

Chapter 4

Generating Discrete Random Variables

Ali Raisolsadat

School of Mathematical and Computational Sciences
University of Prince Edward Island

1. The Inverse Transform Method

- Generate Discrete Random Variable

- Fisher–Yates Shuffle

- Monte Carlo Approximation of a Mean

2. Generating Known Discrete Random Variables

- Generating Geometric Random Variable

- Generating Poisson Random Variables

- Generating Binomial Random Variables

- Next Lecture

The Inverse Transform Method

Generate Discrete Random Variable

- Suppose that we want to generate the value of a discrete random variable X having probability mass function

$$P\{X = x_j\} = p_j, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, \quad \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} p_j = 1.$$

- To accomplish this, we generate a random number $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ and set

$$X = \begin{cases} x_0, & \text{if } U < p_0, \\ x_1, & \text{if } p_0 \leq U < p_0 + p_1, \\ \vdots & \\ x_j, & \text{if } \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} p_i \leq U < \sum_{i=0}^j p_i, \\ \vdots & \end{cases}$$

- Since for $0 < a < b < 1$, $P\{a \leq U < b\} = b - a$, we have

$$P\{X = x_j\} = P\left\{\sum_{i=0}^{j-1} p_i \leq U < \sum_{i=0}^j p_i\right\} = p_j,$$

and so X has the desired distribution.

Generate Discrete Random Variable

1. The preceding can be written algorithmically as:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Generate a random number } U, \\ \text{If } U < p_0, \text{ set } X = x_0 \text{ and stop,} \\ \text{If } U < p_0 + p_1, \text{ set } X = x_1 \text{ and stop,} \\ \text{If } U < p_0 + p_1 + p_2, \text{ set } X = x_2 \text{ and stop,} \\ \vdots \end{array} \right.$$

2. If the $x_i, i \geq 0$ are ordered so that $x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots$, and if we let F denote the distribution function of X , then $F(x_k) = \sum_{i=0}^k p_i$, and

$$X = x_j \quad \text{if and only if} \quad F(x_{j-1}) \leq U < F(x_j).$$

- In other words, after generating U , we determine X by finding the interval $[F(x_{j-1}), F(x_j))$ in which U lies.
- This is equivalent to computing the inverse transform $X = F^{-1}(U)$.
- For this reason, this approach is called the discrete **inverse transform method**.

Generate Discrete Random Variable Algorithm

Algorithm 1 Generate X with probabilities p_0, \dots, p_n using $\text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ numbers

```
1: Input: Probabilities  $p_0, \dots, p_n$  and outcomes  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ 
2: Draw  $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ 
3: Initialize cumulative probability:  $C \leftarrow 0$ 
4: for  $i = 0$  to  $n$  do                                     ▷ Loop over outcomes
5:   Update cumulative probability:  $C \leftarrow C + p_i$ 
6:   if  $U < C$  then
7:     Set  $X \leftarrow x_i$  and stop
8:   end if
9: end for
10: Output: Sampled value  $X$ 
```

Algorithm 2 Generate X with probabilities p_1, \dots, p_n using ordered cumulative probabilities

- 1: **Input:** Probabilities p_1, \dots, p_n and outcomes x_1, \dots, x_n
- 2: Sort outcomes in **descending** order of probability:

$$p_{(1)} \geq p_{(2)} \geq \dots \geq p_{(n)}, \quad x_{(1)}, \dots, x_{(n)}.$$

- 3: Compute cumulative sums $F_{(j)} = \sum_{i=1}^j p_{(i)}, \quad j = 1, \dots, n.$
 - 4: Generate $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$
 - 5: **for** $j = 1$ to n **do**
 - 6: **if** $U < F_{(j)}$ **then**
 - 7: Set $X \leftarrow x_{(j)}$ and **stop**
 - 8: **end if**
 - 9: **end for**
 - 10: **Output:** Sampled value X
-

- What is different here?
- By ordering outcomes by probability, the algorithm reduces the **expected number of comparisons**.
- Let outcomes be ordered by descending probability:

$$p_{(1)} \geq p_{(2)} \geq \cdots \geq p_{(n)}.$$

- The expected number of comparisons is

$$\mathbb{E}[\text{comparisons}] = \sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot p_{(i)}.$$

Example 4a: Simulating a Discrete Random Variable

- **Example 4a:** Simulate X such that

$$p_1 = 0.20, \quad p_2 = 0.15, \quad p_3 = 0.25, \quad p_4 = 0.40, \quad \text{where } p_j = P\{X = j\}$$

