

# Monte Carlo History

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- Use random numbers to solve numerical problems
- Early use during development of atomic bomb
- Von Neumann, Ulam, Metropolis
- Named after the casino in Monte Carlo
- Las Vegas algorithms?



# Monte Carlo vs Las Vegas

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# Monte Carlo Methods

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- Pros
  - Flexible
  - Easy to implement
  - Easily handles complex integrands
  - Efficient for high dimensional integrands

# Monte Carlo Methods

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  - Easy to implement
  - Easily handles complex integrands
  - Efficient for high dimensional integrands
- Cons
  - Variance (noise)
  - Slow convergence\*  $O(1/\sqrt{N})$

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- Therefore

$$\text{Prob}\{a \leq X \leq b\} = \int_a^b p(x) dx = P(b) - P(a)$$

# Random Variables

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- Uniform random variables:

$$p(x) = \frac{dP}{dx}(x) = \text{const}$$

- Canonical uniform random variable  $\xi$

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [0, 1], \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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- Properties:

$$E[aY] = aE[Y]$$

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- Therefore:

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where  $x_i$  are distributed according to  $p(x_i)$

- Strong law of large numbers:

$$\text{Prob} \left\{ E[Y] = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i) \right\} = 1$$

# Monte Carlo Integration

---

- We want to compute the value  $F$  of an integral

$$E[Y] = \int_D f(x)p(x)dx \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i)$$

$$F = \int_0^1 f(x)dx$$

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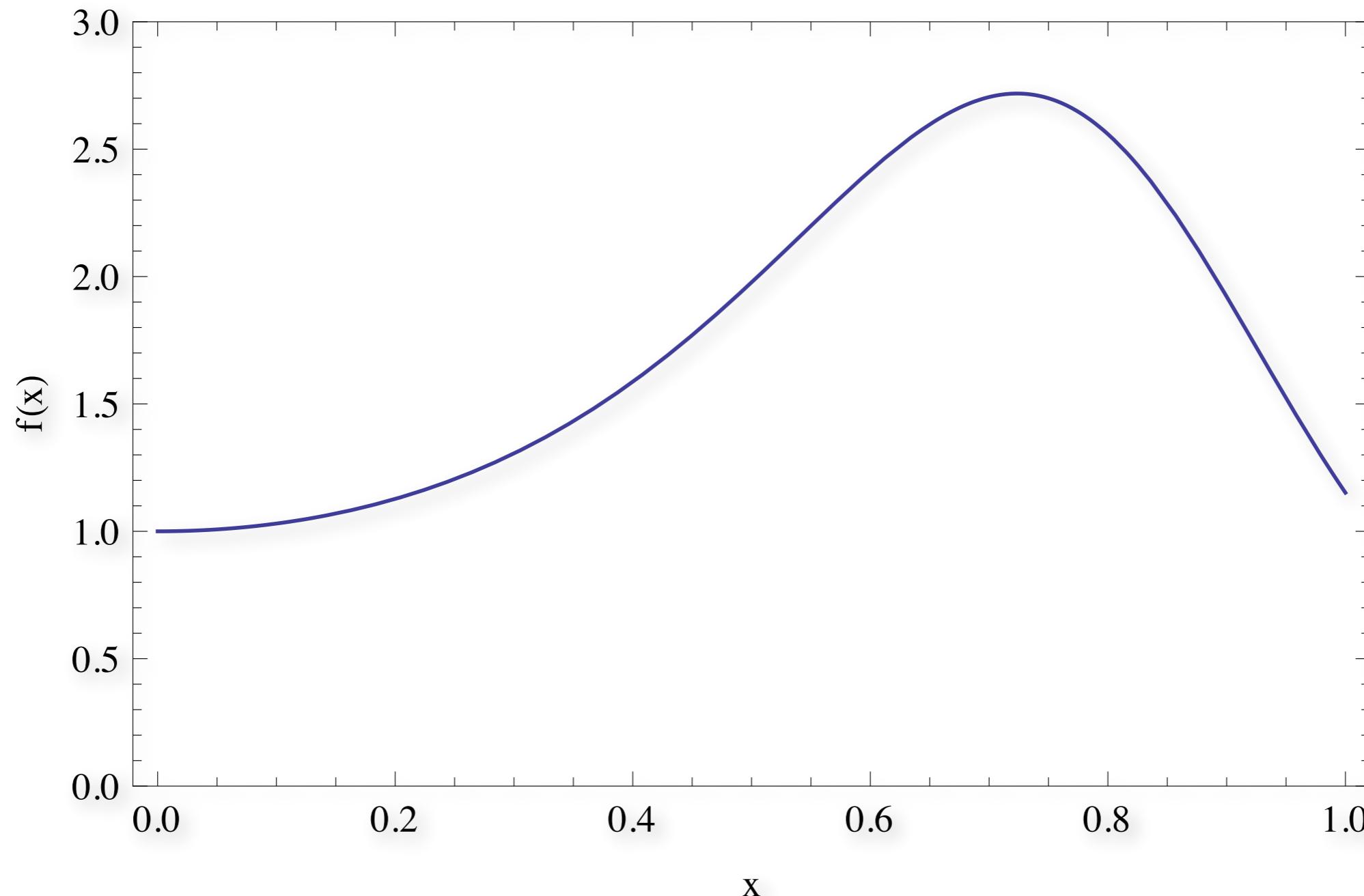
$$E[Y] = \int_D f(x)p(x)dx \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i)$$

$$F = \int_0^1 f(x)dx = \int_D \left[ \frac{f(x)}{p(x)} \right] p(x)dx \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)} = F_N$$

# Monte Carlo Integration

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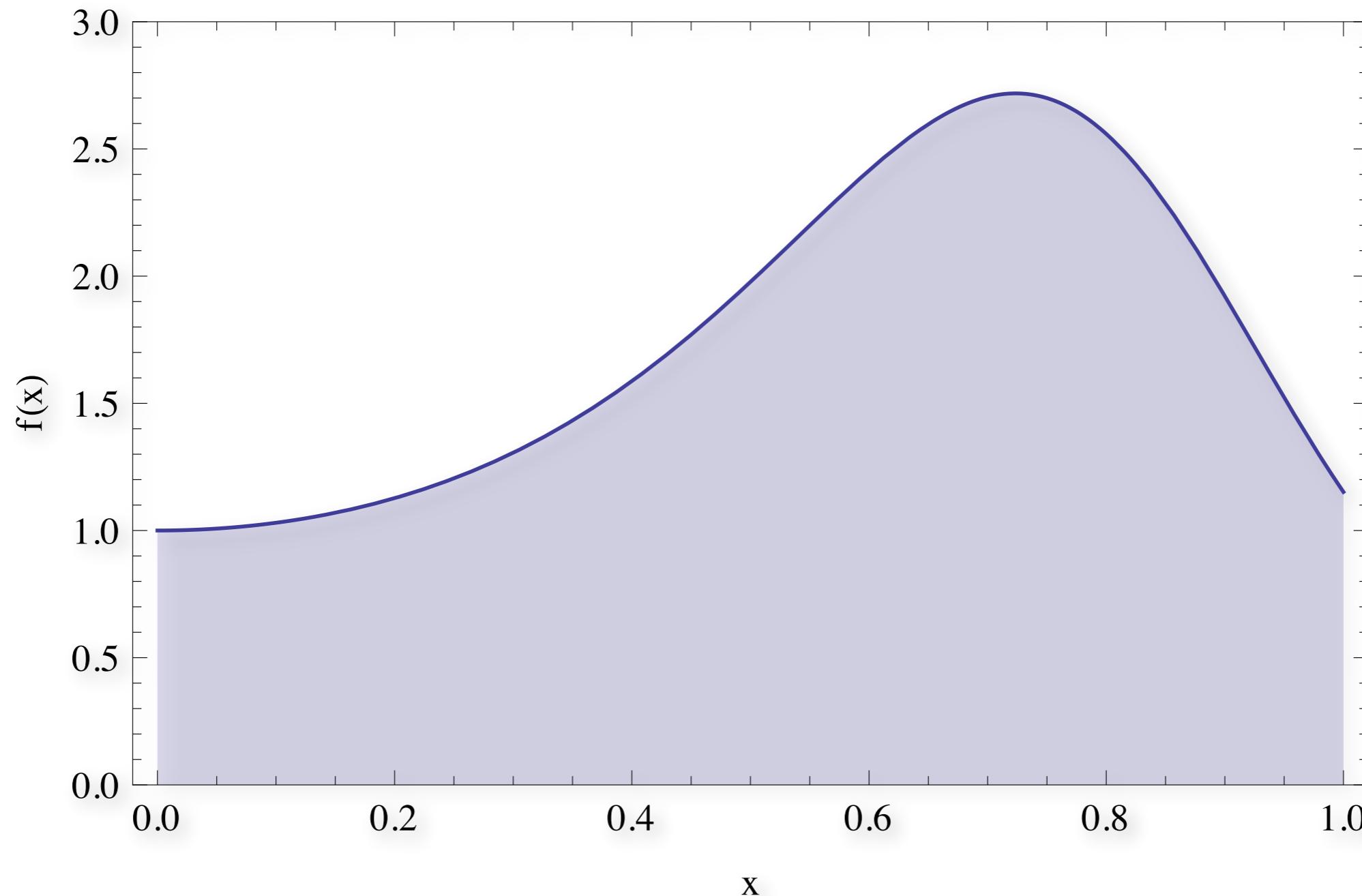
$$f(x) = e^{\sin(3x^2)}$$



# Monte Carlo Integration

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# Monte Carlo Integration

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```
double integrate(int N)
{
    double x, sum=0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
        x = drand48();
        sum += exp(sin(3*x*x));
    }
    return sum / double(N);
}
```

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$$F = \int_a^b e^{\sin(3x^2)} dx \approx F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)}$$

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double integrate(int N, double a, double b)
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```
double integrate(int N, double a, double b)
{
    double x, sum=0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
        x = a + drand48()*(b-a);
        sum += exp(sin(3*x*x));
    }
    return sum / double(N);
}
```

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    }
    return sum / double(N);
}
```

$$p(x_i) = \frac{1}{b - a}$$

# Monte Carlo Integration

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$$F = \int_a^b e^{\sin(3x^2)} dx \approx F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)} \Rightarrow \frac{b-a}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i)$$

