide simple alternatives when possible. The following is a scheme which generalizes the $\sqrt{r}$ device and applies in particular to the determination $x=\sqrt{1-\left(1-\xi^{2}\right) r}$ encountered in a previous report ${ }^{1}$ on sampling the Klein-Nishina distribution (see Part III below).

## II. THE GENERAL METHOD

For a distribution $P(x)$ on $[a, b]$, the function $f(r)=r^{-1} P(x), x=a+(b-a) r, 0<r<1$, has the properties

1. $f\left(0^{+}\right)=(b-a) p(a) \geqslant 0, f(1)=1$
2. $f^{-}(r)=r^{-2}[(x-a) p(x)-P(x)]$
3. $s d r+r d s=p(x) d x, s=f(r), x=a+(b-a) r$

Hence, if $f(r)$, in particular [by (2)] if $p(x)$, is increasing, then by (1) and (3), the probability $p(x) d x$ of $x$ on ( $x, x+d x$ ) is the chance of a random point ( $r^{-}, s^{\prime}$ ) of the unit square falling in the lower left region determined by ( $r, r+d r$ ), $(s, s+d s)$, and the curve $s=f(r)$. But this occurs iff either
(a) $r^{-1}$ is on ( $r, r+d r$ ) and $s^{-} \leqslant f\left(r^{-}\right)$, or $s^{-}$is on ( $s, s+d s$ ) and $r^{-} \leqslant f^{-1}\left(s^{\prime}\right)$, i.e.,
(b) $f^{-1}\left(s^{\prime}\right)$ is on $(r, r+d r)$ and $s^{-} \geqslant f\left(r^{\prime}\right)$.

Thus, $x$ will be obtained with density $p(x)$ if one follows

RULE 1. \{Increasing $\left.f(r)=r^{-1} P[a+(b-a) r]\right\}$
I. Generate random numbers $r^{\boldsymbol{}}, s^{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$
II. Define $\rho=\left\{\begin{array}{l}r^{\prime} \text { if } s^{\prime} \leqslant f\left(r^{\prime}\right) \\ f^{-1}\left(s^{\prime}\right) \text { if } s^{-}>f\left(r^{\prime}\right)\end{array}\right.$
III. Set $x=a+(b-a) \rho \quad$.

Analogously, the function $g(x)=r^{-1} Q(x)$, $Q(x)=\int_{x}^{b} p(x) d x, x=b-(b-a) r$, has properties
(1) $g\left(0^{+}\right)=(b-a) p(b) \geqslant 0, g(1)=1$
(2) $g^{-}(r)=r^{-2}[(b-x) p(x)-Q(x)]$
(3) $\quad s d r+r d s=p(x)(-d x) \geqslant 0, s=g(r)$, $x=b-(b-a) r$

Now, if $g(r)$ is increasing, in particular (by (2)) if $p(x)$ is decreasing, then it is clear that the density $p(x)$ results from

RULE 2. \{Increasing $\left.g(r)=r^{-1} Q[b-(b-a) r]\right\}$
I. Generate $r^{\prime}$, $s^{\prime}$
II. Define $\rho=\left\{\begin{array}{l}r^{\prime} \text { if } s^{-} \leqslant g\left(r^{\prime}\right) \\ g^{-1}\left(s^{\prime}\right) \text { if } s^{\prime}>g\left(r^{\prime}\right)\end{array}\right.$
III. Set $x=b-(b-a) p$.

## III. LINEAR DENSITIES

The method applies to any linear density $p(x)=c^{-1}\left(c_{0}+c_{1} x\right) \geqslant 0$ on $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$, where $c_{1} \neq 0$, and $c=(b-a)\left[c_{0}+\frac{1}{2} c_{1}(b+a)\right]$, thus bypassing solution of the quadratic equation $r=P(x)=$ $c^{-1}(x-a)\left[c_{0}+\frac{1}{2} c_{1}(x+a)\right]$ for $x$.

Case 1. If $c_{1}>0$, then for $x=a+(b-a) r$ one finds

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(r) & =r^{-1} P(x)=\left[c_{0}+c_{1} a+\frac{1}{2} c_{1}(b-a) r\right] \\
& \div\left[c_{0}+\frac{1}{2} c_{1}(b+a)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

increasing for $0 \leqslant r \leqslant 1$, and RULE 1 defines

$$
\begin{aligned}
x=a & +\max \mid(b-a) r^{-},\left(b+a+2 c_{0} c_{1}^{-1}\right) s^{-} \\
& \left.-2\left(a+c_{0} c_{1}^{-1}\right)\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

In particular, for $\xi$ fixed, $0<\xi<1$ and $p(x)=2 x /\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)$ on $[\xi, 1]$, this reads
$x=\xi+\max \left[(1-\xi) r^{\wedge},(1+\xi) s^{-}-2 \xi\right] \quad$.

For $\xi>0$, the latter provides an alternative to the choice $x=\sqrt{\xi^{2}+\left(1-\xi^{2}\right) r}$, while for $\xi=0$, it becomes $x=\max \left(r^{-}, s^{-}\right)$in lieu of $x=\sqrt{r}$, the example cited at the outset.