- Generate $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ and:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{If } U < 0.20 \text{ set } X = 1 \text{ and stop} \\ \text{If } U < 0.35 \text{ set } X = 2 \text{ and stop} \\ \text{If } U < 0.60 \text{ set } X = 3 \text{ and stop} \\ \text{Otherwise set } X = 4 \end{array} \right.$$

- **More efficient ordering:**

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{If } U < 0.40 \text{ set } X = 4 \text{ and stop} \\ \text{If } U < 0.65 \text{ set } X = 3 \text{ and stop} \\ \text{If } U < 0.85 \text{ set } X = 1 \text{ and stop} \\ \text{Otherwise set } X = 2 \end{array} \right.$$

- For the original ordering:

$$p_1 = 0.20, p_2 = 0.15, p_3 = 0.25, p_4 = 0.40$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\text{comparisons}] = 1(0.20) + 2(0.15) + 3(0.25) + 4(0.40) = 2.25 \quad (\text{slower on average})$$

- For the sequential ordering:

$$p_4 = 0.40, p_3 = 0.25, p_1 = 0.20, p_2 = 0.15$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\text{comparisons}] = 1(0.40) + 2(0.25) + 3(0.20) + 4(0.15) = 1.95$$

- Sorting by probability minimizes expected comparisons and makes simulation faster.

Generating a Discrete Uniform Random Variable

- No searching is necessary when X is discrete uniform.
- If $P\{X = j\} = 1/n$, $j = 1, \dots, n$, then

$$X = j \quad \text{if} \quad \frac{j-1}{n} \leq U < \frac{j}{n}$$

- Equivalently:

$$X = \text{Int}(nU) + 1$$

where $\text{Int}(x)$ is the largest integer $\leq x$.

Example 4b: Random Permutation (Fisher–Yates Shuffle)

- Uniform random permutations are essential for simulations, fair sampling, randomized algorithms, and applications like shuffling or task assignment. Each ordering being equally likely ensures unbiased and unpredictable outcomes.
- Suppose we are interested in generating a permutation of numbers $1, 2, \dots, n$ such that all $n!$ possible orderings are equally likely.
- **Goal:** Produce a uniformly random permutation of the numbers $1, 2, \dots, n$, ensuring every possible ordering occurs with equal probability.
- **Recall:** $\text{Int}(kU) + 1$ is uniformly distributed over $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ when $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$. This allows us to select a random index in a given range.

Example 4b: Random Permutation (Fisher–Yates Shuffle)

- **Procedure:**

1. Initialize P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n with any ordering of $1, 2, \dots, n$ (e.g., $P_j = j$).
 2. Set $k = n$.
 3. Generate $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ and set $I = \text{Int}(kU) + 1$.
 4. Swap P_I and P_k .
 5. Set $k \leftarrow k - 1$; if $k > 1$, return to Step 3.
 6. Output P_1, \dots, P_n as the uniformly random permutation.
- Randomly choose one of the n numbers and place it in position n .
 - Randomly choose one of the remaining $n - 1$ numbers and place it in position $n - 1$.
 - Continue until all positions are filled.
 - It is more efficient to keep the numbers in an ordered list and swap positions instead of repeatedly searching for the numbers.

Algorithm 3 Random Permutation (Fisher–Yates Shuffle)

```
1: Input: Integer  $n$ 
2: Initialize  $P = [1, 2, \dots, n]$ 
3: for  $k = n$  down to 2 do
4:   Generate  $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ 
5:    $I \leftarrow \text{Int}(kU) + 1$ 
6:   if  $I \neq k$  then
7:     Swap  $P[I]$  and  $P[k]$ 
8:   end if
9: end for
10: Output:  $P$  (a uniformly random permutation)
```

Quick Numerical Example: ($n = 4$)

- Initialize array:

$$P = [1, 2, 3, 4]$$

- Pre-generated Uniform values:

$$U_1 = 0.3, \quad U_2 = 0.7, \quad U_3 = 0.1$$

- **Step 1:** $k = 4$

$$l = \text{Int}(4 \cdot U_1) + 1 = 2, \quad P[2] \leftrightarrow P[4] \implies P = [1, 4, 3, 2]$$

- **Step 2:** $k = 3$

$$l = \text{Int}(3 \cdot U_2) + 1 = 3, \quad l = k \implies \text{skip}$$

- **Step 3:** $k = 2$

$$l = \text{Int}(2 \cdot U_3) + 1 = 1, \quad P[1] \leftrightarrow P[2] \implies P = [4, 1, 3, 2]$$