```
double integrate(int N, double a, double b)
{
    double x, sum=0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
        x = a + drand48()*(b-a);
        sum += exp(sin(3*x*x));
    }
    return sum * (b-a) / double(N);
}
```

$$p(x_i) = \frac{1}{b-a}$$

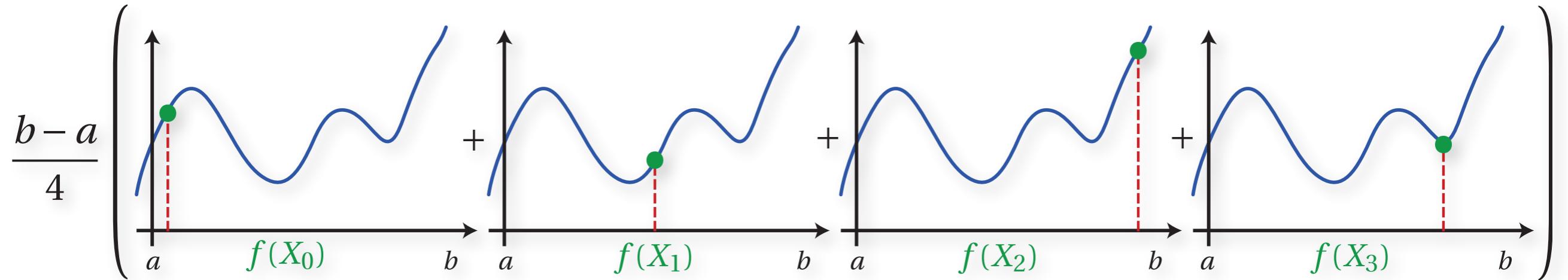
# Monte Carlo Integration

---

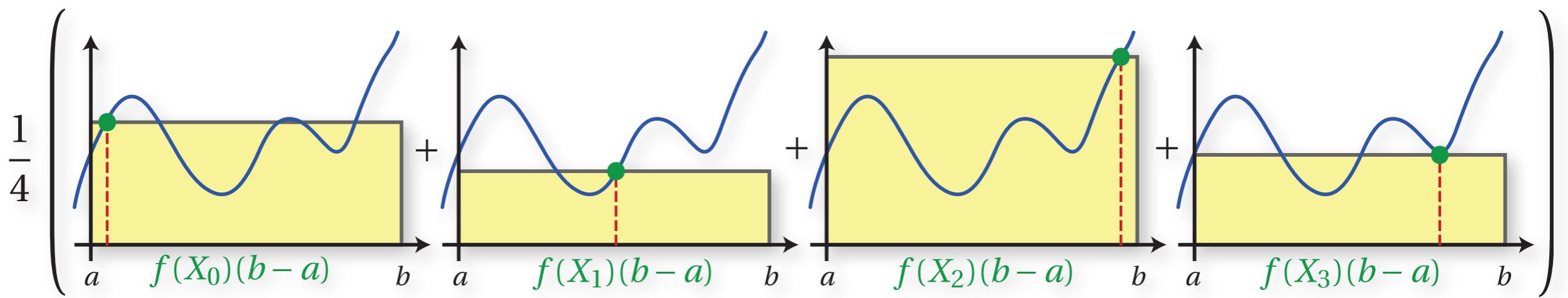
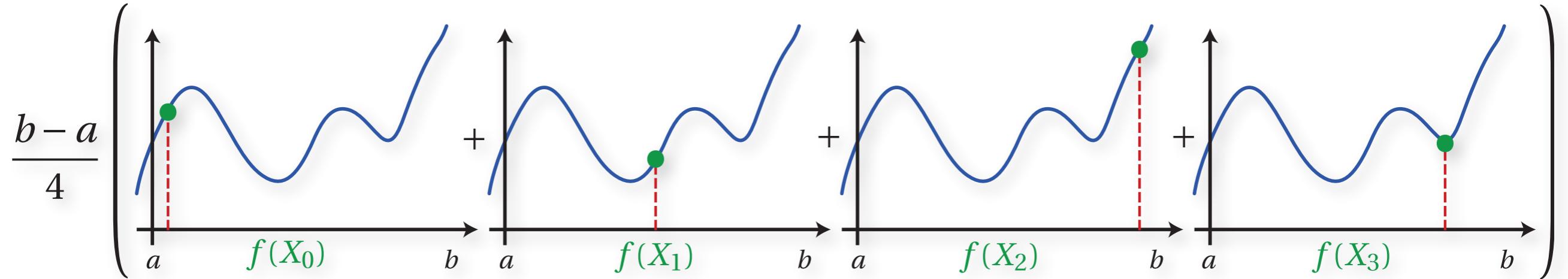
$$f(x) = e^{\sin(3x^2)}$$

N	F
1	2.75039
10	1.9893
100	1.79139
1000	1.75146
10000	1.77313
100000	1.77862

# Monte Carlo Visual Interpretation



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# Monte Carlo Integration Summary

---

- Goal: evaluate integral  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$

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# Monte Carlo Integration Summary

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- Goal: evaluate integral  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$
- Random variable  $X_i \sim p(x)$
- Monte Carlo Estimator  $F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)}$
- Expectation  $E[F_N] = \int_a^b f(x)dx$

# Monte Carlo Estimator

---

- *Unbiased estimator*
  - expected value equals integral

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(cf. standard quadrature)

# Monte Carlo Estimator

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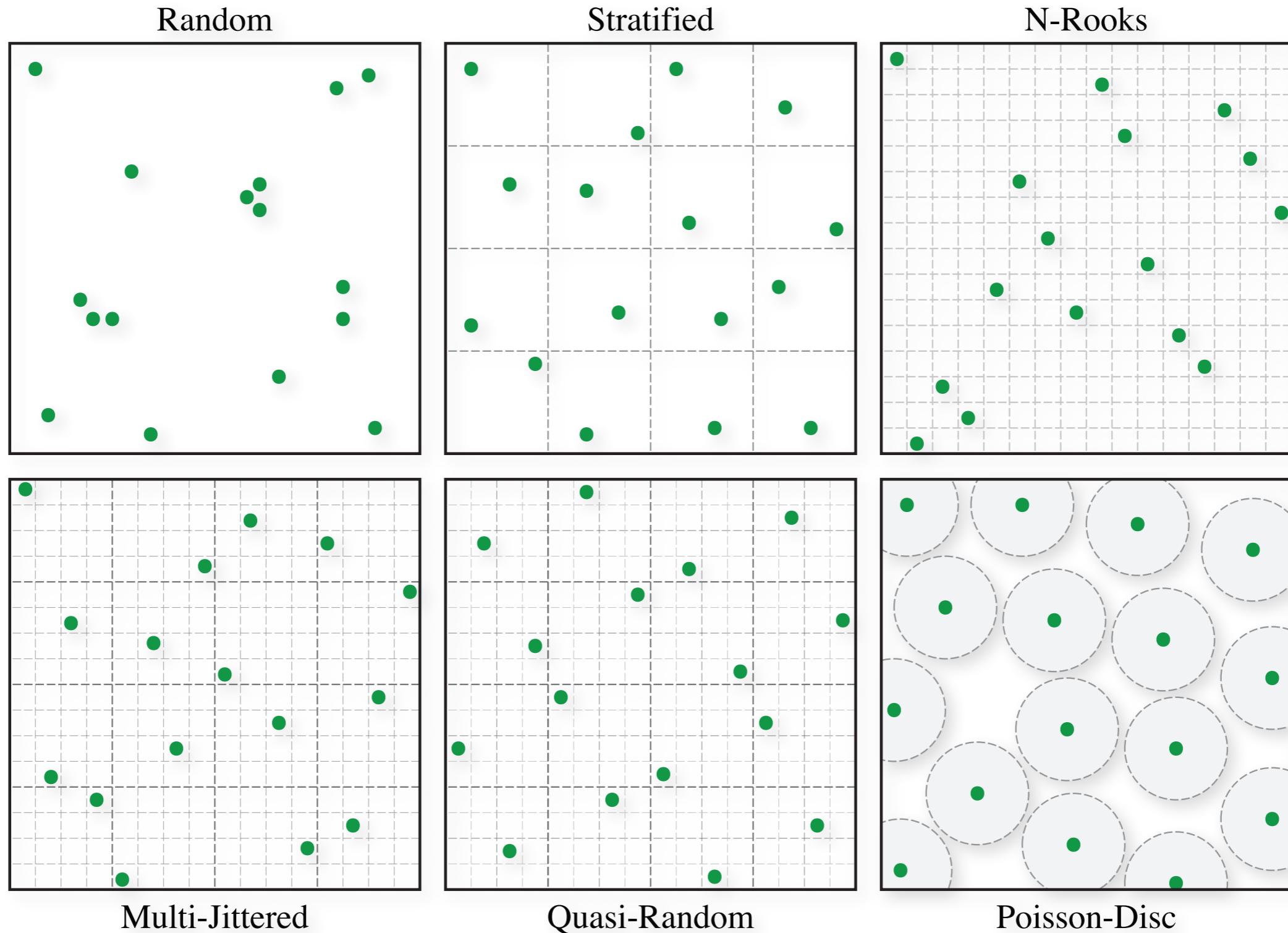