Case 2. If $c_{1}<0$, then for $x=b-(b-a) r$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(r) & =r^{-1} Q(x)=\left[c_{0}+c_{1} b-\frac{1}{2} c_{1}(b-a) r\right] \\
& \div\left[c_{0}+\frac{1}{2} c_{1}(b+a)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

increasing on $[0,1]$, and RULE 2 sets

$$
\begin{aligned}
x=b & -\max \left[(b-a) r^{-},-\left(b+a+2 c_{0} c_{1}^{-1}\right) s^{-}\right. \\
& \left.+2\left(b+c_{0} c_{1}^{-1}\right)\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

IV. QUADRATIC DENSITIES

For a quadratic density $p(x)=C^{-1} p_{1}(x)$, $p_{1}(x)=c_{0}+c_{1} x+c_{2} x^{2}$ on $[a, b]$, with $c_{2} \neq 0$,
$c=(b-a)\left[c_{0}+\frac{1}{2} c_{1}(b+a)+\frac{1}{3} c_{2}\left(b^{2}+b a+a^{2}\right)\right]$,
one obtains

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(r) & =r^{-1} p(x)=(b-a)\left[p(a)+\frac{1}{2} p^{-}(a) \lambda\right. \\
& \left.+\frac{1}{6} p^{-1}(a) \lambda^{2}\right], \quad x=a+\lambda, \quad p^{-1}(a)=2{C^{-1}}_{c_{2}} \\
& \lambda=(b-a) r,
\end{aligned}
$$

## whence

$f^{\prime}(r)=(b-a)^{2}\left[\frac{1}{2} p^{\prime}(a)+\frac{1}{3} p^{-1}(a) \lambda\right]$, $f^{-}(0)=\frac{1}{2}(b-a)^{2} p^{-}(a) \quad$.

Similarly,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(r) & =r^{-1} Q(x)=(b-a)\left[p(b)-\frac{1}{2} p^{-}(b) \lambda\right. \\
& \left.+\frac{1}{6} p^{-1}(b) \lambda^{2}\right], x=b-\lambda, p^{-1}(b)=2 C^{-1} c_{2}, \\
& \lambda=(b-a) r,
\end{aligned}
$$

with

$$
\begin{gathered}
g^{\prime}(r)=(b-a)^{2}\left[-\frac{1}{2} p^{-}(b)+\frac{1}{3} p^{-\infty}(b) \lambda\right], \\
g^{\prime}(0)=-\frac{1}{2}(b-a) p^{\prime}(b) .
\end{gathered}
$$

Now for such a $p(x)$ with $c_{2}>0$, it is evident that, since our method requires either $f^{\prime}(0) \geqslant 0$ or
$g^{\prime}(0) \geqslant 0$, we must have $p^{-}(a) \geqslant 0$ or $p^{\prime}(b) \leqslant 0$, and therefore $p(x)$ must be monotone on the whole range [a,b]. (Graphically, $y=p(x)$ is a parabola opening up.) The method of course applies to such densities, and we omit the obvious details.

More interesting is the fact that quadratic densities with $c_{2}<0$ (parabolas opening down), which are not necessarily monotone, are covered by the rules, provided the interval [ $a, b$ ] (lying between the zeros of $p(x)$ ) is sufficiently restricted to render $f(r)$ or $g(r)$ increasing on $[0,1]$. By the above remarks, it is clear that we are limited to the two cases:

Case 1. $f^{\prime}(0)>0, f^{\prime}(1) \geqslant 0$, equivalently, $a<-\frac{1}{2} c_{1} c_{2}^{-1}$ and $b<-\frac{1}{2}\left(a+\frac{3}{2} c_{1} c_{2}^{-1}\right)$, with RULE 1 applicable.

Case 2. $g^{-}(0)>0, g^{-}(1) \geqslant 0$, equivalently, $b>-\frac{1}{2} c_{1} c_{2}^{-1}$ and $a>-\frac{1}{2}\left(b+\frac{3}{2} c_{1} c_{2}^{-1}\right)$. Here RULE 2 applies. Obviously no $p(x)$ falls under both cases.

For quadratic $p(x)$, the method, when applicable, avoids solution of the cubic equation

$$
r=P(x)=\sum_{0}^{2} \frac{p^{(v)}(a)}{(v+1)!}(x-a)^{v+1}
$$

by means of a single square root. Even the latter might be avoided by further application of the rules to a linear density, but this we do not discuss, save to remark that one is led in this way to the well-known alternative $x=\max \left(r^{\prime}, s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right)$ for $x=r^{1 / 3}$ in the case of $p(x)=3 x^{2}$ on $[0,1]$.

The method, for the quadratic densities covered, is summarized below.

