Monte Carlo Non-Uniform Random Numbers

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Non-Uniform Random Numbers Introduction

- Typically, to draw random numbers in a non-uniform way following a given distribution is not an easy task; and it needs to be crafted for each distribution!
- A solution is to convert uniform random number into a non-uniform one.
- How?
 - All the information that we need about how a random variable X is distributed is inside its CDF:

$$F_X(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(x) dx.$$

Inverting the CDF

- How do we extract this information from the CDF?
- we obtain:

$$P(X \le x) = P(F_X^{-1}(u) \le x)$$
$$P(u \le F_X^{-1}(u) \le x)$$

In this way, we can have X values with F_X as distribution!

• Let's say we generate a random value $u \in U(0,1)$, and we set $X = F_{x}^{-1}(U)$, $x) = P(F_X(F_X^{-1}(u)) \le F_X(x)) =$

 $P(u \leq F_X(x)) = F_X(x).$

• Given the CDF of a distribution:

$$F_X(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^x p_X(x) dx.$$

- We generate a non-uniform random numbers as:
 - We first generate a uniform random number, $u \in U(0,1)$;
 - Then, we compute: lacksquare

u' =

$$=F_X^{-1}(u).$$













- Note that we draw uniform random numbers $u \in (0,1)$.
- Why?

- Note that we draw uniform random numbers $u \in (0,1)$.
- Why?
 - 0 and 1 may generate some singularities:
 - NaN, +Inf, -Inf

- Note that if $u \sim U(0,1)$ we have that $1 u \sim U(0,1)$.
- This means that $F^{-1}(1-u) \sim F$.
 - In some cases, to compute $F^{-1}(u)$ may be difficult.
 - In these cases the complementary inversion equation may be easier to compute!







- In such cases, the inverse is not unique, and it can happen for both continuous and discrete distributions!
- A solution to this problem is:

 $F_X^{-1}(u) = \inf \left\{ x \, \middle| \, F_X(u) \ge u \land u \in (0,1) \right\}.$

Inverting the CDF Example: Uniform Distribution

• The uniform distribution is defined as

• Its CDF is given by:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \qquad x \in [a, b].$$

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_{-\infty}^{x} dx = \frac{x}{b-a}.$$

• So let's compute its inverse:

 $y = \frac{x}{b-a}$ multiply both sides by (b-a)

$$x = y(b - a)$$

Inverting the CDF Example: Exponential Distribution

• Standard exponential distribution is:

f(x) = ext

• Its CDF is given by:

F(

• So let's compute its inverse:

$$p(-x) \qquad x > 0.$$

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} e^{-x} dx = 1 - e^{-x}$$
$$y = 1 - e^{-x}$$

 $y - 1 = -e^{-x}$ add -1 both sides

- $1 y = e^{-x}$ multiply by -1 both sides
- $log(1 y) = log(e^{-x})$ apply log to both sides
- $x = -\log(1 y)$ simplify and multiply by -1 both sides

Inverting the CDF Example: Exponential Distribution

- Now, in order to draw samples exponentially distributed, $X_i \sim \text{Exp}(1)$, we do:
 - $Y_i \in \mathbf{U}(0,1);$
 - $X_i = -\log(1 Y_i)$.
- Note that doing the inversion, we have the same distribution and its faster:
 - $Y_i \in \mathbf{U}(0,1);$
 - $X_i = -\log(Y_i)$.
- may create a singularity!

In this case it would not be safe to draw 0 and 1 for Y_i because depending on the method it

Inverting the CDF Example: Exponential Distribution



Inverting the CDF Example: Normal Distribution

• Normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$:

• Its CDF is:

- $F(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{x}$
- Note that there is not closed form for $\Phi(x)$.
- $\Phi(x)$ is related to the Erf function:

$$\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^x \exp(-t^2) dt \qquad \Phi(x) = \frac{\operatorname{erf}(x/\sqrt{2}) + 1}{2}.$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right).$$

$$\exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right)dx = \Phi(x).$$

Inverting the CDF Example: Normal Distribution

- In this case, we need to invert $\Phi(x)$ to obtain $\Phi^{-1}(x)$:
 - There is no closed-form for $\Phi^{-1}(x)$.
 - Typically, we have algorithms for erf and its inverse:
 - $\Phi^{-1}(x) = 2\pi \text{erf}^{-1}(2x 1).$
 - We need to use an approximation such as the AS70:
 - R. E. Odeh and J.O. Evans. "Algorithm AS 70: the percentage points of the normal distribution". Applied Statistics, 23(1):96-97. 1974.

