# Exact "combinatorial" simulation of continuous random variables 

Philippe Duchon (LaBRI, U. Bordeaux)

Séminaire Flajolet, April 2, 2015

## Simulating random variables

- All kinds of simulation problems require the use of random numbers


## Simulating random variables

- All kinds of simulation problems require the use of random numbers
- Many classical distributions, either discrete (uniform, geometric, Poisson...) or continuous (uniform, exponential, normal. ..)


## Simulating random variables

- All kinds of simulation problems require the use of random numbers
- Many classical distributions, either discrete (uniform, geometric, Poisson...) or continuous (uniform, exponential, normal...)
- (Almost ?) all programming languages provide access to pseudorandom numbers, either discrete (uniform integers over [ $[a, b]]$ ) or continuous (uniform over $[0,1])$ )


## Simulating random variables

- All kinds of simulation problems require the use of random numbers
- Many classical distributions, either discrete (uniform, geometric, Poisson...) or continuous (uniform, exponential, normal. ..)
- (Almost ?) all programming languages provide access to pseudorandom numbers, either discrete (uniform integers over [ $[a, b]]$ ) or continuous (uniform over [ 0,1$]$ ))
- Exact simulation algorithms are known for many distributions, usually assuming exact computations over the reals


## Simulating random variables

- All kinds of simulation problems require the use of random numbers
- Many classical distributions, either discrete (uniform, geometric, Poisson...) or continuous (uniform, exponential, normal. ..)
- (Almost?) all programming languages provide access to pseudorandom numbers, either discrete (uniform integers over [ $[a, b]]$ ) or continuous (uniform over $[0,1]$ ))
- Exact simulation algorithms are known for many distributions, usually assuming exact computations over the reals
- The reference : Devroye (1986)



## Basic simulation tricks

- Distribution function inversion : if $U$ is uniform and $F(x)$ is the (continuous, strictly increasing) distribution function $(F(x)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq x))$ for some distribution, $X=F^{-1}(U)$ has repartition function $F$


## Basic simulation tricks

- Distribution function inversion : if $U$ is uniform and $F(x)$ is the (continuous, strictly increasing) distribution function $(F(x)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq x))$ for some distribution, $X=F^{-1}(U)$ has repartition function $F$
- Rejection : if $g$ is the density of some distribution (that one knows how to simulate), $f$ is some other density with $f(x) \leq c . g(x)$ for some $c$ and all $x$, the following rejection algorithm loops, on average, $1 / c$ times, and simulates density $f$ :
- draw $X$ (g-distributed)
- with probability $f(X) /(c . g(X))$, output $X$; otherwise, restart


## Basic simulation tricks

- Distribution function inversion : if $U$ is uniform and $F(x)$ is the (continuous, strictly increasing) distribution function $(F(x)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq x))$ for some distribution, $X=F^{-1}(U)$ has repartition function $F$
- Rejection : if $g$ is the density of some distribution (that one knows how to simulate), $f$ is some other density with $f(x) \leq c . g(x)$ for some $c$ and all $x$, the following rejection algorithm loops, on average, $1 / c$ times, and simulates density $f$ :
- draw $X$ (g-distributed)
- with probability $f(X) /(c . g(X))$, output $X$; otherwise, restart
- Rejection can be used when densities are only proportional to functions $f$ and $g$ with, say, $f \leq g$, without identifying/computing the multiplicative constant


## Typical basic examples

- If $U$ is uniform over $[0,1],-\ln (1-U)$ is exponentially distributed (distribution function inversion)


## Typical basic examples

- If $U$ is uniform over $[0,1],-\ln (1-U)$ is exponentially distributed (distribution function inversion)
- (Kahn 1954 ; rejection) For the (absolute value of) a normal variable :
- draw $E$ and $X$, independent exponentials
- if $2 E \geq(X-1)^{2}$, return $X$; otherwise, restart


## Typical basic examples

- If $U$ is uniform over $[0,1],-\ln (1-U)$ is exponentially distributed (distribution function inversion)
- (Kahn 1954 ; rejection) For the (absolute value of) a normal variable:
- draw $E$ and $X$, independent exponentials
- if $2 E \geq(X-1)^{2}$, return $X$; otherwise, restart (conditioned on $X$, the acceptance probability is $\left.\exp \left(-(X-1)^{2} / 2\right)=\exp \left(-x^{2} / 2\right) / \exp (-x)\right)$
- All the previous techniques require

1. a generator of independent, uniform variables on $[0,1]$
2. exact evaluation of transcendental functions and constants, integrals, etc.

- All the previous techniques require

1. a generator of independent, uniform variables on $[0,1]$
2. exact evaluation of transcendental functions and constants, integrals, etc.