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- Convergence\*  $O(1/\sqrt{N})$

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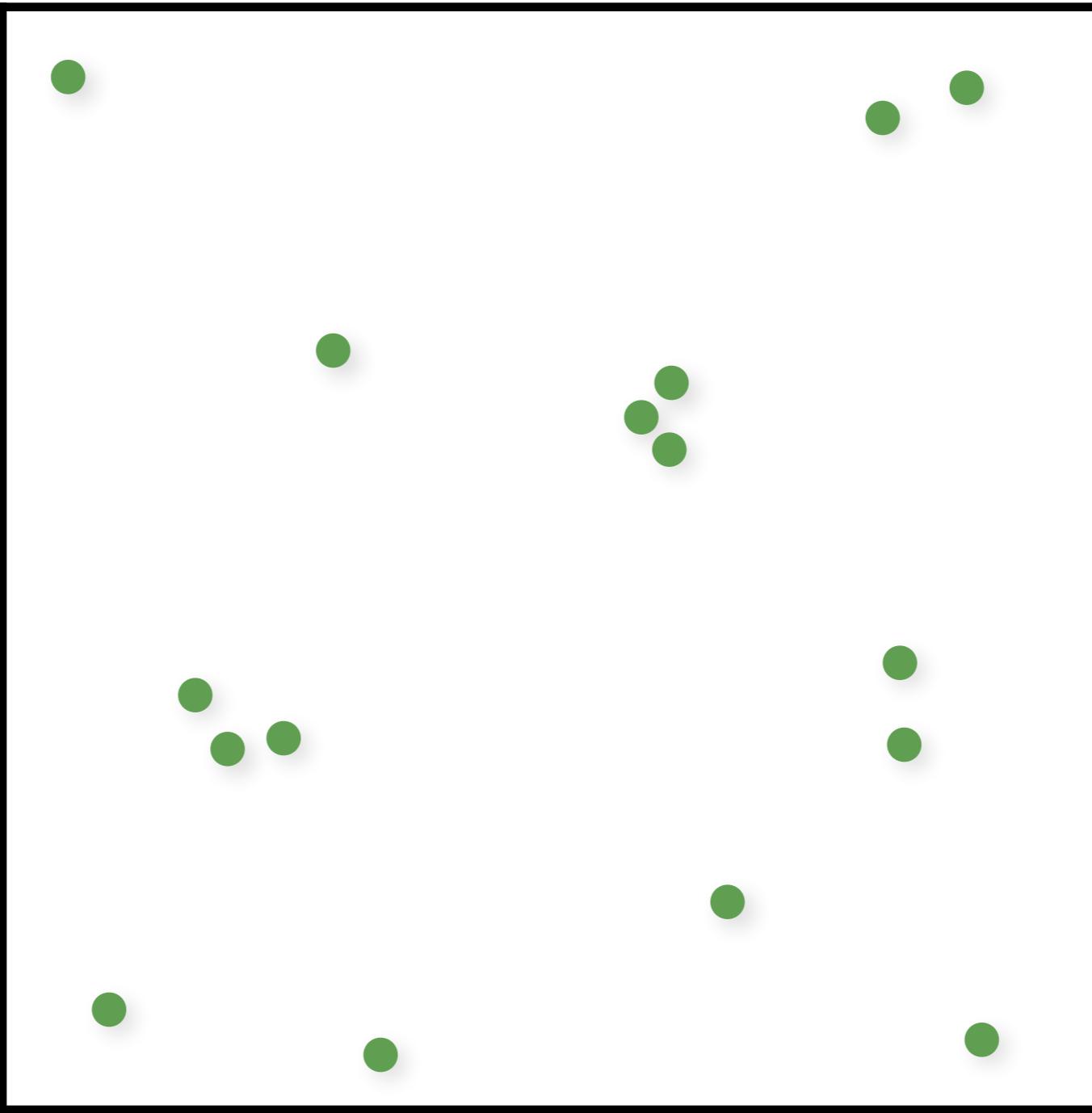
- *Unbiased estimator*
  - expected value equals integral
- Extension to higher dimensions straightforward
  - number of samples independent of dimension (cf. standard quadrature)
- Convergence\*  $O(1/\sqrt{N})$ 
  - reducing the error by a factor of 2 requires 4 times as many samples!

# Careful Sample Placement



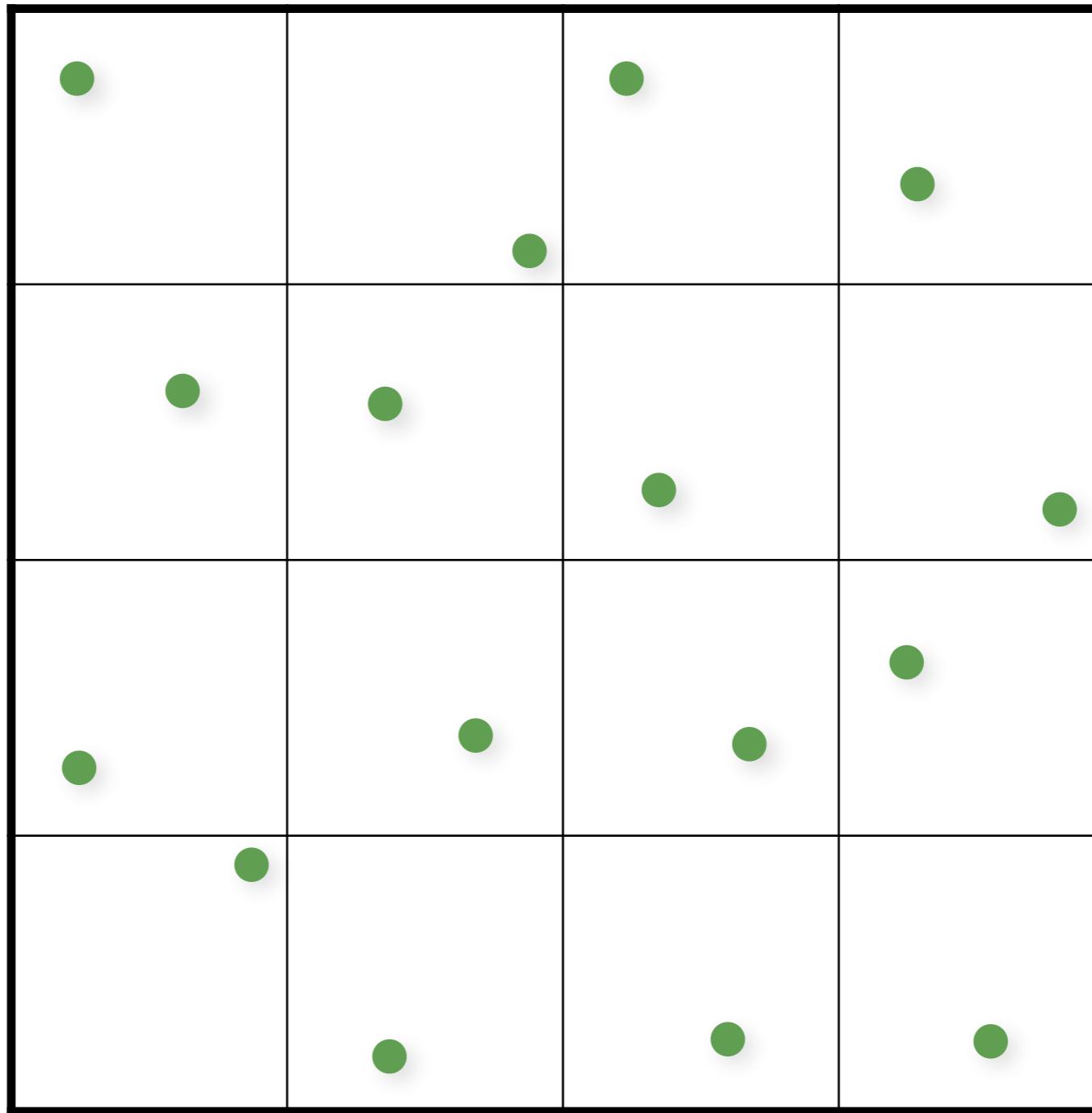
# Random Sampling

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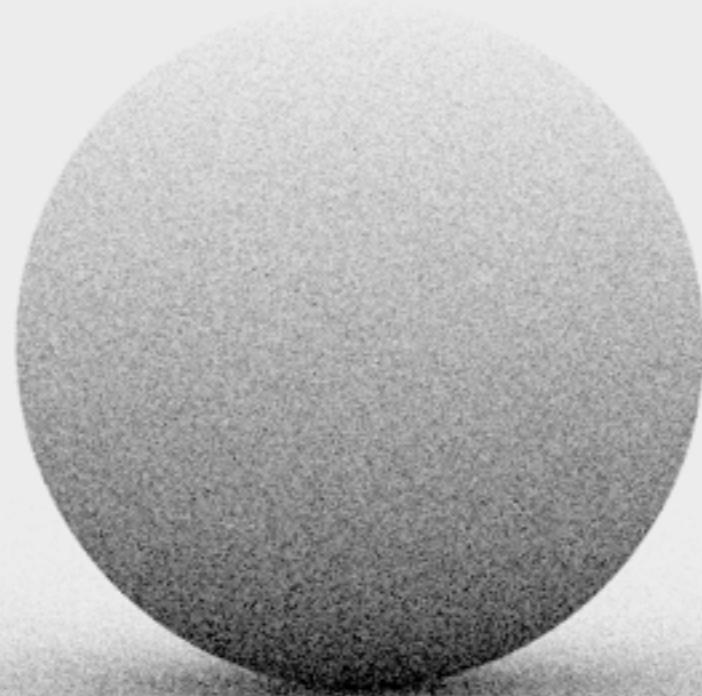
# Stratified (Jittered) Sampling

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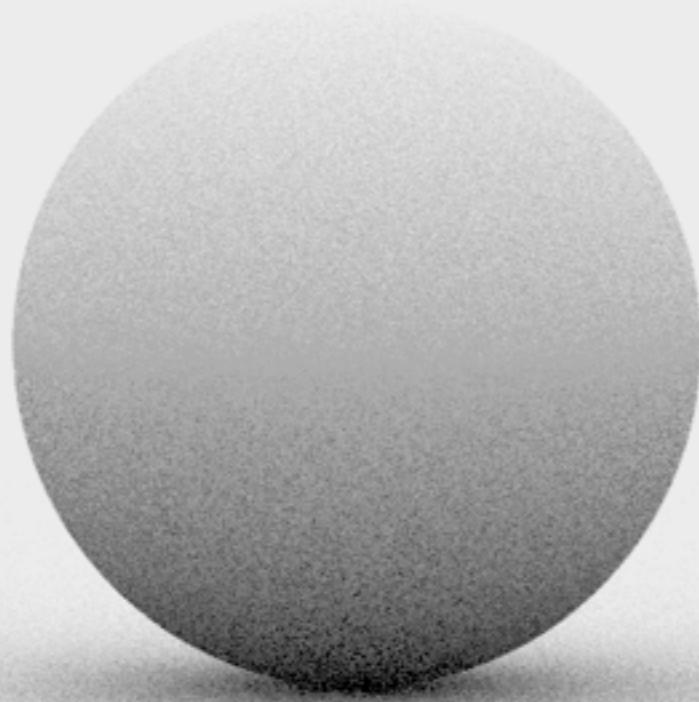
# Monte Carlo (16 random samples)

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# Monte Carlo (16 stratified samples)

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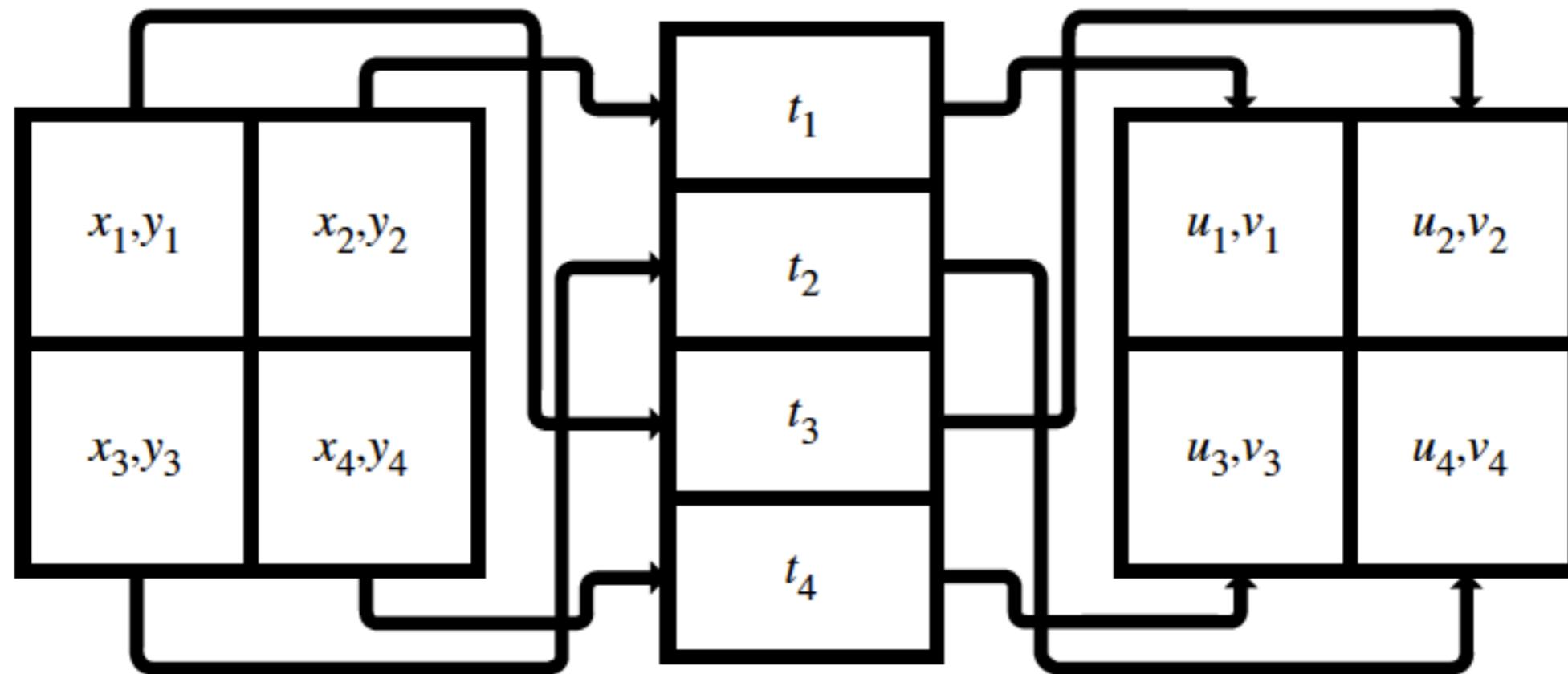
# Stratifying in Higher Dimensions

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- Stratification requires  $N^d$  samples.
- Inconvenient for large  $d$

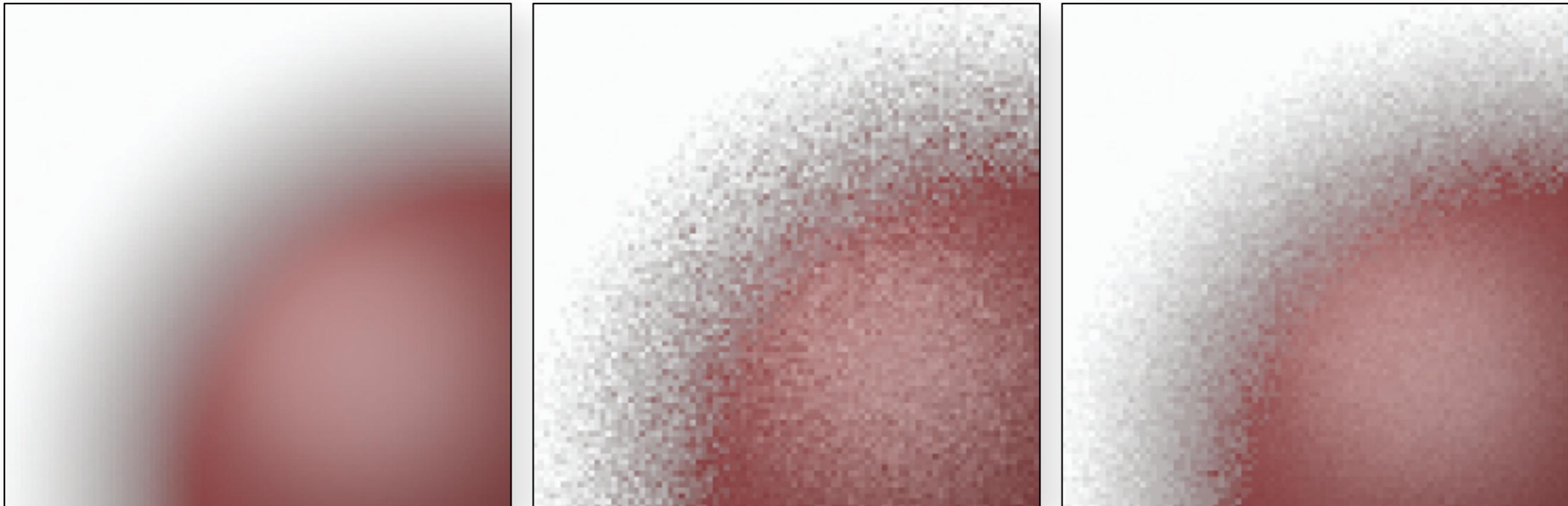
# Stratifying in Higher Dimensions

- Stratification requires  $N^d$  samples.
- Inconvenient for large  $d$