Inverting the CDF Transformations: Linear Transformation

- In some cases, if we have a distribution F with mean 0 and variance 1, we may want to shift its mean by μ and scale it to have variance $\sigma^2 > 1$:
 - $X \sim F_X \rightarrow Y = \sigma X + \mu$, and *Y* is our random variable with the desired distribution.
 - To achieve this, we have to:

$$f_Y(y) =$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma} f_X\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

Inverting the CDF Transformations

- Transformations can be very general. Let's assume:
 - $X \sim F_X$;
 - $Y = \tau(X)$ where τ is an invertible increasing function. This means:

 $P(Y \le y) = P(\tau(X) \le y) = P(X \le \tau^{-1}(y)).$

• Therefore, Y has the following PDF:

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} P\left(X \le \tau^{-1}(y)\right) = f_X(\tau^{-1}(y)) \frac{d}{dy} \tau^{-1}(y).$$

• Note that:

$$\frac{d}{dx}P(X \le x)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{x} f_X(x) dx \right).$$

Inverting the CDF Transformations: An Example

Let's define:

- Let's assume that $X \sim U(0,1)$:
 - This means: $Y = \tau(X) = X^p$ with PDF:

$\tau(x) = x^p$ where p > 0.

$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{p} y^{\frac{1}{p}-1} \quad y \in (0,1).$

Inverting the CDF Numerical Inversion

- It can happen that we may have F, but we cannot invert it.
- In such cases there are other options:
 - We can use bisection algorithms to search x such that F(x) = u.
 - Newton's method:

 λ_{i+1} –

• Although bisection can get the job done, it is very slow. Another viable option is to

$$x_i - \frac{F(x_i) - u}{f(x_i)}$$

• The only issue here is that this method may not converge when f is close to 0.

Inverting the CDF Inversion for Discrete Random Variables

- In many situations, we may face to have discrete distributions; i.e., histograms.
- that bin.



• In a histogram H, we have $1, \ldots, N$ bins and each bin has a frequency number associated to

Inverting the CDF Inversion for Discrete Random Variables

• At this point, we have can define a random variable X such that

$$P(X=k) =$$

• In this case, the cumulative distribution is defined as:

$$P_k = \sum_{i=1}^k$$

• In order to compute:

$$F^{-1}(u) = k$$

we have to run the binary search on the cumulative distribution using $u \sim U(0,1)$.

 $P(X = k) = p_k = H'[k] \ge 0.$

 $P_{k} = \sum_{i} p_{i}$ with $P_{0} = 0$.

- $k \quad u \in (P_{k-1}, P_k],$

Acceptance-Rejection

- that we want.
- - We reject some values from G;
 - We accept other values from G;
 - In accepting and rejecting, we try to get F.

• In some cases, we cannot use the inversion method to get the F distribution

• When this happens, we can employ another distribution G; key concepts:

- The first step is to find a distribution G such that its PDF g(x):
 - $f(x) \le cg(x)$ $c \ge 1$ always holds;
 - We can compute:

 $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$

repeat $Y \sim g;$ $U \sim U(0,1);$ until $U \leq f(Y)/(cg(Y))$ $X \leftarrow Y$ return X

repeat	
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sorem 4.2 in Owen's book s us that the generated mples have PDF *f*.


Acceptance-Rejection Main Idea



Acceptance-Rejection Main Idea



Acceptance-Rejection Main Idea



- The Ziggurat algorithm is an acceptance-rejection method for drawings sampling according to normal distribution (i.e., half).
- The method divides the region below $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ into k (e.g., 256) horizontal regions that are ideally of similar area; i.e., equiprobable.
- At this point, the method generate samples points (Z, Y) uniformly distributed in each region such that:

$$\left\{ (z, y) \middle| y \in [0, \exp(-z^2/2); x \in [0, \infty)] \right\}$$

• Typically, the normalization factor $1/\sqrt{2\pi}$ is ignored for speeding the algorithm up.



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NOTE: most of generated samples





Random Vectors aka Joint PDFs

Joint PDFs Main Idea

• Typically, it can happen to have joint probabilities; e.g., sampling shapes such as disks, triangles, etc. So we end up to have:

• In such cases, we firstly compute the marginal density p(x) as:

p(x) =

• Then, we compute the conditional density as:

p(y|x)

p(x, y).

$$\int_{\mathscr{D}_x} p(x, y) dy.$$

$$x) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)}.$$

Joint PDFs Main Idea

• At this point, we compute the CDF of p(x) and p(y | x) through integration:

$$P(x) =$$

- $P(y \mid x) =$
- Finally, we draw samples by inverting these CDFs:

$$n_1 = P^{-1}(u_1)$$

$$n_2 = P^{-1}(u_1 \,|\, u_1 \,|\,$$

= p(t)dt, and

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{y} p(t \,|\, x) dt.$$

·(**0**,1), $u_1 \in \mathbf{U}$ $u_2 \in \mathbf{U}(0,1).$ $u_2)$

Joint PDFs Main Idea

- The method, we have just seen, is called sequential inversion.
- This process can be extended to d dimension.