- For many discrete distributions, the Buffon machines of [Flajolet, Pelletier, Soria 2011] allow to only use
- flip() (Bernoulli with parameter $1 / 2$; "coin flips")
- Bern[p]() (Bernoulli with parameter $p$, for unknown parameters $p \in(0,1))$
- basic integer arithmetic and bookkeeping (small counters)
- All the previous techniques require

1. a generator of independent, uniform variables on $[0,1]$
2. exact evaluation of transcendental functions and constants, integrals, etc.

- For many discrete distributions, the Buffon machines of [Flajolet, Pelletier, Soria 2011] allow to only use
- flip() (Bernoulli with parameter $1 / 2$; "coin flips")
- Bern[p]() (Bernoulli with parameter $p$, for unknown parameters $p \in(0,1))$
- basic integer arithmetic and bookkeeping (small counters)
- Can we do the same for a variety of continuous distributions? In a more or less systematic way?


## Precursor : von Neumann's algorithm

- J. von Neumann, 1951 "Various techniques used in connection with random digits" (3 pages)



## Precursor : von Neumann's algorithm

- J. von Neumann, 1951 "Various techniques used in connection with random digits" (3 pages)

- describes an exact algorithm for the exponential distribution, using only
- independent uniforms on $[0,1]$
- comparisons of reals
- (small) integer counters


## The algorithm

1. Initialize counter $K$ to 0
2. Draw a sequence $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots X_{n}$ of independent uniforms on $[0,1]$, until the first ascent $\left(X_{n}>X_{n-1}\right)$
3. If $n$ is odd : failure ; increment failure counter $K$, and go to 2 .
4. (Otherwise) $n$ is even : success, return $K+X_{1}$

## The algorithm

1. Initialize counter $K$ to 0
2. Draw a sequence $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots X_{n}$ of independent uniforms on $[0,1]$, until the first ascent $\left(X_{n}>X_{n-1}\right)$
3. If $n$ is odd : failure ; increment failure counter $K$, and go to 2 .
4. (Otherwise) $n$ is even : success, return $K+X_{1}$

Proposition (von Neumann) : This algorithm terminates with probability 1, and its output follows the exponential distribution (density $\left.f(x)=\exp (-x) \mathbf{1}_{x>0}\right)$. The expected number of uniforms used is $\frac{e+e^{2}}{e-1} \simeq 5.88$.

## Running the algorithm : an example

- Uniform sequence : $0.78,0.04,0.92,0.01,0.83,0.22 \ldots$


## Running the algorithm : an example

- Uniform sequence : $0.78,0.04,0.92,0.01,0.83,0.22 \ldots$
- First attempt : $0.78>0.04$


## Running the algorithm : an example

- Uniform sequence : $0.78,0.04,0.92,0.01,0.83,0.22 \ldots$
- First attempt : $0.78>0.04<0.92$ : odd length series, restart ( $K=1$ )


## Running the algorithm : an example

- Uniform sequence : $0.78,0.04,0.92,0.01,0.83,0.22 \ldots$
- First attempt : $0.78>0.04<0.92$ : odd length series, restart ( $K=1$ )
- Second attempt : $0.01<0.83$ : even length, stop


## Running the algorithm : an example

- Uniform sequence : $0.78,0.04,0.92,0.01,0.83,0.22 \ldots$
- First attempt : $0.78>0.04<0.92$ : odd length series, restart ( $K=1$ )
- Second attempt: $0.01<0.83$ : even length, stop
- The output value is $1+0.01=1.01$


## Proof of the algorithm (sketch)

- The probability that, in an infinite sequence of iid uniforms, the first ascent occurs with the $n$-th element is $1 /(n-1)!-1 / n$ !


## Proof of the algorithm (sketch)

- The probability that, in an infinite sequence of iid uniforms, the first ascent occurs with the $n$-th element is $1 /(n-1)!-1 / n$ !
- Summing, the probability of the first ascent being in an odd position (restarting) is

$$
p=\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{(2 k)!}-\frac{1}{(2 k+1)!}=e^{-1}
$$

## Proof of the algorithm (sketch)

- The probability that, in an infinite sequence of iid uniforms, the first ascent occurs with the $n$-th element is $1 /(n-1)!-1 / n$ !
- Summing, the probability of the first ascent being in an odd position (restarting) is

$$
p=\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{(2 k)!}-\frac{1}{(2 k+1)!}=e^{-1}
$$

- For $x \in[0,1]$ and $n \geq 2$, the probability of having $X_{1} \leq x$ and first ascent on the $n$-th elements, is $x^{n-1} /(n-1)!-x^{n} / n$ !