- Compute stratified samples in lower-dimensions (e.g.  $(x,y)$ ,  $t$ ,  $(u,v)$ ), and randomly combine



# Depth-of-Field (4D)

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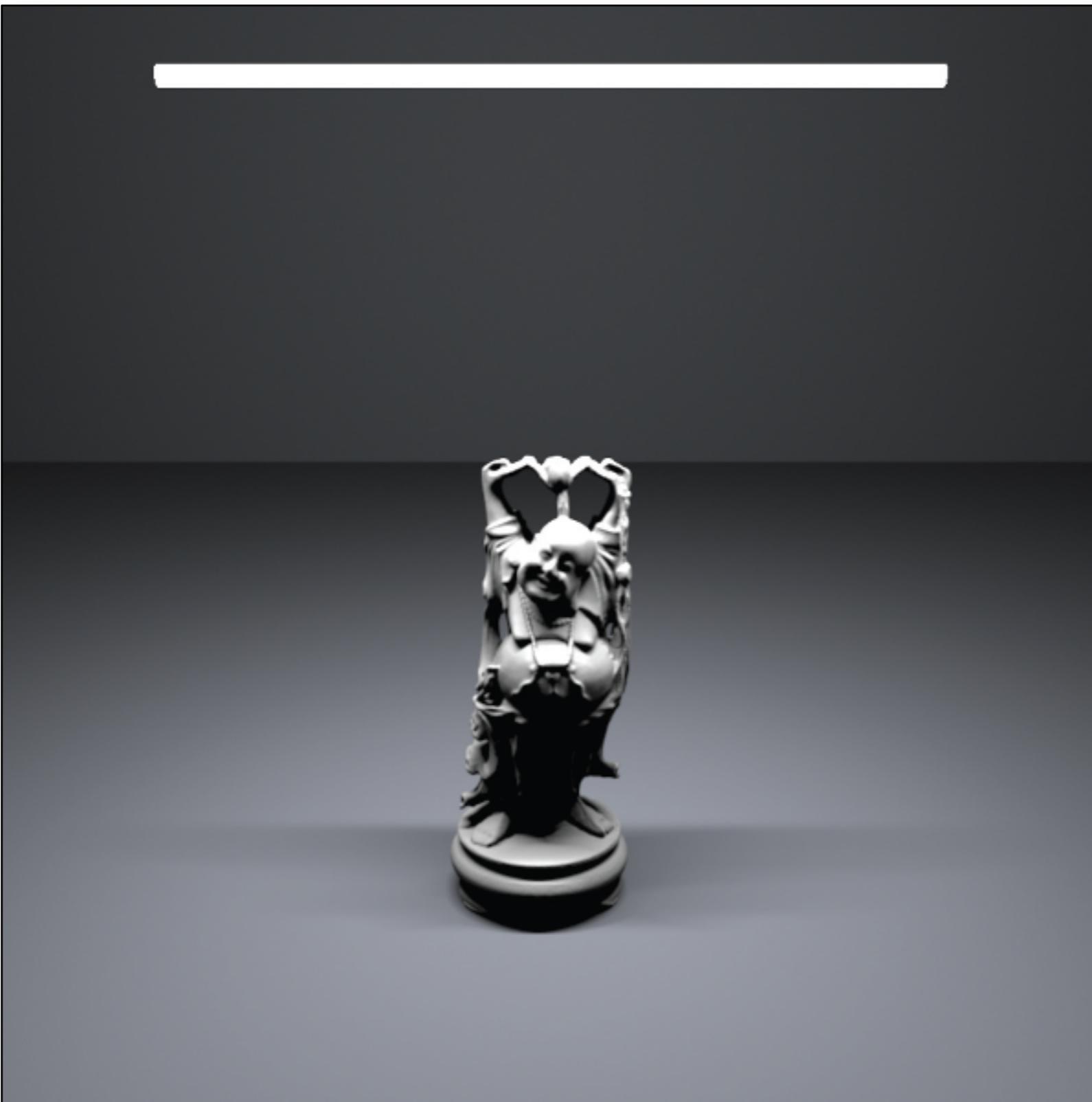
Reference

Random  
Sampling

Stratified  
Sampling

# Soft Shadows

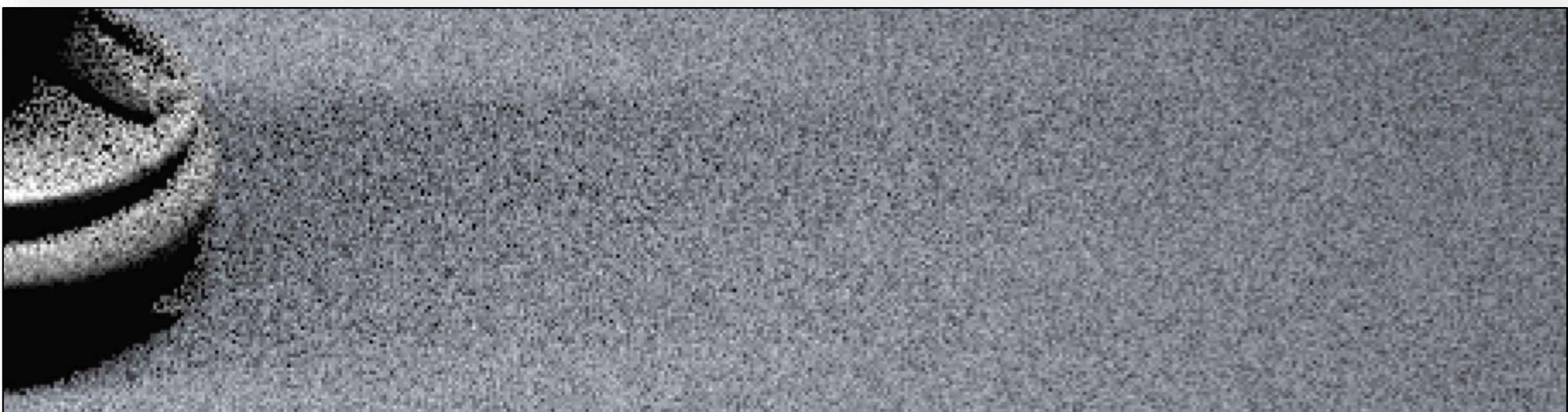
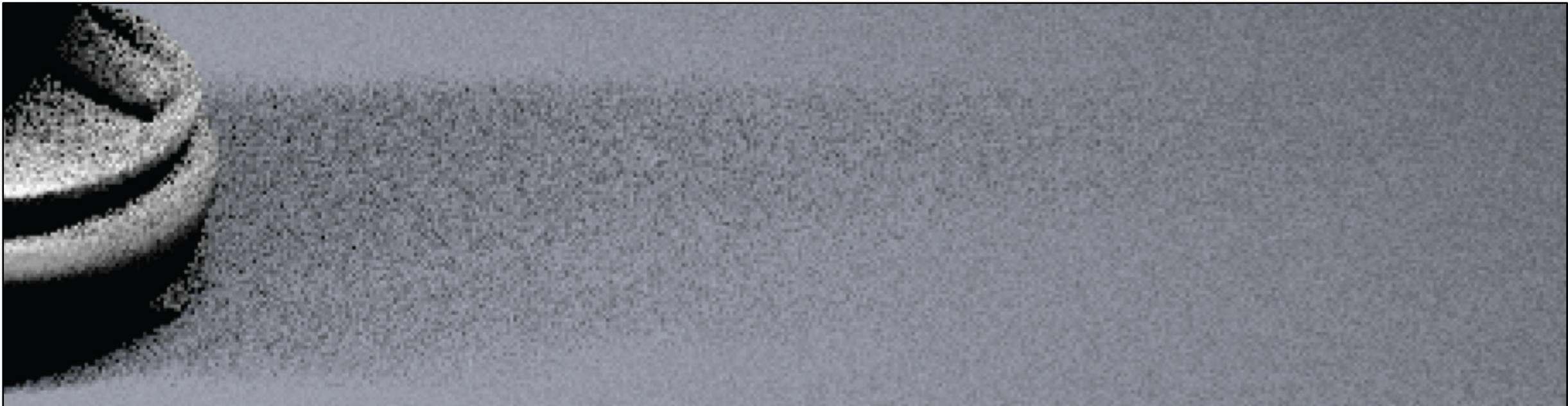
---



# Soft Shadows (Stratified Sampling)

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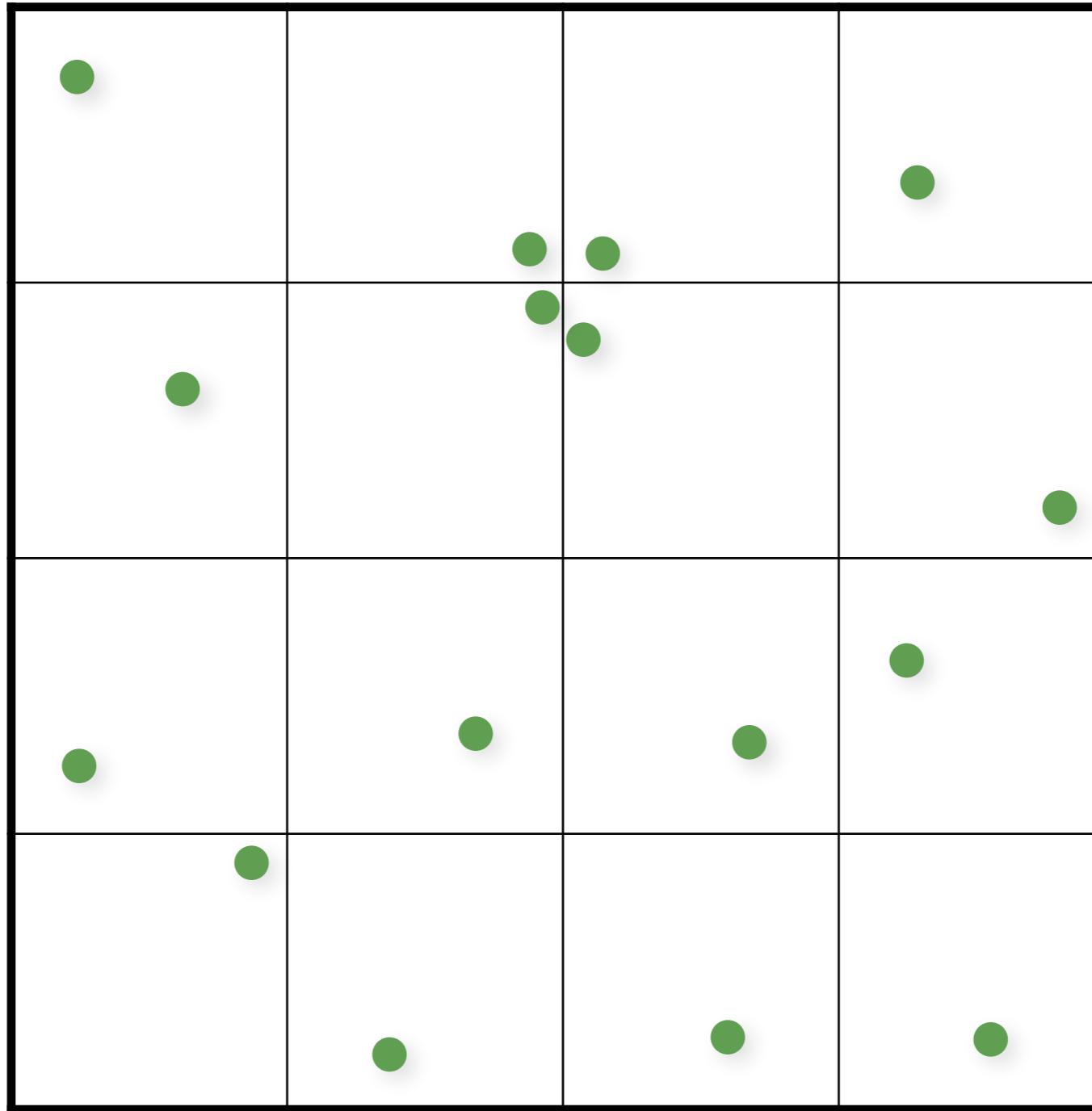
1 image sample x 16 light samples



16 image samples x 1 light sample

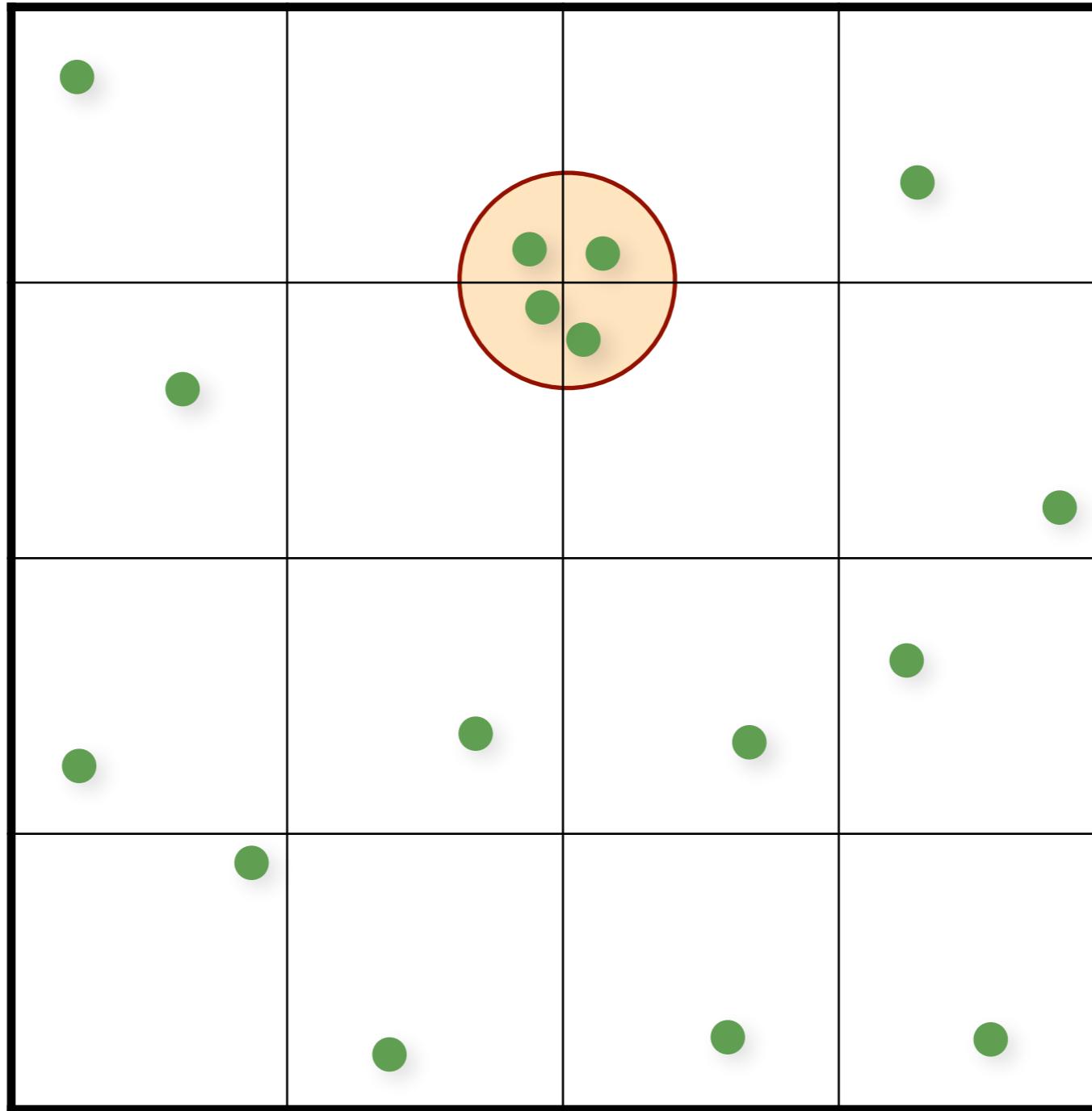
# Stratified (Jittered) Sampling

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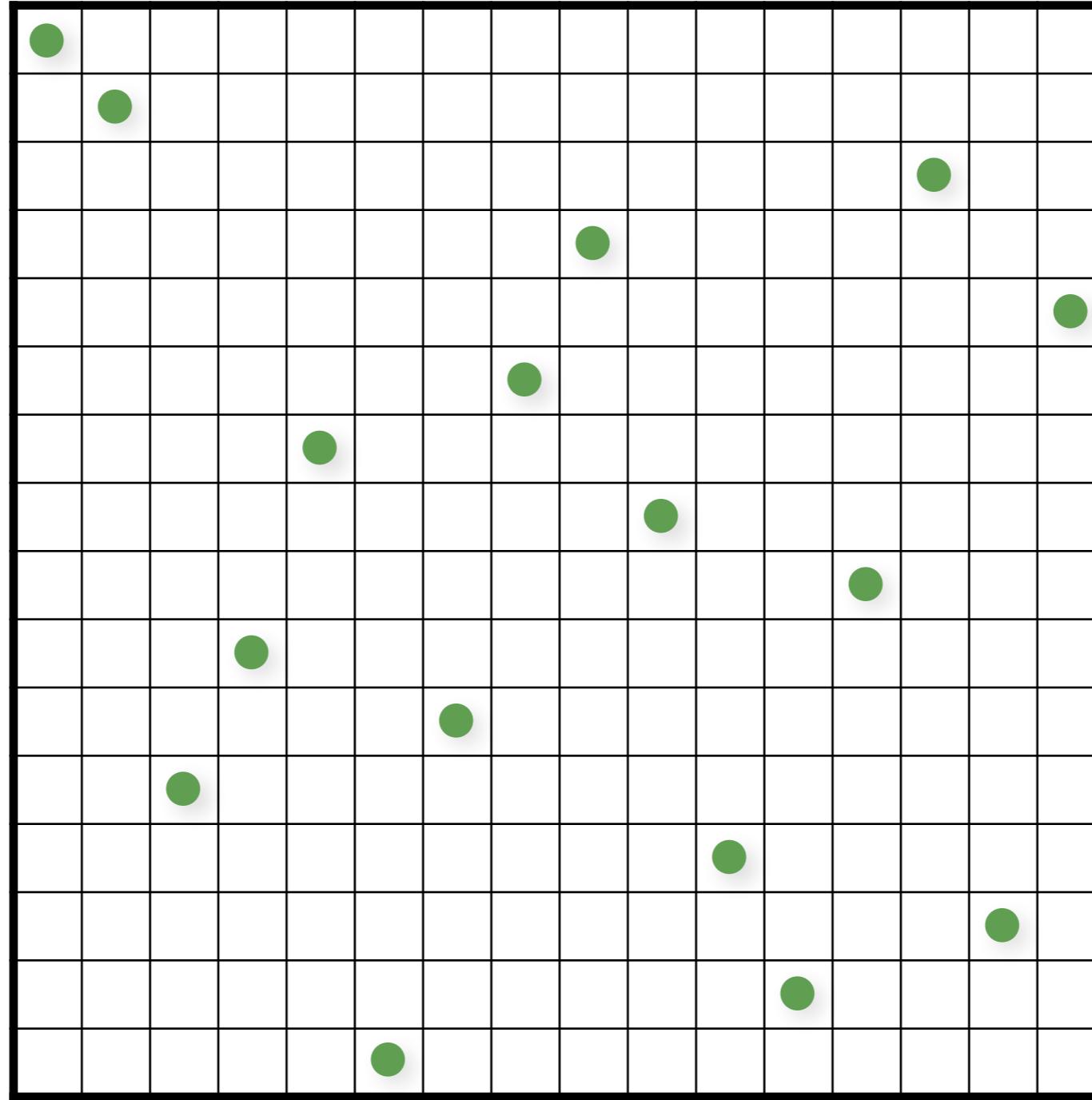
# Stratified (Jittered) Sampling

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# Latin Hypercube (N-Rooks) Sampling

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# Latin-Hypercube Sampling

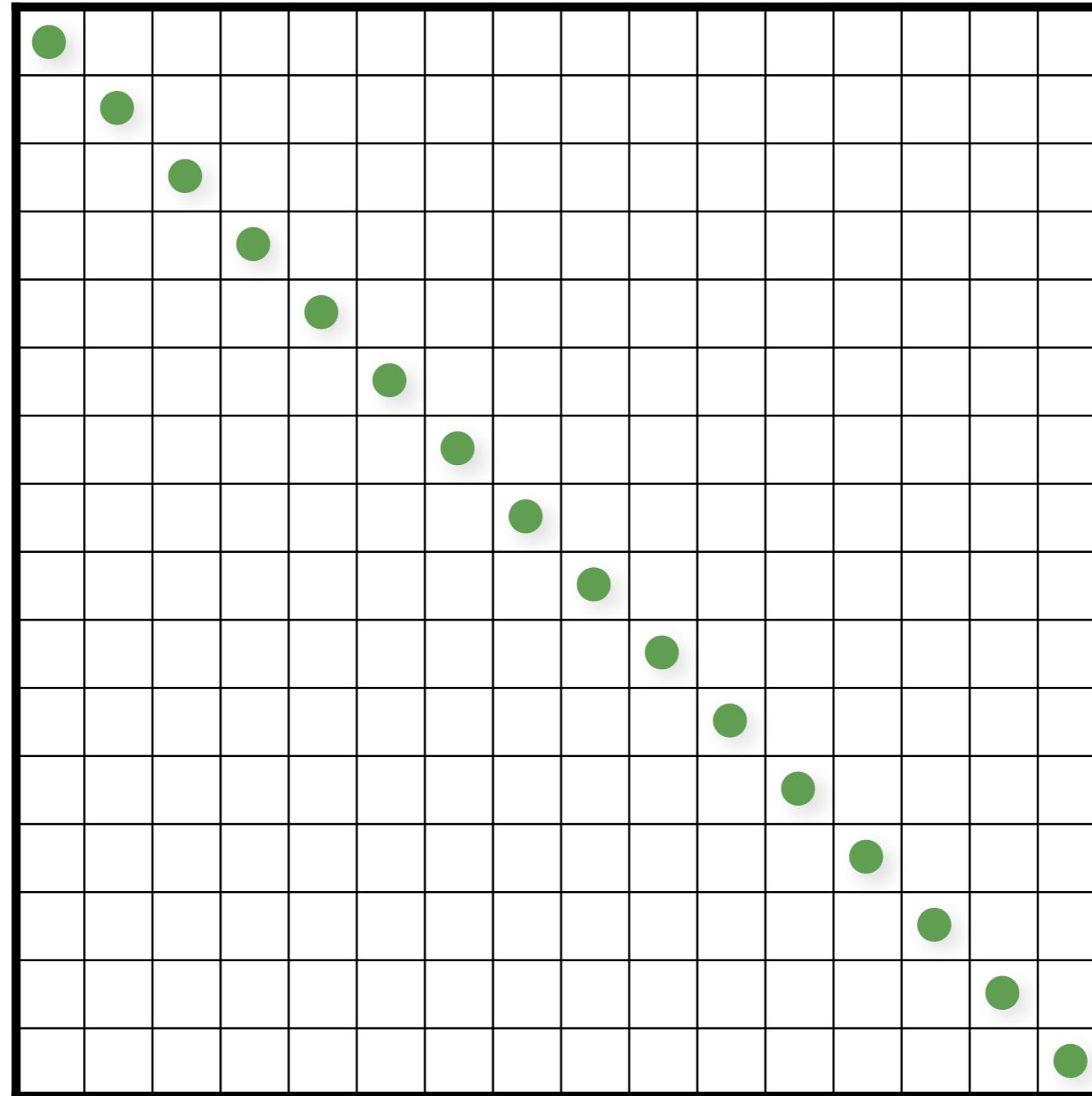
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```
// initialize the diagonal
for (uint j = 0; j < numDimensions; j++)
    for (uint i = 0; i < numSamples; i++)
        samples[j][i] = (i + randf())/numSamples;

// shuffle each dimension independently
for (uint j = 0; j < numDimensions; j++)
    for (uint i = numSamples-1; i >= 1; i--)
        swap(samples[j][i], samples[j][randi(0,i)]);
```