- Final random permutation:

$$P = [4, 1, 3, 2]$$

- Often, in sampling or simulations, we only need a smaller representative set of elements rather than the entire population. Choosing r allows control over sample size and reduces computational cost.
- To generate a random subset of size r from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$:
 1. If $r > n/2$, set $r \leftarrow n - r$ and note that the final subset will consist of the elements **not** in the generated subset. This reduces computation when the subset is large.
 2. Initialize $P = [1, 2, \dots, n]$.
 3. Shuffle P using the Fisher–Yates algorithm (or partially, as needed).
 4. Take the first r elements of P as the random subset:

$$S = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_r\} \tag{1}$$

- **Observation:** Each subset of size r is equally likely.
- **Efficiency:** Stop the shuffle after r iterations; no need to shuffle the entire array if only the first r elements are needed.

Algorithm: Random Subset of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ of Size r

Algorithm 4 Random Subset using Fisher–Yates

```
1: Input: Integers  $n$  (population size) and  $r$  (subset size)
2: if  $r > n/2$  then
3:   Set  $r \leftarrow n - r$                                 ▷ Generate the smaller complementary subset first
4: end if
5: Initialize  $P = [1, 2, \dots, n]$ 
6: for  $k = n$  down to  $n - r + 1$  do                        ▷ Partial shuffle only
7:   Generate  $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ 
8:    $l \leftarrow \text{Int}(kU) + 1$                                 ▷ Random index in  $\{1, \dots, k\}$ 
9:   if  $l \neq k$  then
10:    Swap  $P[l]$  and  $P[k]$ 
11:   end if
12: end for
13: Output:  $S = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_r\}$ , a uniform random subset of size  $r$ 
```

- The ability to generate a random subset is particularly important in medical trials.
- **Example:** A medical center plans to test a new drug designed to reduce blood cholesterol levels.
 - 1000 volunteers have been recruited as subjects for the trial.
 - To account for external factors that might affect blood cholesterol (e.g., weather conditions), the volunteers will be split into two groups of size 500: a treatment group receiving the drug and a control group receiving a placebo.
 - The trial is conducted as a **double-blind study**, meaning that neither the volunteers nor the administrators know who is in each group.

- To ensure the treatment and control groups are comparable in all respects except for the drug, the 500 volunteers in the treatment group must be chosen **completely at random**.
- Using a **random subset** ensures:
 - Each volunteer has an **equal chance of being selected** for the treatment group.
 - The comparison between groups is **unbiased**, so that any observed differences in response are due to the drug and not external factors.
- This method is widely used in **randomized clinical trials** and other experimental research designs to maintain fairness and statistical validity.

Example 4c: Calculating Averages

- Suppose we want to approximate

$$\bar{a} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a(i) \quad (2)$$

where n is large and the values $a(i), i = 1, \dots, n$ are complicated and not easily calculated.

- One way to accomplish this is to note that if X is a discrete uniform random variable over the integers $1, \dots, n$, then the random variable $a(X)$ has a mean given by

$$E[a(X)] = \sum_{i=1}^n a(i)P\{X = i\} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a(i) = \bar{a} \quad (3)$$

Example 4c: Calculating Averages

- We can generate k discrete uniform random variables $X_i, i = 1, \dots, k$ by:
 - Generate k random numbers $U_i \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$
 - Set

$$X_i = \text{Int}(nU_i) + 1 \quad (4)$$

- Then each of the k random variables $a(X_i)$ will have mean \bar{a} , and so by the **strong law of large numbers**, as $k \rightarrow \infty$ (with $k < n$), the average of these values should approximately equal \bar{a} :

$$\bar{a} \approx \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k a(X_i) \quad (5)$$

- The **standard error** of this Monte Carlo approximation is

$$SE(\hat{a}) = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{k}}, \quad \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (a(i) - \bar{a})^2 \quad (6)$$

where σ^2 is the variance of $a(X_i)$.

- This gives a measure of how far the Monte Carlo approximation is expected to deviate from the true mean.
- The larger k , the smaller the standard error, and the more precise the approximation.