## Proof of the algorithm (sketch)

- The probability that, in an infinite sequence of iid uniforms, the first ascent occurs with the $n$-th element is $1 /(n-1)!-1 / n$ !
- Summing, the probability of the first ascent being in an odd position (restarting) is

$$
p=\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{(2 k)!}-\frac{1}{(2 k+1)!}=e^{-1}
$$

- For $x \in[0,1]$ and $n \geq 2$, the probability of having $X_{1} \leq x$ and first ascent on the $n$-th elements, is $x^{n-1} /(n-1)!-x^{n} / n$ !
- Summing again : the probability of "success" with $X_{1} \leq x$, is $1-e^{-x}$ (the distribution function for an exponential on $[0,1]$ )


## Proof of the algorithm (sketch)

- The probability that, in an infinite sequence of iid uniforms, the first ascent occurs with the $n$-th element is $1 /(n-1)!-1 / n$ !
- Summing, the probability of the first ascent being in an odd position (restarting) is

$$
p=\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{(2 k)!}-\frac{1}{(2 k+1)!}=e^{-1}
$$

- For $x \in[0,1]$ and $n \geq 2$, the probability of having $X_{1} \leq x$ and first ascent on the $n$-th elements, is $x^{n-1} /(n-1)!-x^{n} / n$ !
- Summing again : the probability of "success" with $X_{1} \leq x$, is $1-e^{-x}$ (the distribution function for an exponential on $[0,1]$ )
- For the algorithm : the final value of $K$ follows the geometric distribution with parameter $1-e^{-1}$, and the (independent) value of $X_{1}$ conditioned on success is distributed as an exponential, conditioned on being $\leq 1$; the sum is exponentially distributed.


## "Combinatorial simulation" of continuous distributions

- What we would like to obtain : exact simulation algorithms for a large enough family of continuous probability distributions, not requiring the use of "complex" operations over the reals


## "Combinatorial simulation" of continuous distributions

- What we would like to obtain : exact simulation algorithms for a large enough family of continuous probability distributions, not requiring the use of "complex" operations over the reals
- Certainly no evaluations of transcendental functions; if possible, only basic arithmetic operations


## "Combinatorial simulation" of continuous distributions

- What we would like to obtain : exact simulation algorithms for a large enough family of continuous probability distributions, not requiring the use of "complex" operations over the reals
- Certainly no evaluations of transcendental functions; if possible, only basic arithmetic operations
- Ideally : algorithms that could be "humanly" run by treating reals as infinite digit strings (and only using finite prefixes) no multiplications other than by powers of 2


## "Combinatorial simulation" of continuous distributions

- What we would like to obtain : exact simulation algorithms for a large enough family of continuous probability distributions, not requiring the use of "complex" operations over the reals
- Certainly no evaluations of transcendental functions; if possible, only basic arithmetic operations
- Ideally: algorithms that could be "humanly" run by treating reals as infinite digit strings (and only using finite prefixes) no multiplications other than by powers of 2
- If we allow arbitrary products, then Kahn's method (and von Neumann's algorithm for the exponential) shows that the normal distribution admits such a restricted simulation algorithm.


## "Combinatorial simulation" of continuous distributions

- What we would like to obtain : exact simulation algorithms for a large enough family of continuous probability distributions, not requiring the use of "complex" operations over the reals
- Certainly no evaluations of transcendental functions; if possible, only basic arithmetic operations
- Ideally: algorithms that could be "humanly" run by treating reals as infinite digit strings (and only using finite prefixes) no multiplications other than by powers of 2
- If we allow arbitrary products, then Kahn's method (and von Neumann's algorithm for the exponential) shows that the normal distribution admits such a restricted simulation algorithm.
- [Karney, 2013] describes such a product-less algorithm.


## Extending the method

- "the above method can be modified to yield a distribution satisfying any first-order differential equation" (von Neumann)


## Extending the method

- "the above method can be modified to yield a distribution satisfying any first-order differential equation" (von Neumann)
- Natural interpretation : assume the target density satisfies a linear first-order differential equation $y^{\prime}(t)=g(t) \cdot y(t)$, for some given function $g$


## Extending the method

- "the above method can be modified to yield a distribution satisfying any first-order differential equation" (von Neumann)
- Natural interpretation : assume the target density satisfies a linear first-order differential equation $y^{\prime}(t)=g(t) \cdot y(t)$, for some given function $g$
- (This includes the density for the normal distribution : $\left.y^{\prime}(t)=-t . y(t)\right)$