Define $\alpha=3\left(a+\frac{c_{1}}{2 c_{2}}\right), \quad B=3\left(b+\frac{c_{1}}{2 c_{2}}\right)$
$\lambda(s)=\frac{1}{2}\left\{-\alpha+\operatorname{sgn} c_{2} \sqrt{\alpha^{2}+12 c_{2}^{-1}\left[\frac{c}{b-a} s-p_{1}(a)\right]}\right\}$
$\mu(s)=\frac{1}{2}\left\{\beta+\operatorname{sgn} c_{2} \sqrt{\beta^{2}+12 c_{2}^{-1}\left[\frac{C}{b-a} s-p_{1}(b)\right]}\right\}$
(a) If $c_{2}>0, p_{1}^{\prime}(a) \geqslant 0$, or if $c_{2}<0$, $a<-c_{1} / 2 c_{2}, b \leqslant-\frac{1}{2}\left(a+\frac{3 c_{1}}{2 c_{2}}\right)$
set $\quad x=\left\{\begin{array}{l}a+(b-a) r^{\prime} ; s^{-} \leqslant f\left(r^{\prime}\right) \\ a+\lambda\left(s^{\prime}\right) ; s^{\prime}>f\left(r^{\prime}\right)\end{array}\right.$
(b) If $c_{2}>0, \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{l}}^{-}(\mathrm{b}) \leqslant 0$, or if $\mathrm{c}_{2}<0$,
$b>-c_{1} / 2 c_{2}, a>-\frac{1}{2}\left(a+\frac{3 c_{1}}{2 c_{2}}\right)$
set $\quad x=\left\{\begin{array}{l}b-(b-a) r^{\prime} ; s^{\prime} \leqslant g\left(r^{\prime}\right) \\ b-\mu\left(s^{\prime}\right) ; s^{\prime}>g\left(r^{\prime}\right)\end{array}\right.$

## V. NOTE ON STATISTICS

For a general density $p(x)$ on $[a, b]$, the probability of $x$ falling on a particular subinterval $[c, d]$ is $p=\int_{c}^{d} p(x) d x$. If, in an experiment of any kind, the event of assigning $x$ to [ $c, d$ ] has probability $p$ of success, and hence probability $q=1-p$ of failure; and if $M$ successes are observed in a large number $N$ of such experiments, then the central limit theorem asserts the approximate relation
$P\left|\left|\frac{M}{N}-p\right|<\varepsilon\right\} \cong \frac{2}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} \int_{0}^{t} e^{-u^{2} / 2} d u ; t=\varepsilon \sqrt{N / p q}$,
the difference depending only on $N, P$, and $q$.
It follows that the direct method $x=p^{-1}(x)$, and the method of choosing $x$ by the RULES, both involving experiments assigning $x$ to $[c, d]$ with probability $p$, are of identical statistical reliability. This is reflected in the following part.

## VI. TWO EXAMPLES

Example 1. The density
$P(x)=2 x /\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)=8 x / 3$ on $\xi=\frac{1}{2} \leqslant x \leqslant 1$
was sampled $N=10,000$ times by each of the two methods
$x=\sqrt{1-\frac{3}{4} r}$, and $\quad x=\frac{1}{2}+\max \left(\frac{1}{2} r^{-}, \frac{3}{2} s^{-}-1\right)$,
the values of $x$ obtained being classified in 10 equal subintervals of $\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right]$. The resulting $M_{i} / N$ with the exact probabilities $p_{i}$ are tabulated as follows.

| 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R00T | 0.0695 | 0.0797 | 0.0816 | 0.0884 | 0.0983 | 0.0962 | 0.1088 | 0.1230 | 0.1265 | 0.1280 |
| RULE | 0.0688 | 0.0767 | 0.0788 | 0.0898 | 0.0971 | 0.1023 | 0.1152 | 0.1209 | 0.1212 | 0.1292 |
| $\mathrm{P}_{\mathbf{1}}$ | 0.0700 | 0.0767 | 0.0833 | 0.0900 | 0.0967 | 0.1033 | 0.1100 | 0.1167 | 0.1233 | 0.1300 |

Example 2. The non-monotone density $p(x)=\frac{3}{164}\left(15-2 x-x^{2}\right)$ on $[-2,2]$ was sampled 10,000 times using RULE 2. The value assigned to $x$ by a trial involving $r^{-}, s^{-}$was $x=2-4 \rho$, where $\rho=r^{-}$if $41 s^{-}<21+r^{-}\left(36-16 r^{\wedge}\right)$, and
$\rho=\frac{1}{8}\left(9-\sqrt{165-164 s^{3}}\right)$ otherwise. The result of classifying the $x$ obtained in 10 equal subintervals of $[-2,2]$ is shown below, with corresponding exact probabilities $\mathrm{P}_{1}$.

| 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| RULE | 0.1139 | 0.1123 | 0.1221 | 0.1156 | 0.1143 | 0.1080 | 0.1002 | 0.0852 | 0.0730 | 0.0554 |
| $\mathrm{P}_{1}$ | 0.1123 | 0.1158 | 0.1170 | 0.1158 | 0.1123 | 0.1064 | 0.0982 | 0.0877 | 0.0748 | 0.0596 |

## REFERENCE

1. C. J. Everett, E. D. Cashwell, G. D. Turner, "A New Method of Sampling the Klein-Nishina Probability Distribution for All Incident Photon Energies Above 1 keV ," Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory report LA-4663 (May 1971).