Generating Known Discrete Random Variables

Generating a Geometric Random Variable (Part 1)

- Let X be a geometric random variable with parameter p if

$$P\{X = i\} = pq^{i-1}, \quad i \geq 1, \quad \text{where } q = 1 - p$$

- Recall that X can be thought of as representing the time of the first success in independent trials, each of which succeeds with probability p .
- Cumulative probability for the first $j - 1$ trials:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} P\{X = i\} &= 1 - P\{X > j - 1\} \\ &= 1 - P\{\text{first } j - 1 \text{ trials are all failures}\} \\ &= 1 - q^{j-1}, \quad j \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

- To generate X , generate $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ and set X equal to the value j such that

$$1 - q^{j-1} \leq U < 1 - q^j, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad q^j < 1 - U \leq q^{j-1}.$$

- Define X in a single compact expression instead of using inequalities:

$$X = \min\{j : q^j < 1 - U\}$$

- Stepwise procedure:
 - Check $j = 1$: if $q^1 < 1 - U$, then $X = 1$.
 - Otherwise, check $j = 2$: if $q^2 < 1 - U$, then $X = 2$.
 - Continue until the inequality is satisfied.
- This ensures we pick the **smallest integer** j satisfying the inequality, which automatically satisfies the original interval condition.

Generating a Geometric Random Variable (Part 3)

- Using the monotonicity of logarithms:

$$\begin{aligned} X &= \min\{j : j \log(q) < \log(1 - U)\} \\ &= \min\left\{j : j > \frac{\log(1 - U)}{\log(q)}\right\} \end{aligned}$$

- Note that $\log(q) < 0$ for $0 < q < 1$, so the inequality flips as shown above.
- Using integer part notation:

$$X = \text{Int}\left(\frac{\log(1 - U)}{\log(q)}\right) + 1$$

- Since $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$, then $1 - U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$, giving

$$X = \text{Int}\left(\frac{\log(U)}{\log(q)}\right) + 1$$

- This generates X with geometric parameter p efficiently.
- Homework:** How can we generate **Bernoulli** Random Variables?

- The random variable X is Poisson with parameter λ if

$$p_i = P\{X = i\} = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^i}{i!}, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- The key to using the inverse transform method to generate such a random variable is the recursive identity:

$$p_{i+1} = \frac{\lambda}{i+1} p_i, \quad i \geq 0$$

- Using this recursion, we can build an efficient algorithm for generating $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$.

- Algorithm steps:

1. Generate a random number $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$.
2. Initialize $i = 0, p = e^{-\lambda}, F = p$.
3. If $U < F$, set $X = i$ and stop.
4. Update

$$p \leftarrow \frac{\lambda p}{i+1}, \quad F \leftarrow F + p, \quad i \leftarrow i + 1$$

5. Repeat Step 3 until $U < F$.
- This procedure generates X with the correct Poisson probabilities using a simple recursive approach.

Algorithm 5 Poisson Random Variable Generation

```
1: Input:  $\lambda > 0$ 
2: Generate  $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ 
3: Initialize  $i = 0, p = e^{-\lambda}, F = p$ 
4: while  $U \geq F$  do
5:    $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
6:    $p \leftarrow \frac{\lambda p}{i}$ 
7:    $F \leftarrow F + p$ 
8: end while
9: Output:  $X = i$ 
```

Example: Generating a Poisson Random Variable

- We illustrate the generation of Poisson random variables with $\lambda = 3$ using the recursive method.
- Recursive formula:

$$p_{i+1} = \frac{\lambda}{i+1} p_i$$

- Case 1: $U = 0$

$$i = 0, \quad p_0 = e^{-3} \approx 0.0498, \quad F = p_0 = 0.0498$$

$$U = 0 < F \implies X = 0$$

- Case 2: $U = 0.25$

$$i = 0, \quad p_0 = 0.0498, \quad F = 0.0498$$

$$U = 0.25 \geq F \implies \text{continue}$$

$$i = 1, \quad p_1 = \frac{3 \cdot 0.0498}{1} = 0.1494, \quad F = 0.1992$$

$$U = 0.25 \geq F \implies \text{continue}$$

$$i = 2, \quad p_2 = \frac{3 \cdot 0.1494}{2} = 0.2241, \quad F = 0.4233$$

$$U = 0.25 < F \implies X = 2$$

Efficient Poisson Generation (Improved Method)

- The naive approach requires $1 + X$ comparisons (on average $1 + \lambda$), which is costly for large λ .
- Instead of summing probabilities from $i = 0$ upward until we exceed U , we start the search near $i \approx \lambda$ (where the Poisson mass is concentrated) and search upward or downward from there.
- Let $I = \text{Int}(\lambda)$ and compute

$$F(I) = P(X \leq I) = \sum_{k=0}^I p_k$$

using the recursive formula

$$p_{k+1} = \frac{\lambda}{k+1} p_k.$$

- Generate $U \sim U(0, 1)$ and check:
 - If $U \leq F(I)$, then $X \leq I$ and we search **downward** from I .
 - If $U > F(I)$, then $X > I$ and we search **upward** from $I + 1$.