## Extending the method

- "the above method can be modified to yield a distribution satisfying any first-order differential equation" (von Neumann)
- Natural interpretation : assume the target density satisfies a linear first-order differential equation $y^{\prime}(t)=g(t) \cdot y(t)$, for some given function $g$
- (This includes the density for the normal distribution : $\left.y^{\prime}(t)=-t . y(t)\right)$
- This is essentially the interpretation of [Forsythe, 1972] ; but the described method involves computing integrals based on solving the equation (to tabulate the probability that the target random variable takes values in a collection of disjoint intervals)


## Extending the method

- "the above method can be modified to yield a distribution satisfying any first-order differential equation" (von Neumann)
- Natural interpretation : assume the target density satisfies a linear first-order differential equation $y^{\prime}(t)=g(t) \cdot y(t)$, for some given function $g$
- (This includes the density for the normal distribution : $\left.y^{\prime}(t)=-t . y(t)\right)$
- This is essentially the interpretation of [Forsythe, 1972] ; but the described method involves computing integrals based on solving the equation (to tabulate the probability that the target random variable takes values in a collection of disjoint intervals)
- Today: description of an exact simulation method that is slightly more involved, but does not require the evaluation of any integrals or transcendental functions not in $g$.


## Main result

- Suppose our target distribution (over the positive reals) has a density $f$, satisfying differential equation $y^{\prime}(t)=-g(t) \cdot y(t)$ for some given function $g$ (at most one solution is a probability density)


## Main result

- Suppose our target distribution (over the positive reals) has a density $f$, satisfying differential equation $y^{\prime}(t)=-g(t) \cdot y(t)$ for some given function $g$ (at most one solution is a probability density)
- Assume $g$ satisfies some "quadrant" condition : there should exist some $a \geq 0$ with $m=g(a)>0$, such that
- $g(t) \leq g(a)$ if $t \leq a$
- $g(t) \geq g(a)$ if $t \geq a$


## Main result

- Suppose our target distribution (over the positive reals) has a density $f$, satisfying differential equation $y^{\prime}(t)=-g(t) \cdot y(t)$ for some given function $g$ (at most one solution is a probability density)
- Assume $g$ satisfies some "quadrant" condition : there should exist some $a \geq 0$ with $m=g(a)>0$, such that
- $g(t) \leq g(a)$ if $t \leq a$
- $g(t) \geq g(a)$ if $t \geq a$
- Assume we are given $g$ (as a "black box" function), $a$, and some (black box) "upper bounding" function $h(t, u)$ such that, for any $t \leq u, h(t, u) \geq \sup _{t \leq x \leq u} g(x)$


## Main result

- Suppose our target distribution (over the positive reals) has a density $f$, satisfying differential equation $y^{\prime}(t)=-g(t) \cdot y(t)$ for some given function $g$ (at most one solution is a probability density)
- Assume $g$ satisfies some "quadrant" condition : there should exist some $a \geq 0$ with $m=g(a)>0$, such that
- $g(t) \leq g(a)$ if $t \leq a$
- $g(t) \geq g(a)$ if $t \geq a$
- Assume we are given $g$ (as a "black box" function), $a$, and some (black box) "upper bounding" function $h(t, u)$ such that, for any $t \leq u, h(t, u) \geq \sup _{t \leq x \leq u} g(x)$
- Then we provide an exact simulation algorithm, using only uniform reals, additions, division by $m$, comparisons, and evaluations of $g$ and $h$


## Main result

- Suppose our target distribution (over the positive reals) has a density $f$, satisfying differential equation $y^{\prime}(t)=-g(t) \cdot y(t)$ for some given function $g$ (at most one solution is a probability density)
- Assume $g$ satisfies some "quadrant" condition : there should exist some $a \geq 0$ with $m=g(a)>0$, such that
- $g(t) \leq g(a)$ if $t \leq a$
- $g(t) \geq g(a)$ if $t \geq a$
- Assume we are given $g$ (as a "black box" function), a, and some (black box) "upper bounding" function $h(t, u)$ such that, for any $t \leq u, h(t, u) \geq \sup _{t \leq x \leq u} g(x)$
- Then we provide an exact simulation algorithm, using only uniform reals, additions, division by $m$, comparisons, and evaluations of $g$ and $h$
- (Notice that the conditions reduce to $g$ as a black box if $g$ is known to be nondecreasing)


## The "quadrant condition"



## The differential equation

- The differential equation has solutions
$f(t)=f\left(t_{0}\right) e^{-\int_{t_{0}}^{t} g(u) d u}$; initial condition $f\left(t_{0}\right)$ would be determined by condition $\int_{0}^{\infty} f(t) d t=1$ (but we will be proceeding by rejection and thus need not compute them)