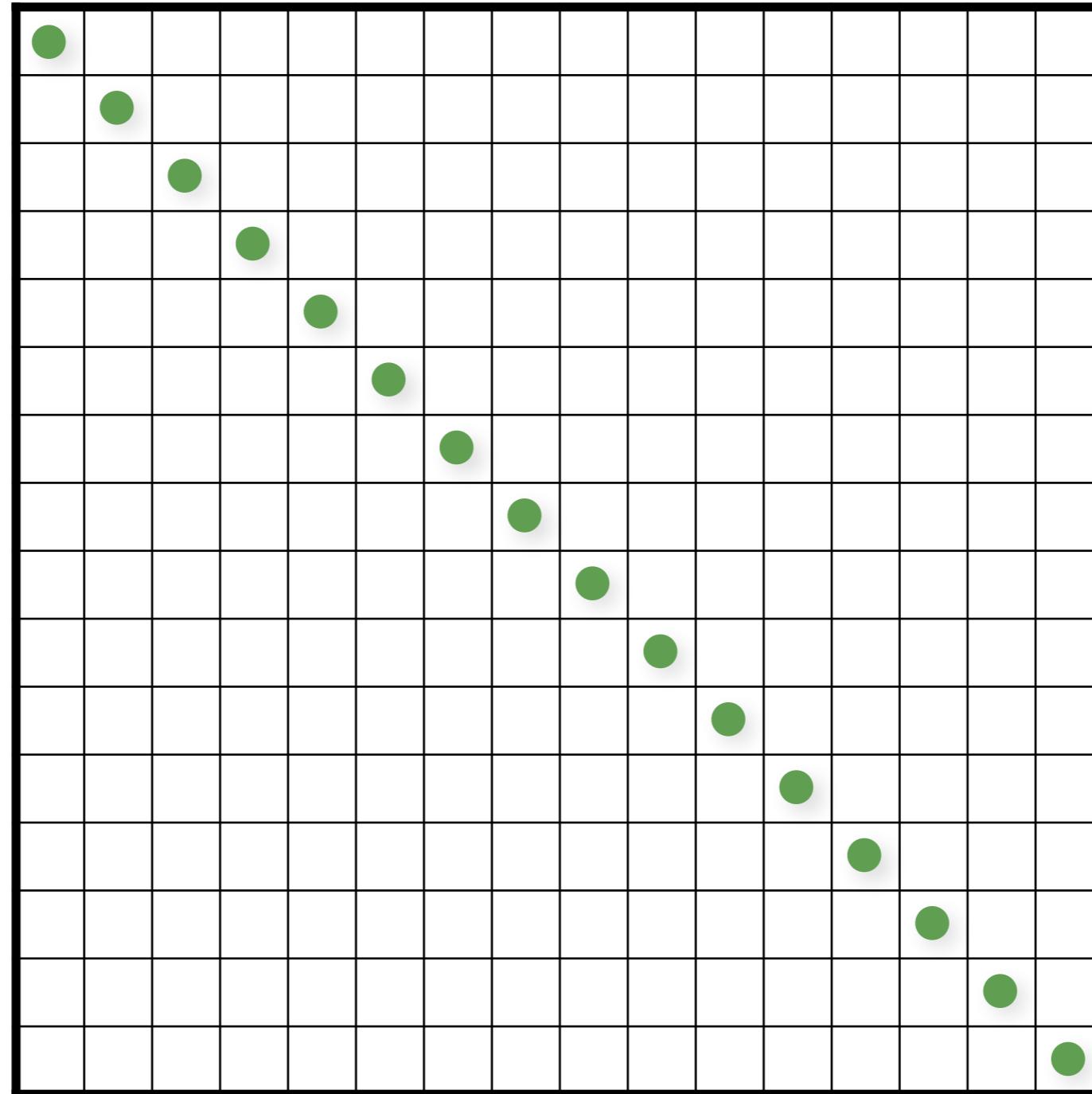
# Latin Hypercube (N-Rooks) Sampling

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Initialize

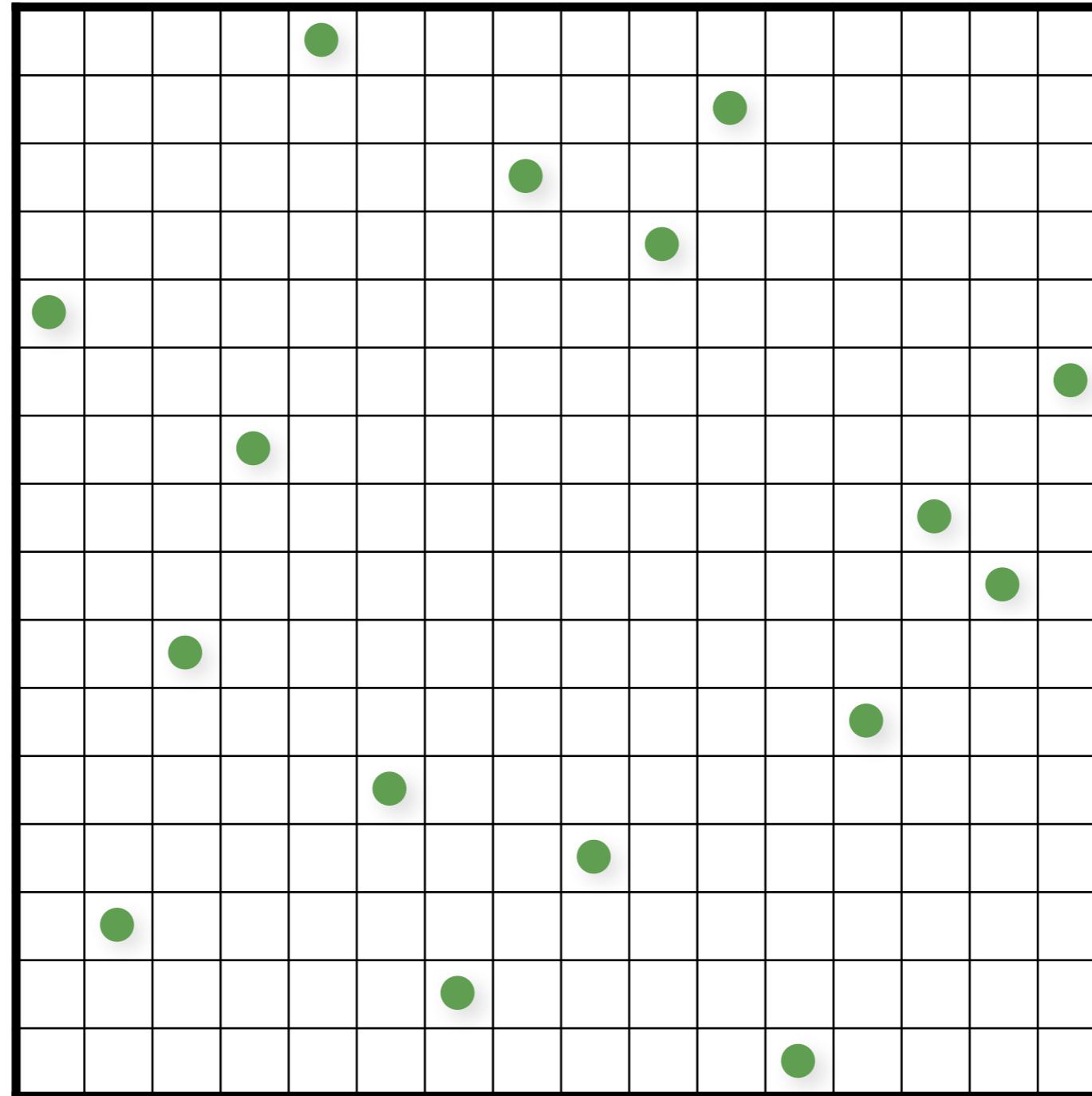
# Latin Hypercube (N-Rooks) Sampling



Shuffle rows

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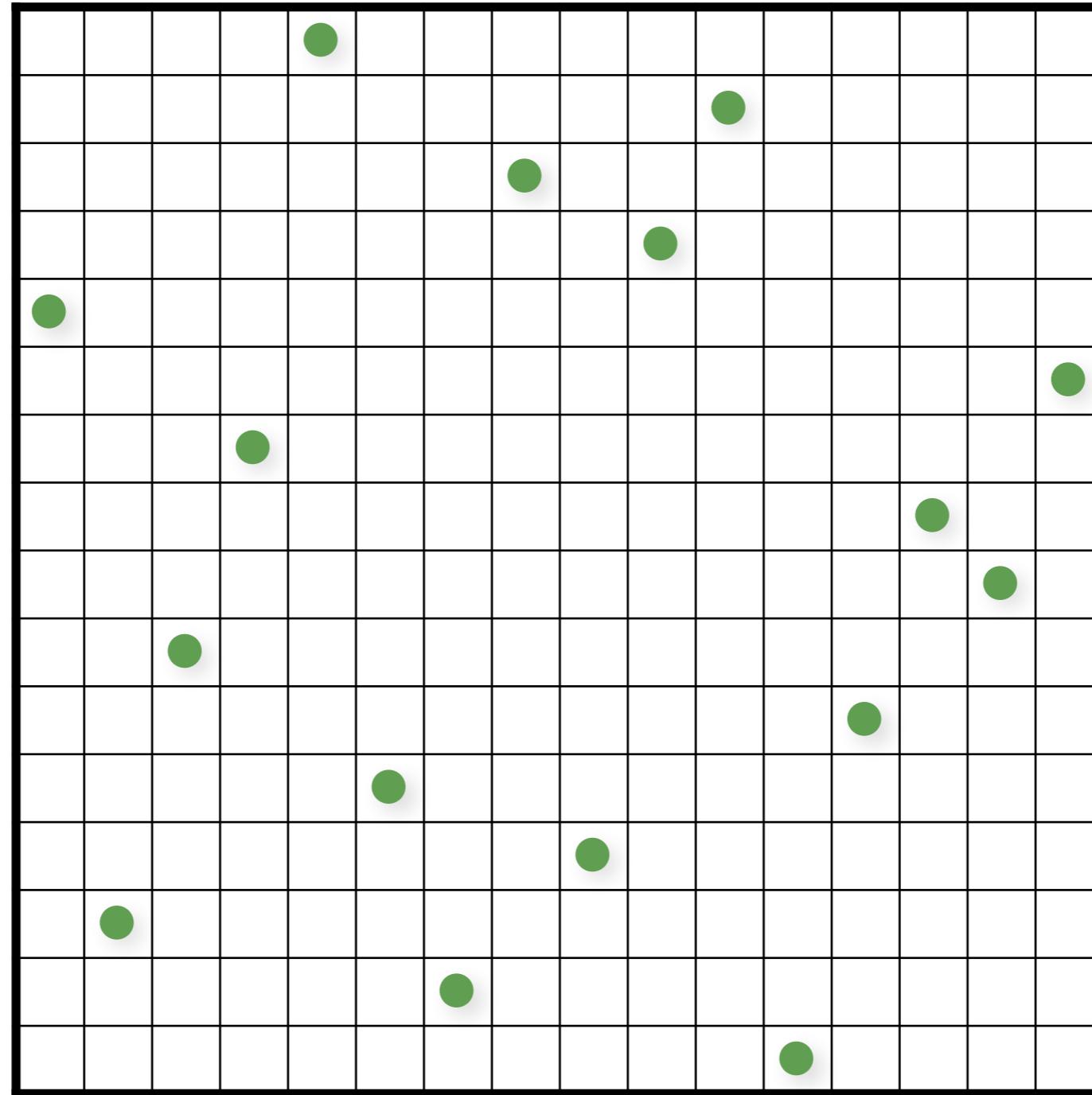
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Shuffle rows