Algorithm: Efficient Poisson Generation (Search Near λ)

Algorithm 6 Efficient Poisson Random Variable Generation

```
1: Input:  $\lambda > 0$ 
2:  $l \leftarrow \text{Int}(\lambda)$                                 ▷ Closest integer to  $\lambda$ 
3: Compute  $F(l) = \sum_{k=0}^l p_k$  using recursion
4: Generate  $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ 
5: if  $U \leq F(l)$  then
6:    $i \leftarrow l, F \leftarrow F(l)$ 
7:   while  $U < F$  do
8:      $i \leftarrow i - 1$ 
9:      $p_i \leftarrow p_{i+1} \cdot \frac{i+1}{\lambda}$                 ▷ Backward recursion
10:     $F \leftarrow F - p_i$ 
11:   end while
12:    $X \leftarrow i + 1$ 
13: else
14:    $i \leftarrow l + 1, F \leftarrow F(l)$ 
15:   while  $U > F$  do
16:      $p_i \leftarrow \frac{\lambda}{i} \cdot p_{i-1}$                 ▷ Forward recursion
17:      $F \leftarrow F + p_i$ 
18:      $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
19:   end while
20:    $X \leftarrow i - 1$ 
21: end if
22: Output:  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ 
```

Comparison: Average Number of Searches for Poisson Generation

Standard Method (Start at 0)

- Average number of searches:

$$\mathbb{E}[\text{searches}] = 1 + \lambda$$

because on average we must sum probabilities up to the mean λ .

Efficient Method (Start near λ)

- Approximately, number of searches:

$$1 + |X - \lambda|$$

where X is the Poisson random variable generated.

- For large λ , $X \sim N(\lambda, \lambda)$ by the Central Limit Theorem.
- Expected number of searches:

Average number of searches $\approx 1 + E[|X - \lambda|]$, $X \sim N(\lambda, \lambda)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 1 + \sqrt{\lambda} E\left[\frac{|X - \lambda|}{\sqrt{\lambda}}\right] \\ &= 1 + \sqrt{\lambda} E[|Z|] = 1 + \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sqrt{\lambda} \end{aligned}$$

- Let $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$ such that

$$P\{X = i\} = \frac{n!}{i!(n-i)!} p^i (1-p)^{n-i}, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

- We employ the inverse transform method using the recursive identity:

$$P\{X = i + 1\} = \frac{n-i}{i+1} \frac{p}{1-p} P\{X = i\}$$

Inverse Transform Algorithm for Binomial (n, p)

1. Generate a random number $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$.
2. Initialize: $c = \frac{p}{1-p}$, $i = 0$, $pr = (1 - p)^n$, $F = pr$.
3. If $U < F$, set $X = i$ and stop.
4. Otherwise, update:

$$pr \leftarrow \frac{c(n-i)}{i+1} pr, \quad F \leftarrow F + pr, \quad i \leftarrow i + 1$$

5. Return to step 3.

Note that:

- i denotes the value currently under consideration,
- $pr = P\{X = i\}$ is the probability that X equals i ,
- $F = F(i)$ is the cumulative probability $P\{X \leq i\}$.

Algorithm: Binomial (n, p) Random Variable via Inverse Transform

Algorithm 7 Generate $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$

```
1: Input: Integers  $n$  and probability  $p$ 
2: Generate  $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ 
3: Set  $c \leftarrow p/(1 - p)$ ,  $i \leftarrow 0$ ,  $pr \leftarrow (1 - p)^n$ ,  $F \leftarrow pr$ 
4: while  $U \geq F$  do
5:    $pr \leftarrow \frac{c(n-i)}{i+1} pr$ 
6:    $F \leftarrow F + pr$ 
7:    $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
8: end while
9: Output:  $X \leftarrow i$ 
```

In the next class, we will cover:

- The Acceptance-Rejection Technique
- The Composition Approach
- More Useful Algorithms and Examples

"Anyone who attempts to generate random numbers by deterministic means is, of course, living in a state of sin." *John von Neumann*