## The differential equation

- The differential equation has solutions
$f(t)=f\left(t_{0}\right) e^{-\int_{t_{0}}^{t} g(u) d u}$; initial condition $f\left(t_{0}\right)$ would be determined by condition $\int_{0}^{\infty} f(t) d t=1$ (but we will be proceeding by rejection and thus need not compute them)
- Taking $t_{0}=a$ for the initial condition, the "quadrant" condition implies that the density is upper bounded by the solution to $y^{\prime}(t)=-m . y(t)$ with the same initial condition : for all $t \geq 0$,

$$
f(t) \leq f(a) e^{-m(t-a)}
$$

## The differential equation

- The differential equation has solutions
$f(t)=f\left(t_{0}\right) e^{-\int_{t_{0}}^{t} g(u) d u}$; initial condition $f\left(t_{0}\right)$ would be determined by condition $\int_{0}^{\infty} f(t) d t=1$ (but we will be proceeding by rejection and thus need not compute them)
- Taking $t_{0}=a$ for the initial condition, the "quadrant" condition implies that the density is upper bounded by the solution to $y^{\prime}(t)=-m . y(t)$ with the same initial condition : for all $t \geq 0$,

$$
f(t) \leq f(a) e^{-m(t-a)}
$$

- We could try a rejection scheme : simulate an exponential $E$ (using the von Neumann algorithm) and set $X=E / m$, then return $X$ with appropriate probability, or restart.


## The differential equation

- The differential equation has solutions
$f(t)=f\left(t_{0}\right) e^{-\int_{t_{0}}^{t} g(u) d u}$; initial condition $f\left(t_{0}\right)$ would be determined by condition $\int_{0}^{\infty} f(t) d t=1$ (but we will be proceeding by rejection and thus need not compute them)
- Taking $t_{0}=a$ for the initial condition, the "quadrant" condition implies that the density is upper bounded by the solution to $y^{\prime}(t)=-m \cdot y(t)$ with the same initial condition: for all $t \geq 0$,

$$
f(t) \leq f(a) e^{-m(t-a)}
$$

- We could try a rejection scheme : simulate an exponential $E$ (using the von Neumann algorithm) and set $X=E / m$, then return $X$ with appropriate probability, or restart.
- Only, the acceptance probability is not something we are allowed to compute :

$$
\exp \left(-\int_{a}^{X} g(t) d t+m(X-a)\right)=\exp \left(-\int_{a}^{X}(g(t)-m) d t\right)
$$

## Digression: "Buffon generator" for $x \mapsto e^{-x}$

(Flajolet, Pelletier, Soria 2011)

- Hypothesis : we can draw uniforms, and have access to a Bernoulli generator with parameter $p$, for some unknown $0<p<1$, Bern() (i.e., Bern() returns 1 with probability $p$ and 0 with probability $1-p$ on each call, with calls being independent)


## Digression: "Buffon generator" for $x \mapsto e^{-x}$

(Flajolet, Pelletier, Soria 2011)

- Hypothesis : we can draw uniforms, and have access to a Bernoulli generator with parameter $p$, for some unknown $0<p<1$, Bern() (i.e., Bern() returns 1 with probability $p$ and 0 with probability $1-p$ on each call, with calls being independent)
- Then we have a von Neumann-like algorithm for a Bernoulli with parameter $e^{-p}$
- Draw a sequence of independent pairs $\left(X_{i}, B_{i}\right)$ with $X_{i}$ uniform on $[0,1]$, and $B_{i}$ an independent Bernoulli with parameter $p$
- Stop at the first $n$ such that $B_{n}=0$ or $X_{n-1}<X_{n}$ (Bernoulli fails, or ascent in the $X$ sequence)
- Return 1 if $n$ is odd, 0 if $n$ is even
- Draw a sequence of independent pairs $\left(X_{i}, B_{i}\right)$ with $X_{i}$ uniform on $[0,1]$, and $B_{i}$ an independent Bernoulli with parameter $p$
- Stop at the first $n$ such that $B_{n}=0$ or $X_{n-1}<X_{n}$ (Bernoulli fails, or ascent in the $X$ sequence)
- Return 1 if $n$ is odd, 0 if $n$ is even
(proof along the same line as for von Neumann's algorithm, with powers of $p$ addded, hence the $e^{-p}$ instead of $e^{-1}$ )


## Back to the simulation algorithm

- We need to "accept with probability $\exp (-I)$ ", i.e. draw a Bernoulli whose parameter is the exponential of some integral.