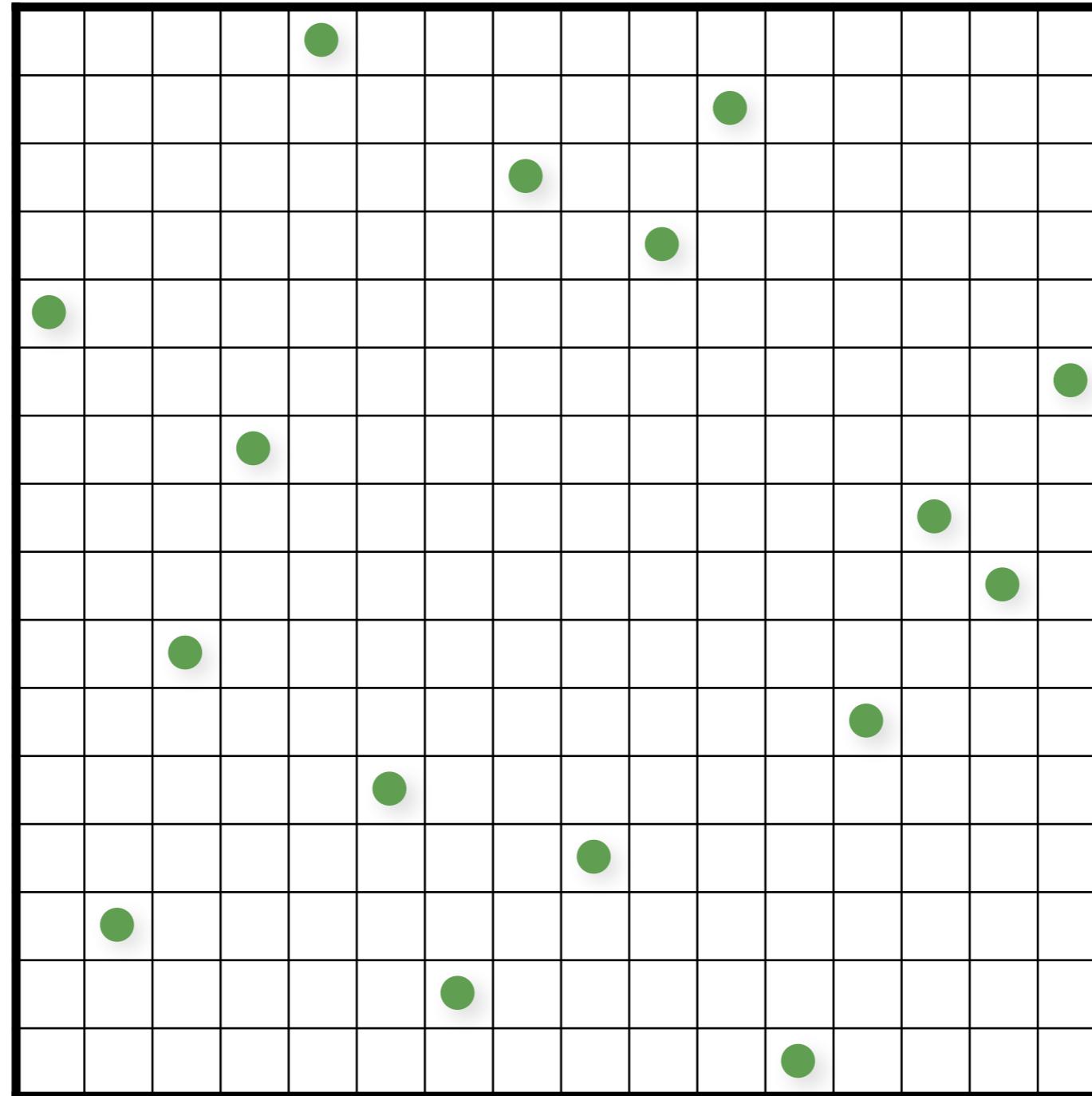
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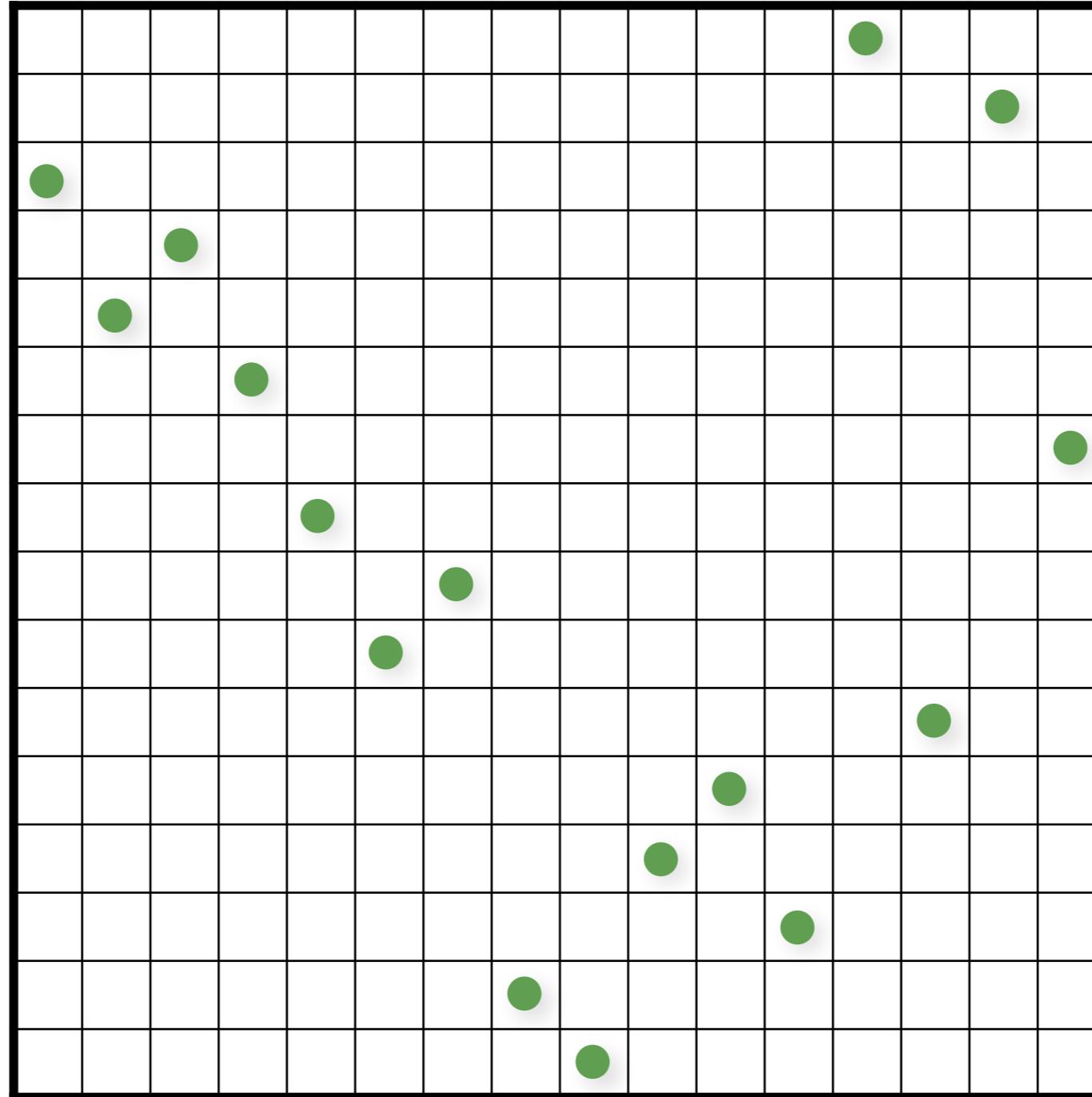
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Shuffle columns

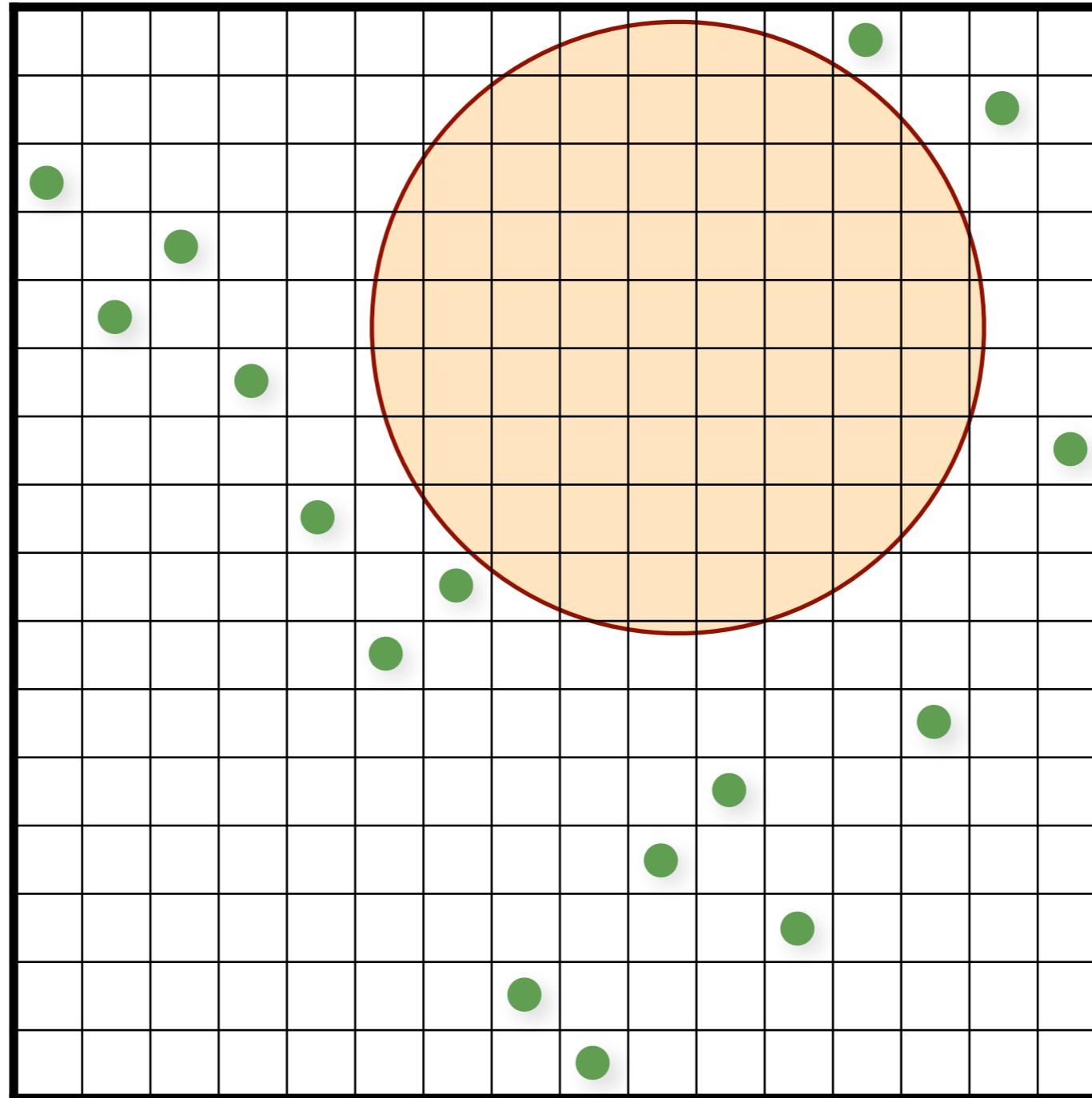
# Latin Hypercube (N-Rooks) Sampling

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Shuffle columns

# Latin Hypercube (N-Rooks) Sampling



Shuffle columns

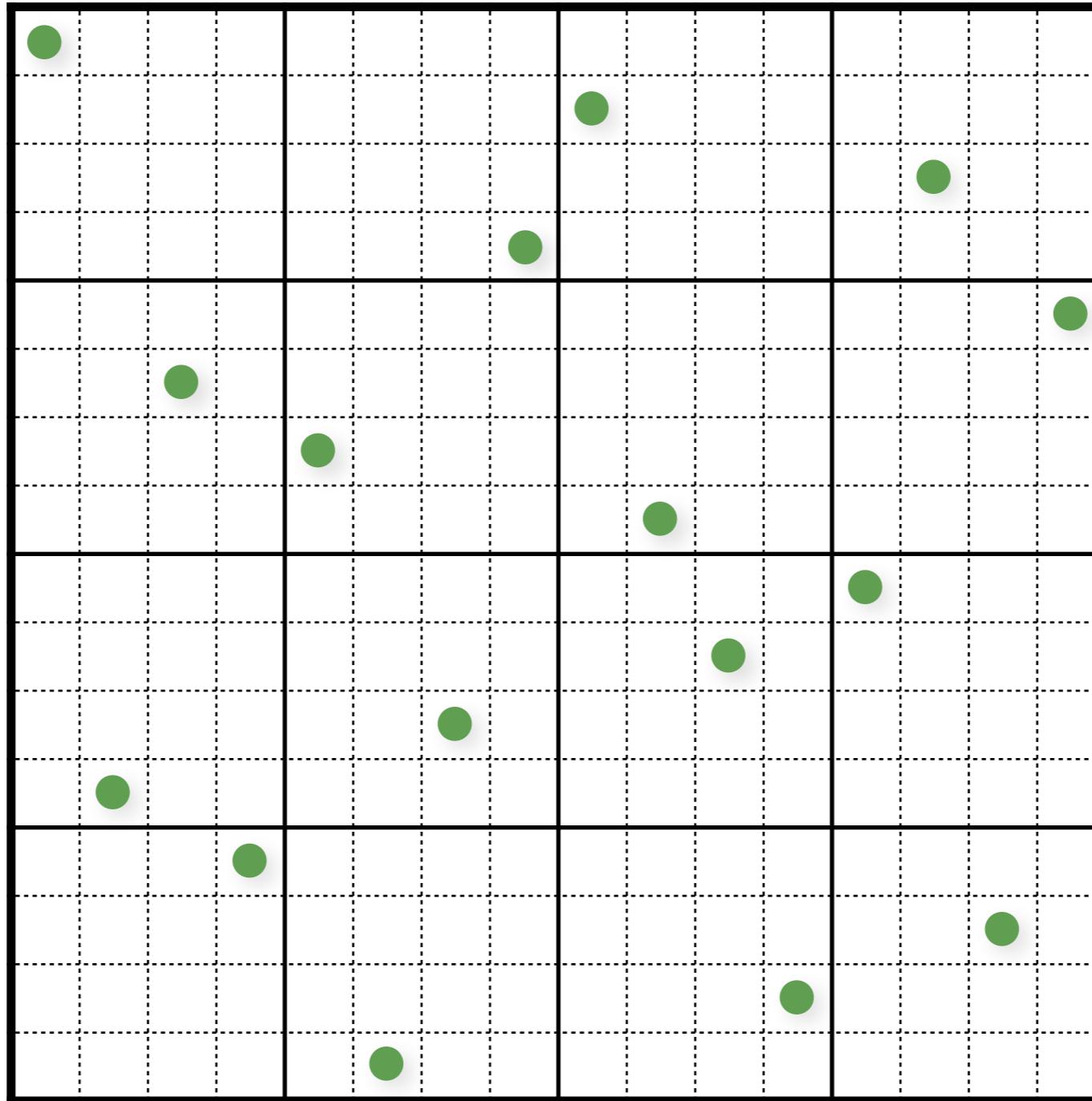
# Multi-Jittered Sampling

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- Kenneth Chiu, Peter Shirley, and Changyaw Wang. “Multi-jittered sampling.” In *Graphics Gems IV*, pp. 370–374. Academic Press, May 1994.
  - combine N-Rooks and Jittered stratification constraints