- Let's say we want to sample a unit disk in a uniform way.
- The disk looks simple, but it has hidden insidious challenges!
- The wrong approach:

$$r = u_1$$
 $\theta = 2\pi u_2$

- Then, we remap into XY coordinates:
 - $(x, y) = [\cos(\theta)r, \sin(\theta)r].$

$u_1 \in \mathbf{U}(0,1)$ $u_2 \in \mathbf{U}(0,1).$





Samples are focusing in the center!

rl



Samples are focusing in the center!

BY THE WAY, THAT'S VEERY BAD!

- The PDF, p(x, y), has to be a constant!
- Assuming a unit disk, this has to be:

p(x,

Let's transform it in polar coordinate

p(r)

$$y = \frac{1}{\pi}$$
es:
$$r = \frac{r}{\theta}$$

• Let's compute the marginal density:

$$p(r) = \int_0^{2\pi} p(r,\theta) d\theta =$$

• Now, we can compute the conditional density:

$$p(\theta \mid r) = \frac{p(r, \theta)}{p(r)} = \frac{\frac{r}{\pi}}{2r} = \frac{r}{\pi} \frac{1}{2r} = \frac{1}{2\pi}.$$

• We need to invert their CDFs!



• The first CDF is:

$$P(r) = \int_0^r 2x dx$$

• The second CDF is:

$$P(\theta \,|\, r) = \int_0^\theta \frac{1}{2\pi} dx \to P^{-1}(x) = 2\pi x.$$

• Now, we have all pieces to generate samples:

$$r = \sqrt{u_1} \qquad \theta = 2\pi u_2$$

$u_1 \in \mathbf{U}(0,1)$ $u_2 \in \mathbf{U}(0,1).$

$$= r^2 \to P^{-1}(x) = \sqrt{x}.$$





- Φ , is to use transformations:
 - Box-Muller Method:
 - distribution.
 - Their joint PDF is:

 $p_{XY}(x, y) = p_X(x)p_Y(y) = \frac{\exp(-x)}{\sqrt{2}}$ $\sqrt{2\pi}$

• An alternative to generate normally distributed random numbers, without inverting

• Let's say, we have two independent variables, X and Y, that have normal

$$\frac{2}{2} \frac{2}{2} \cdot \frac{\exp(-y^2/2)}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \frac{\exp(-(x^2 + y^2)/2)}{2\pi}$$



$$J = \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(r, \theta)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Knowing that $x^2 + y^2 = r$ and $|\det(J)| = r$, we can define the joint PDF as:

$$f(r,\theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp(-r^2/2)$$

• Note that θ and R are independent variables:

$$X = R\cos(\theta$$

• We convert the distribution in coordinate(x, y) in polar coordinates (r, θ) using the Jacobian matrix:



 $r \quad \theta \in [0, 2\pi] \quad r \in (0, \infty).$

 $Y = R \sin(\theta).$

- We can compute the PDF of *R* as: $f_{P}(r) = r \exp(-\frac{1}{2})$
- This leads to:

•
$$X = \sqrt{-2 \log U_1} \cos(2\pi U_2)$$
,
• $Y = \sqrt{-2 \log U_1} \sin(2\pi U_2)$,
where $U_1, U_2 \sim \mathbf{U}(0, 1)$.

 $f_R(r) = r \exp(-r^2/2)$ $r \in (0,\infty).$

• We can compute the PDF of *R* as:

$$f_R(r) = r \exp(-\frac{1}{2}r)$$

• This leads to:

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$$X = \sqrt{-2 \log U_1} \cos(2\pi U_2)$$

• $Y = \sqrt{-2 \log U_1} \sin(2\pi U_2)$
where $U_1, U_2 \sim \mathbf{U}(0, 1)$.