## Back to the simulation algorithm

- We need to "accept with probability $\exp (-I)$ ", i.e. draw a Bernoulli whose parameter is the exponential of some integral.
- Under suitable conditions, an integral can be interpreted as a probability for an easy-to-simulate event (that a random point falls into some domain)


## Back to the simulation algorithm

- We need to "accept with probability $\exp (-I)$ ", i.e. draw a Bernoulli whose parameter is the exponential of some integral.
- Under suitable conditions, an integral can be interpreted as a probability for an easy-to-simulate event (that a random point falls into some domain)
- If needed, the integral can be written as a sum of integrals on smaller intervals (and the exponential becomes a product of exponentials; the Bernoulli variable becomes a product of Bernoulli variables).


## Picking intervals

Assume $X>a$; the case $X<a$ is treated analogously)

- We need to split the interval $[a, X]$ into a number of smaller intervals $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{K} ; A_{i}=\left[a_{i-1}, a_{i}\right]$.


## Picking intervals

Assume $X>a$; the case $X<a$ is treated analogously)

- We need to split the interval $[a, X]$ into a number of smaller intervals $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{K} ; A_{i}=\left[a_{i-1}, a_{i}\right]$.
- Set $a_{0}=0$.


## Picking intervals

Assume $X>a$; the case $X<a$ is treated analogously)

- We need to split the interval $[a, X]$ into a number of smaller intervals $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{K} ; A_{i}=\left[a_{i-1}, a_{i}\right]$.
- Set $a_{0}=0$.
- Assume $a_{i}$ is known : compute $M=h\left(a_{i}, 1+a_{i}\right)$. If $M \leq 1$, then set $a_{i+1}=1+a_{i}$, and repeat.


## Picking intervals

Assume $X>a$; the case $X<a$ is treated analogously)

- We need to split the interval $[a, X]$ into a number of smaller intervals $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{K} ; A_{i}=\left[a_{i-1}, a_{i}\right]$.
- Set $a_{0}=0$.
- Assume $a_{i}$ is known : compute $M=h\left(a_{i}, 1+a_{i}\right)$. If $M \leq 1$, then set $a_{i+1}=1+a_{i}$, and repeat.
- If $M>1$, then let $M^{\prime}$ denote the smallest power of 2 larger than $M$, and, for each $1 \leq k \leq M^{\prime}$, set $a_{i+k}=a_{i}+k / M^{\prime}\left(M^{\prime}\right.$ intervals of length $1 / M^{\prime}$ ), and repeat


## Picking intervals

Assume $X>a$; the case $X<a$ is treated analogously)

- We need to split the interval $[a, X]$ into a number of smaller intervals $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{K} ; A_{i}=\left[a_{i-1}, a_{i}\right]$.
- Set $a_{0}=0$.
- Assume $a_{i}$ is known : compute $M=h\left(a_{i}, 1+a_{i}\right)$. If $M \leq 1$, then set $a_{i+1}=1+a_{i}$, and repeat.
- If $M>1$, then let $M^{\prime}$ denote the smallest power of 2 larger than $M$, and, for each $1 \leq k \leq M^{\prime}$, set $a_{i+k}=a_{i}+k / M^{\prime}\left(M^{\prime}\right.$ intervals of length $1 / M^{\prime}$ ), and repeat
- Stop at the first $K$ such that $a_{k} \geq X$; instead set $a_{K}=X$


## Rejection probability

- Now the wanted integral is

$$
\int_{a}^{X}(g(t)-m) d t=\sum_{i=0}^{K} \int_{A_{i}}(g(t)-m) d t=\sum_{i} P_{i}
$$

## Rejection probability

- Now the wanted integral is

$$
\int_{a}^{X}(g(t)-m) d t=\sum_{i=0}^{K} \int_{A_{i}}(g(t)-m) d t=\sum_{i} P_{i}
$$

- Each smaller integral can be interpreted as a probability, i.e. the probability that a uniform random point $(X, Y)$ in the rectangle $A_{i} \times\left[0,1 /\left(a_{i}-a_{i-1}\right)\right]$ (with area 1 ) satisfies $m \leq Y \leq g(X)$


## Rejection probability

- Now the wanted integral is

$$
\int_{a}^{X}(g(t)-m) d t=\sum_{i=0}^{K} \int_{A_{i}}(g(t)-m) d t=\sum_{i} P_{i}
$$

- Each smaller integral can be interpreted as a probability, i.e. the probability that a uniform random point $(X, Y)$ in the rectangle $A_{i} \times\left[0,1 /\left(a_{i}-a_{i-1}\right)\right]$ (with area 1 ) satisfies $m \leq Y \leq g(X)$
- Thus we can apply the "exponential Buffon" construction to obtain a Bernoulli with parameter $\exp \left(-P_{i}\right)$