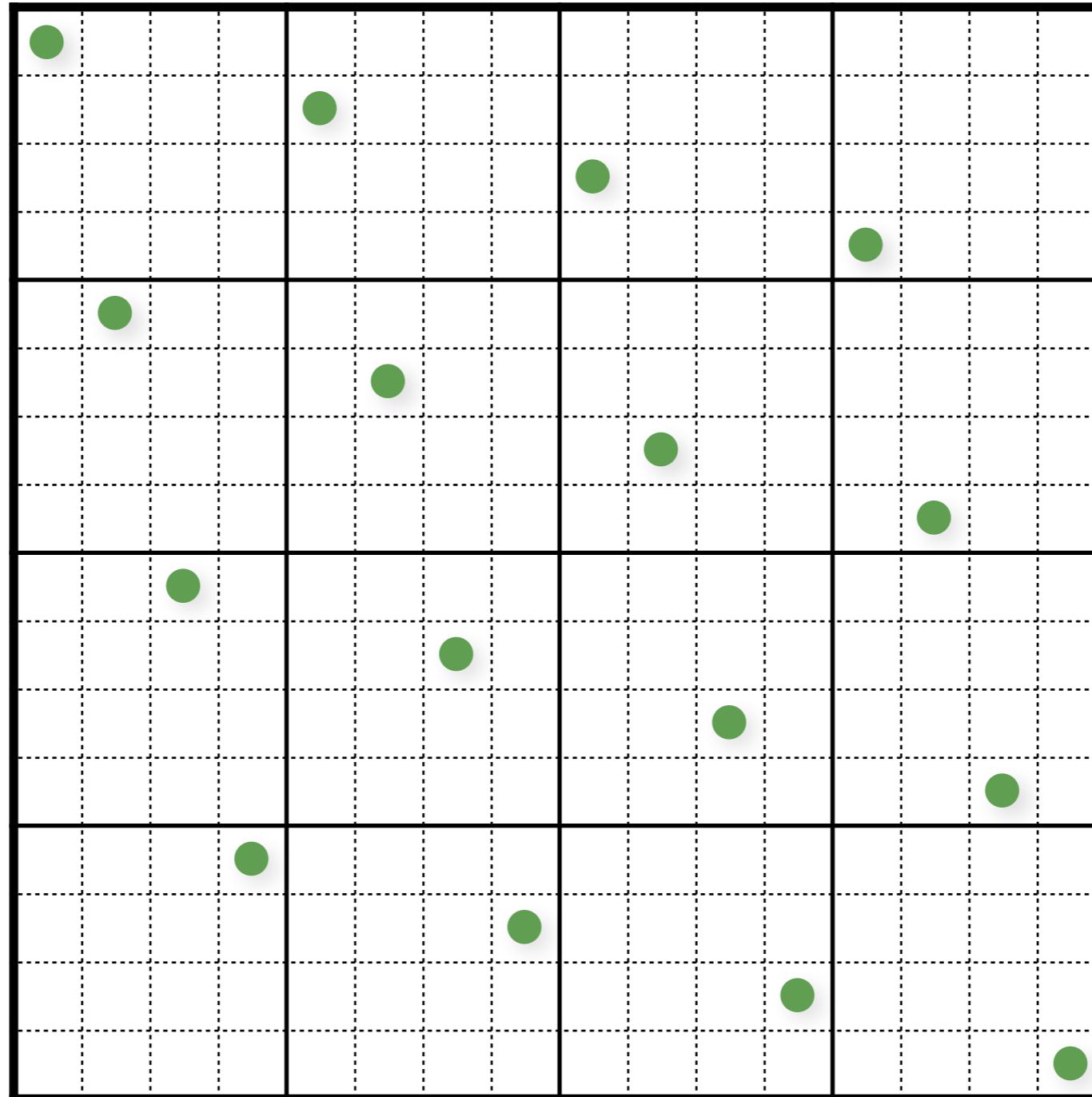
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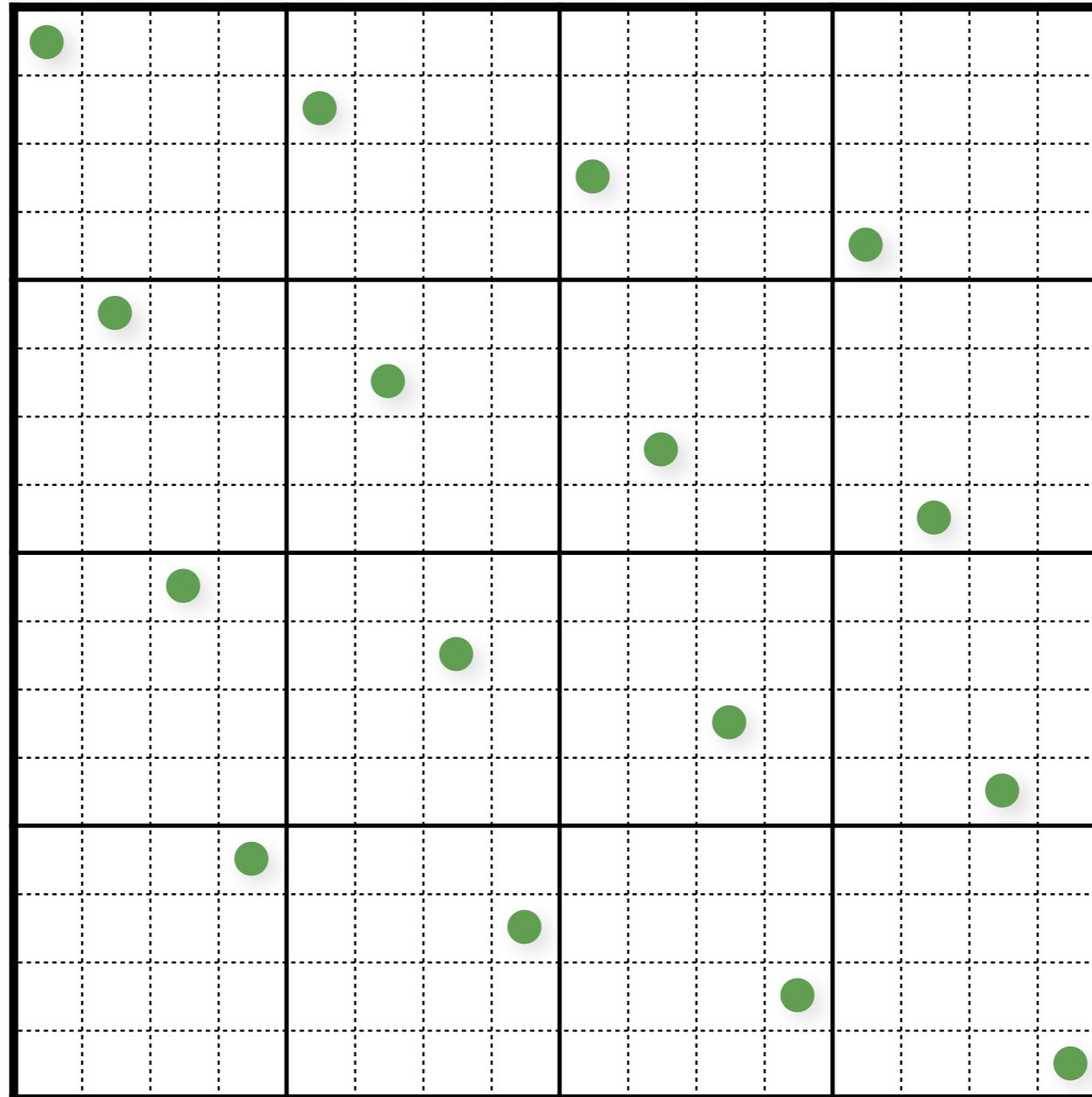
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Initialize