$-r^2/2$) $r \in (0,\infty).$

2), Always check $U_1 \in (0,1)$,), and better to add: $\sqrt{\max(-2\log U_1, 0)}$



- In this case, we want to generates random vectors, directions, that are normalized; i.e., $\|\overrightarrow{\omega_i}\| = 1$.
- \mathbf{X}_{i}^{S} , because we can convert them into normal directions as:

$$\overrightarrow{\omega}_{i} = \frac{\mathbf{x}_{i}^{s} - \mathbf{c}}{\|\mathbf{x}_{i}^{s} - \mathbf{c}\|}, \quad \overrightarrow{\omega}_{i}(\theta, \phi) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi \sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \\ \sin \phi \sin \theta \end{bmatrix},$$

where c is the center of the hemisphere.

• This problem is similar to generating points on the surface of the hemisphere,







 Let's assume that the sphere has radius 1. Since it is a uniform sampling, the PDF is constant:

$$p(\vec{\omega}_i) = \frac{1}{2\pi}$$
; i.e., the inv

Note that:

$$\omega_x = \sin\theta\cos\phi \quad \omega_y$$

• We need to convert from $p(\omega)$ to $p(\theta, \phi)$. such transformation:

$$p(\omega) = p(\theta, \phi) |J_t| \qquad |J_t|$$

verse of the area of half sphere.

 $\omega_{y} = \cos\theta \quad \omega_{x} = \sin\theta\sin\phi.$

• We need to convert from $p(\omega)$ to $p(\theta, \phi)$. Therefore, we need to compute the Jacobian for

 $V_t = \sin \theta \to p(\omega) = p(\theta, \phi) \sin \theta.$

• At this point, we compute the marginal density:

$$p(\theta) = \int_0^{2\pi} p(\theta, phi) d\phi = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2\pi} \sin \theta = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin \theta = \sin \theta.$$

- Then, we compute the conditional density as:
 - $p(\phi \mid \theta) =$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} u_1$$
 $\phi = 2\pi u_2$ $u_1, u_2 \in \mathbf{U}(0, 1).$

$$\frac{p(\theta,\phi)}{p(\theta)} = \frac{1}{2\pi}.$$

• Finally, we compute the marginal of both these densities, we invert them, and we get:

• Practically, we do not compute θ , but we compute directly $\cos \theta$ as:

• $\cos \theta = u_1$ $u_1 \in \mathbf{U}(0,1).$

•
$$\sin \theta = \sqrt{1 - (\cos \theta)^2} = \sqrt{1 - u_1^2}.$$

• The direction vector is given by:

$$\vec{\omega} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\phi\sin\theta\\ \cos^{-1}\theta\\ \sin\phi\sin\theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\pi u_2)\sqrt{1-u_1^2}\\ u_1\\ \sin(2\pi u_2)\sqrt{1-u_1^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Note: we could generate our vector with less math by using rejection sampling, but it would take more time.

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Joint PDFs From Hemisphere To Sphere

• In this case, $\cos^{-1}\theta = 1 - 2u_1$, so with a few changes:

$$\overrightarrow{\omega} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\phi\sin\theta \\ \cos^{-1}\theta \\ \sin\phi\sin\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\pi u_2) 2\sqrt{u_1(1-u_1)} \\ 1-2u_1 \\ \sin(2\pi u_2) 2\sqrt{u_1(1-u_1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Joint PDFs The Multi-Dimensional Sphere

• The *d*-dimensional sphere is defined:

• In order to generate uniform samples over S is to compute:

• Where the PDF is:

$$p_{Y}(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{-\frac{d}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}}{2}\right)$$

$$S = \left(\mathbf{x} \, \big| \, \| \mathbf{x} \| = 1 \right).$$

$$X = \frac{\mathbf{Y}}{\|\mathbf{Y}\|} \qquad Z \sim N(0, I_d) \ .$$

One More Thing...

One Last Thing... **Other Random Objects**

- Permutations:
 - We may need to generate random permutations in uniformly.
- Matrices: lacksquare
 - matrices.
- Graphs:
 - a social network.
 - its adjacency matrix.

• We may need to create random matrices following a given distribution. For example, orthogonal

• To generate a random graphs, G = (V, E), is useful to have models of real-world networks; e.g.,

• The problem is basically to generate a $n \times n$ binary random matrix; i.e., the graph is defined by
One Last Thing... **Random Objects: Permutations**

- A permutation, π , of *n* elements is defined as:
- A uniform random permutations can be computed as:

• This is uniform algorithm has probability $\frac{1}{n!}$.

$\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 1, & \dots, & n \\ \pi_1, & \dots, & \pi_n \end{pmatrix}.$

- $\pi = (1, ..., n)$
- for i = n, ..., 2 do
 - $j \sim \mathbf{U}(1,i)$
 - $swap(\pi_i, \pi_j)$

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Thank you for your attention!