## Rejection probability

- Now the wanted integral is

$$
\int_{a}^{X}(g(t)-m) d t=\sum_{i=0}^{K} \int_{A_{i}}(g(t)-m) d t=\sum_{i} P_{i}
$$

- Each smaller integral can be interpreted as a probability, i.e. the probability that a uniform random point $(X, Y)$ in the rectangle $A_{i} \times\left[0,1 /\left(a_{i}-a_{i-1}\right)\right]$ (with area 1 ) satisfies $m \leq Y \leq g(X)$
- Thus we can apply the "exponential Buffon" construction to obtain a Bernoulli with parameter $\exp \left(-P_{i}\right)$
- and in turn, obtain the wanted Bernoulli with parameter $\exp \left(-\sum_{i} P_{i}\right)$, by taking the product (conjunction) of each individual Bernoulli for each smaller interval : this completes the algorithm.


## The case of the normal distribution

- Take the normal density, $f(t)=\sqrt{2 \pi}^{-1} \exp \left(-x^{2} / 2\right)$, as the target density.


## The case of the normal distribution

- Take the normal density, $f(t)=\sqrt{2 \pi}^{-1} \exp \left(-x^{2} / 2\right)$, as the target density.
- (We simulate the absolute value, then add a random sign)


## The case of the normal distribution

- Take the normal density, $f(t)=\sqrt{2 \pi}^{-1} \exp \left(-x^{2} / 2\right)$, as the target density.
- (We simulate the absolute value, then add a random sign)
- Differential equation : $y^{\prime}(t)=-t . y(t), g(t)=t$.


## The case of the normal distribution

- Take the normal density, $f(t)=\sqrt{2 \pi}^{-1} \exp \left(-x^{2} / 2\right)$, as the target density.
- (We simulate the absolute value, then add a random sign)
- Differential equation : $y^{\prime}(t)=-t . y(t), g(t)=t$.
- $g$ is increasing, any value of $a>0$ will do ; $a=1$ is Kahn's method (and minimizes the rejection probability)


## The case of the normal distribution

- Take the normal density, $f(t)=\sqrt{2 \pi}^{-1} \exp \left(-x^{2} / 2\right)$, as the target density.
- (We simulate the absolute value, then add a random sign)
- Differential equation : $y^{\prime}(t)=-t . y(t), g(t)=t$.
- $g$ is increasing, any value of $a>0$ will do ; $a=1$ is Kahn's method (and minimizes the rejection probability)
- The upper bounding function is naturally $h(t, u)=\max (t, u)$


## The case of the normal distribution

- Take the normal density, $f(t)=\sqrt{2 \pi}^{-1} \exp \left(-x^{2} / 2\right)$, as the target density.
- (We simulate the absolute value, then add a random sign)
- Differential equation : $y^{\prime}(t)=-t . y(t), g(t)=t$.
- $g$ is increasing, any value of $a>0$ will do ; $a=1$ is Kahn's method (and minimizes the rejection probability)
- The upper bounding function is naturally $h(t, u)=\max (t, u)$
- Strictly applying the previous interval description yields 2 intervals [1,3/2] and [3/2, 2], then 4 intervals for each of $[2,3]$ and $[3,4]$, then 8 intervals for each of $[k, k+1]$ for $k=4,5,6,7$, and so on.


## The case of the normal distribution

- Take the normal density, $f(t)=\sqrt{2 \pi}^{-1} \exp \left(-x^{2} / 2\right)$, as the target density.
- (We simulate the absolute value, then add a random sign)
- Differential equation : $y^{\prime}(t)=-t . y(t), g(t)=t$.
- $g$ is increasing, any value of $a>0$ will do; $a=1$ is Kahn's method (and minimizes the rejection probability)
- The upper bounding function is naturally $h(t, u)=\max (t, u)$
- Strictly applying the previous interval description yields 2 intervals [ $1,3 / 2$ ] and $[3 / 2,2$ ], then 4 intervals for each of $[2,3]$ and $[3,4]$, then 8 intervals for each of $[k, k+1]$ for $k=4,5,6,7$, and so on.
- (In practice, large values of $X$ are very likely to be rejected; the rejection part should be run after each increment of the $K$ counter for the exponential after $K=1$, so as to allow early rejection)


## Running the algorithm digit-by-digit

- The previous algorithms are very suitable to an adaptation to bit-by-bit computations


## Running the algorithm digit-by-digit

- The previous algorithms are very suitable to an adaptation to bit-by-bit computations
- In any base $B$, uniforms over $[0,1]$ have a $B$-ary development made of independent uniform $\{0, \ldots, B-1\}$ digits


## Running the algorithm digit-by-digit

- The previous algorithms are very suitable to an adaptation to bit-by-bit computations
- In any base $B$, uniforms over $[0,1]$ have a $B$-ary development made of independent uniform $\{0, \ldots, B-1\}$ digits
- Comparisons of reals reduce to lexicographic order of strings


## Running the algorithm digit-by-digit

- The previous algorithms are very suitable to an adaptation to bit-by-bit computations
- In any base $B$, uniforms over $[0,1]$ have a $B$-ary development made of independent uniform $\{0, \ldots, B-1\}$ digits
- Comparisons of reals reduce to lexicographic order of strings
- The algorithms can be adapted to bit-by-bit simulation : each uniform is only simulated up to the precision required by comparisons, and later completed as needed


## Running the algorithm digit-by-digit

- The previous algorithms are very suitable to an adaptation to bit-by-bit computations
- In any base $B$, uniforms over $[0,1]$ have a $B$-ary development made of independent uniform $\{0, \ldots, B-1\}$ digits
- Comparisons of reals reduce to lexicographic order of strings
- The algorithms can be adapted to bit-by-bit simulation : each uniform is only simulated up to the precision required by comparisons, and later completed as needed
- Such algorithms output a finite $B$-ary string, with the meaning "if more precision is needed, add random digits"


## Running the algorithm digit-by-digit

- The previous algorithms are very suitable to an adaptation to bit-by-bit computations
- In any base $B$, uniforms over $[0,1]$ have a $B$-ary development made of independent uniform $\{0, \ldots, B-1\}$ digits
- Comparisons of reals reduce to lexicographic order of strings
- The algorithms can be adapted to bit-by-bit simulation : each uniform is only simulated up to the precision required by comparisons, and later completed as needed
- Such algorithms output a finite $B$-ary string, with the meaning "if more precision is needed, add random digits"
- von Neumann's algorithm was analysed by [Flajolet, Saheb, 1986] ; uses on average $k+5.72$.. bits to output $k$ bits of the exponential random variable


## Running the algorithm digit-by-digit

- The previous algorithms are very suitable to an adaptation to bit-by-bit computations
- In any base $B$, uniforms over $[0,1]$ have a $B$-ary development made of independent uniform $\{0, \ldots, B-1\}$ digits
- Comparisons of reals reduce to lexicographic order of strings
- The algorithms can be adapted to bit-by-bit simulation : each uniform is only simulated up to the precision required by comparisons, and later completed as needed
- Such algorithms output a finite $B$-ary string, with the meaning "if more precision is needed, add random digits"
- von Neumann's algorithm was analysed by [Flajolet, Saheb, 1986] ; uses on average $k+5.72$.. bits to output $k$ bits of the exponential random variable
- In our general differential equation algorithm, we need a bit more than just a black box function $g$ (unless $g$ is known to be increasing)


## Conclusion

- We obtain exact, "von-Neumann-Buffon-like" algorithms for the simulation of a (not too well-defined) class of distributions that includes the normal distribution


## Conclusion

- We obtain exact, "von-Neumann-Buffon-like" algorithms for the simulation of a (not too well-defined) class of distributions that includes the normal distribution
- For the normal distribution, this is very similar to Karney's algorithm, described at the digit level


## Conclusion

- We obtain exact, "von-Neumann-Buffon-like" algorithms for the simulation of a (not too well-defined) class of distributions that includes the normal distribution
- For the normal distribution, this is very similar to Karney's algorithm, described at the digit level
- In the general case, this is very close to what Devroye described as "the von Neumann-Forsythe method"


## Conclusion

- We obtain exact, "von-Neumann-Buffon-like" algorithms for the simulation of a (not too well-defined) class of distributions that includes the normal distribution
- For the normal distribution, this is very similar to Karney's algorithm, described at the digit level
- In the general case, this is very close to what Devroye described as "the von Neumann-Forsythe method"
- No analysis of the expected (bit) complexity yet (will depend on the quality of upper bound $h$ in the general method)


## Conclusion

- We obtain exact, "von-Neumann-Buffon-like" algorithms for the simulation of a (not too well-defined) class of distributions that includes the normal distribution
- For the normal distribution, this is very similar to Karney's algorithm, described at the digit level
- In the general case, this is very close to what Devroye described as "the von Neumann-Forsythe method"
- No analysis of the expected (bit) complexity yet (will depend on the quality of upper bound $h$ in the general method)
- The method is unlikely to be competitive with numerical methods (possibly paired with certified floating point calculations), unless one needs very high precision on their random variables


## Thank you for your attention