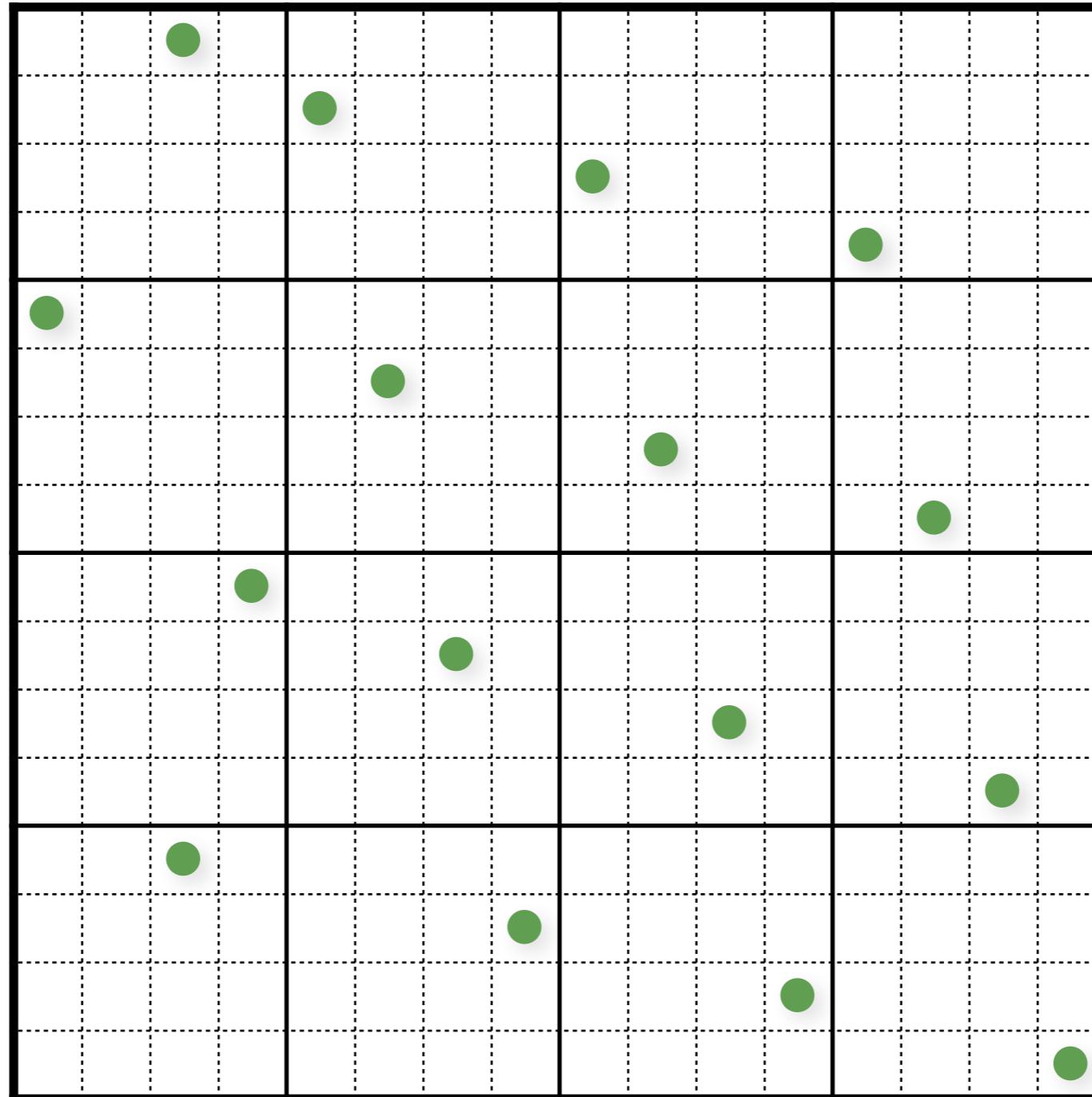
# Multi-Jittered Sampling

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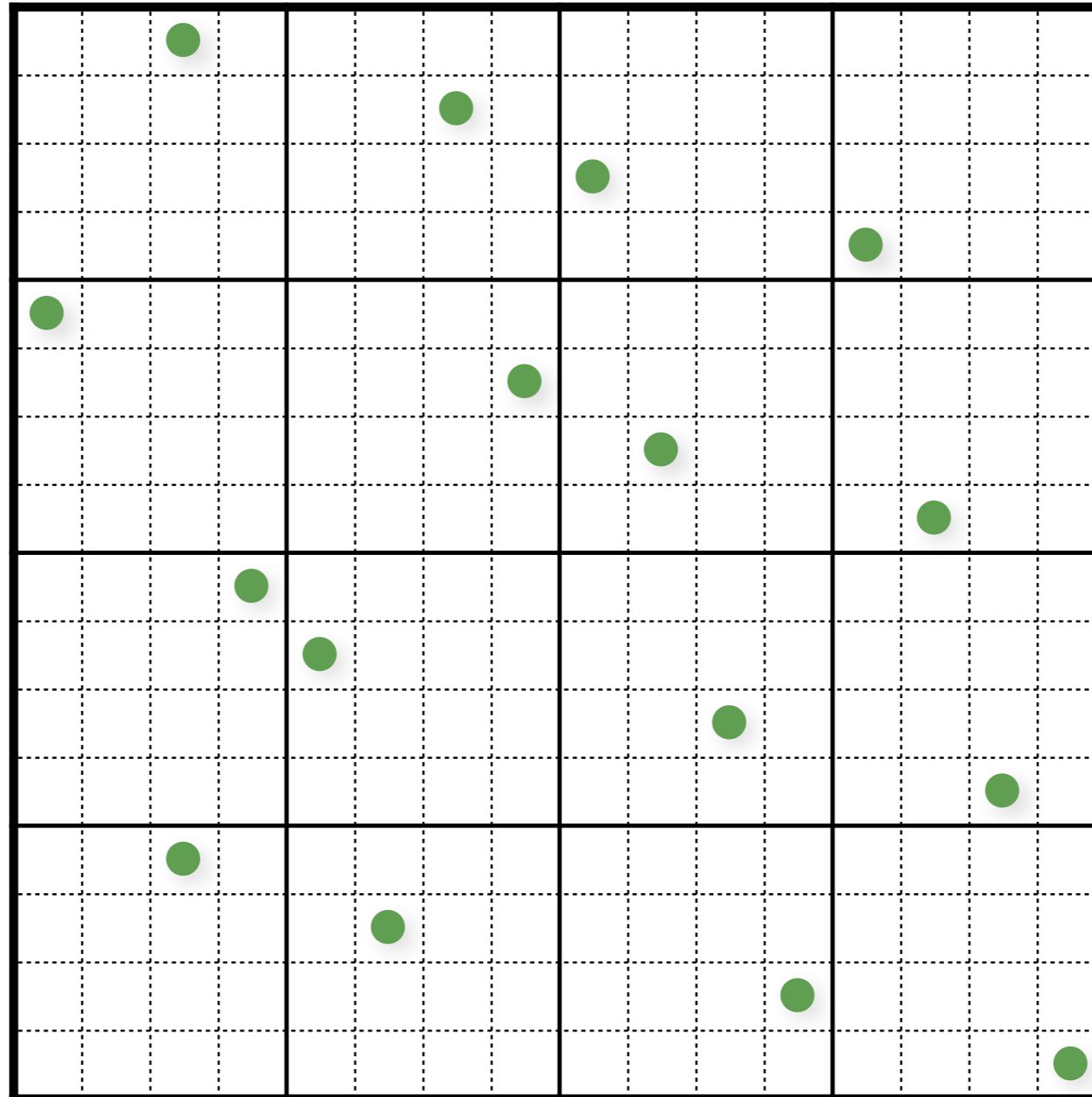
Shuffle x-coords

# Multi-Jittered Sampling



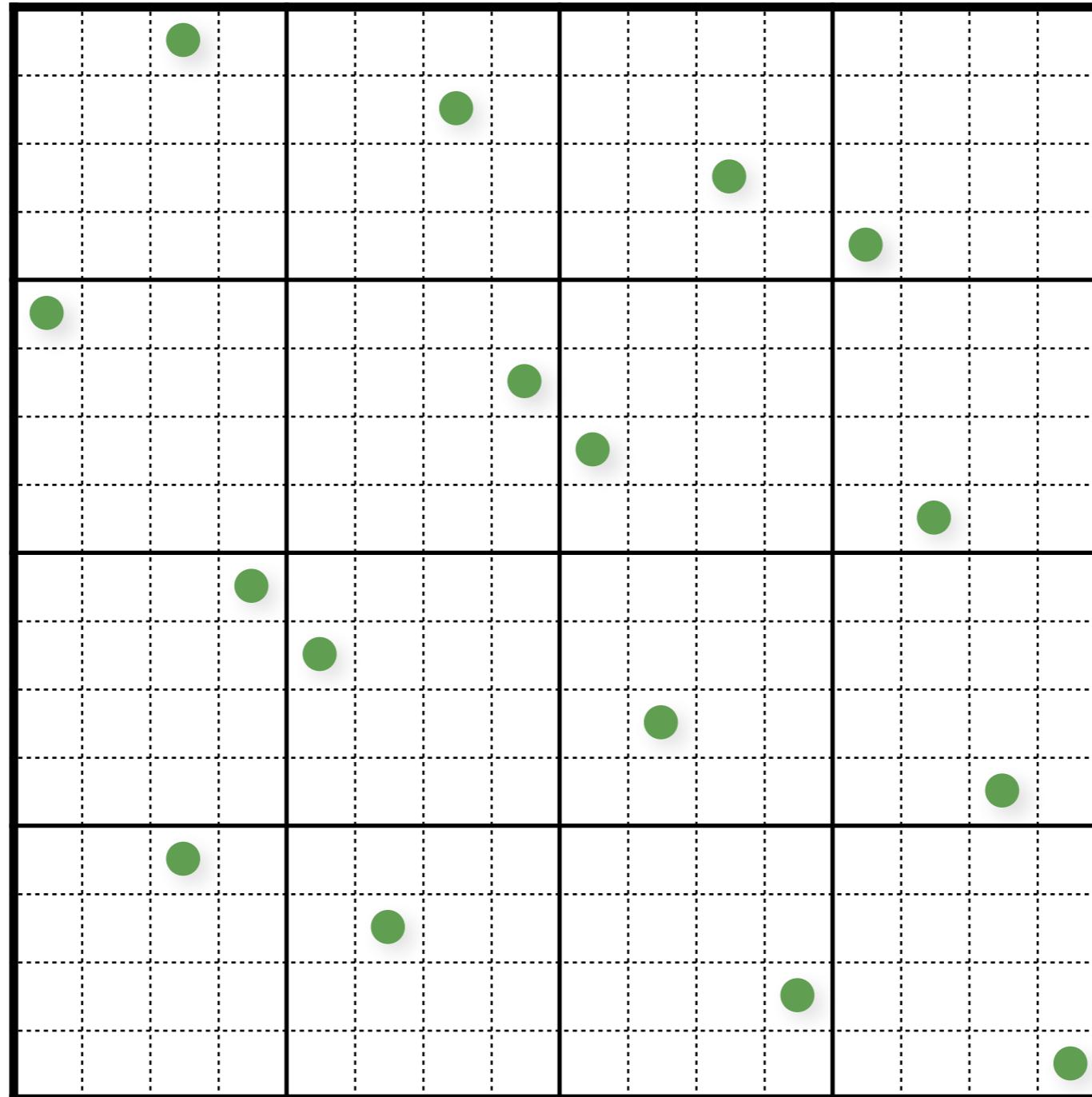
Shuffle x-coords

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Shuffle x-coords

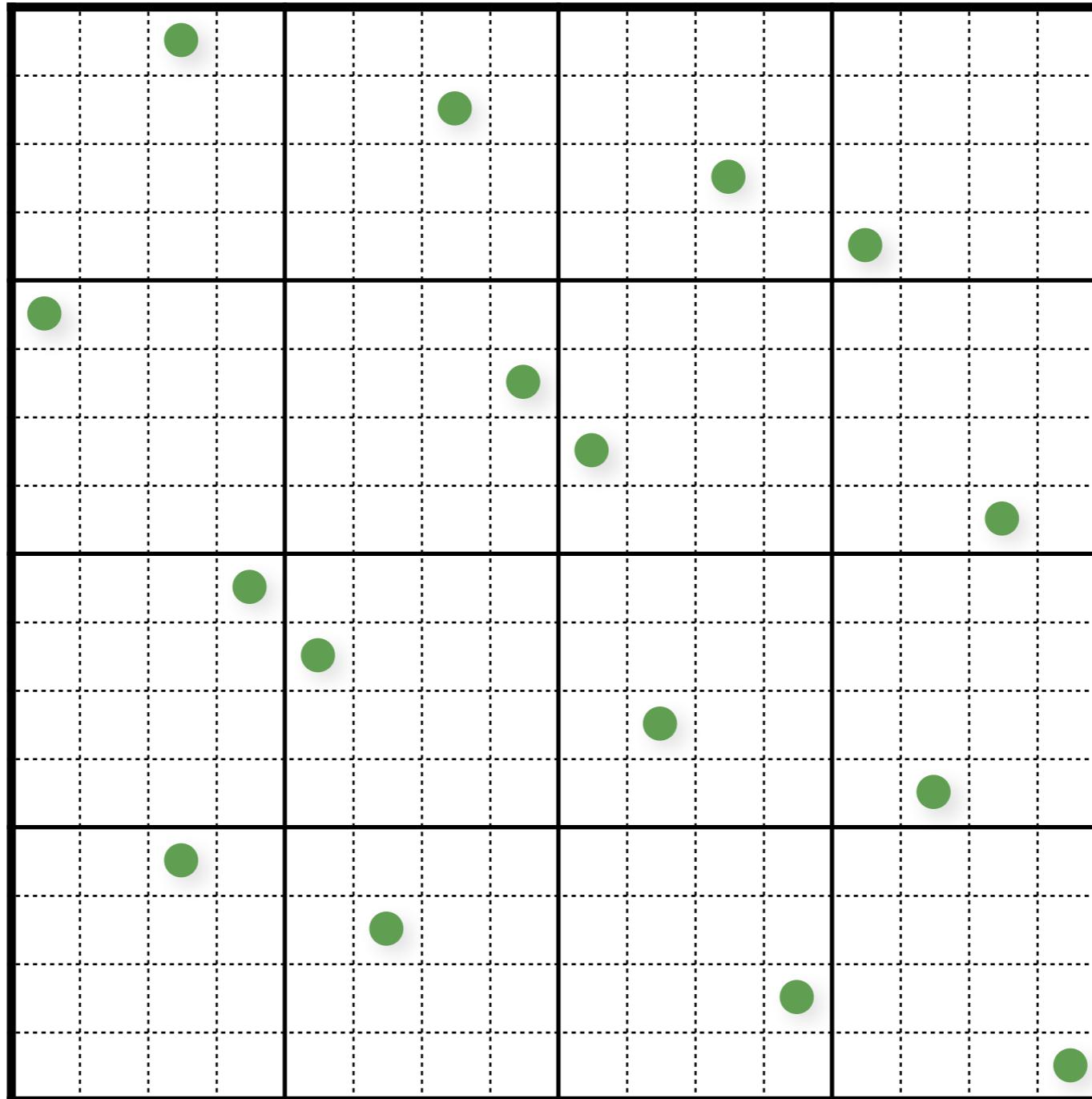
# Multi-Jittered Sampling



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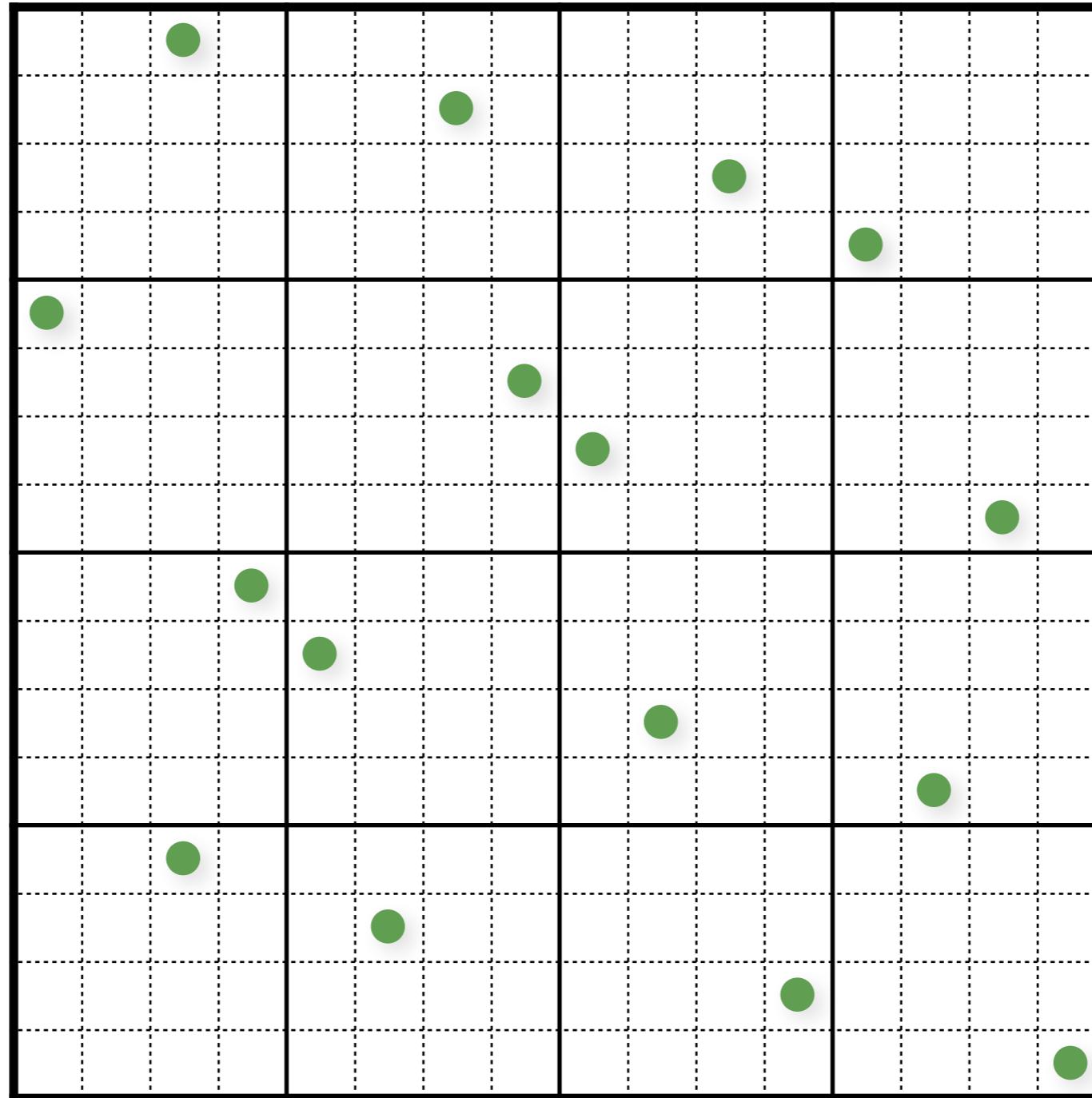
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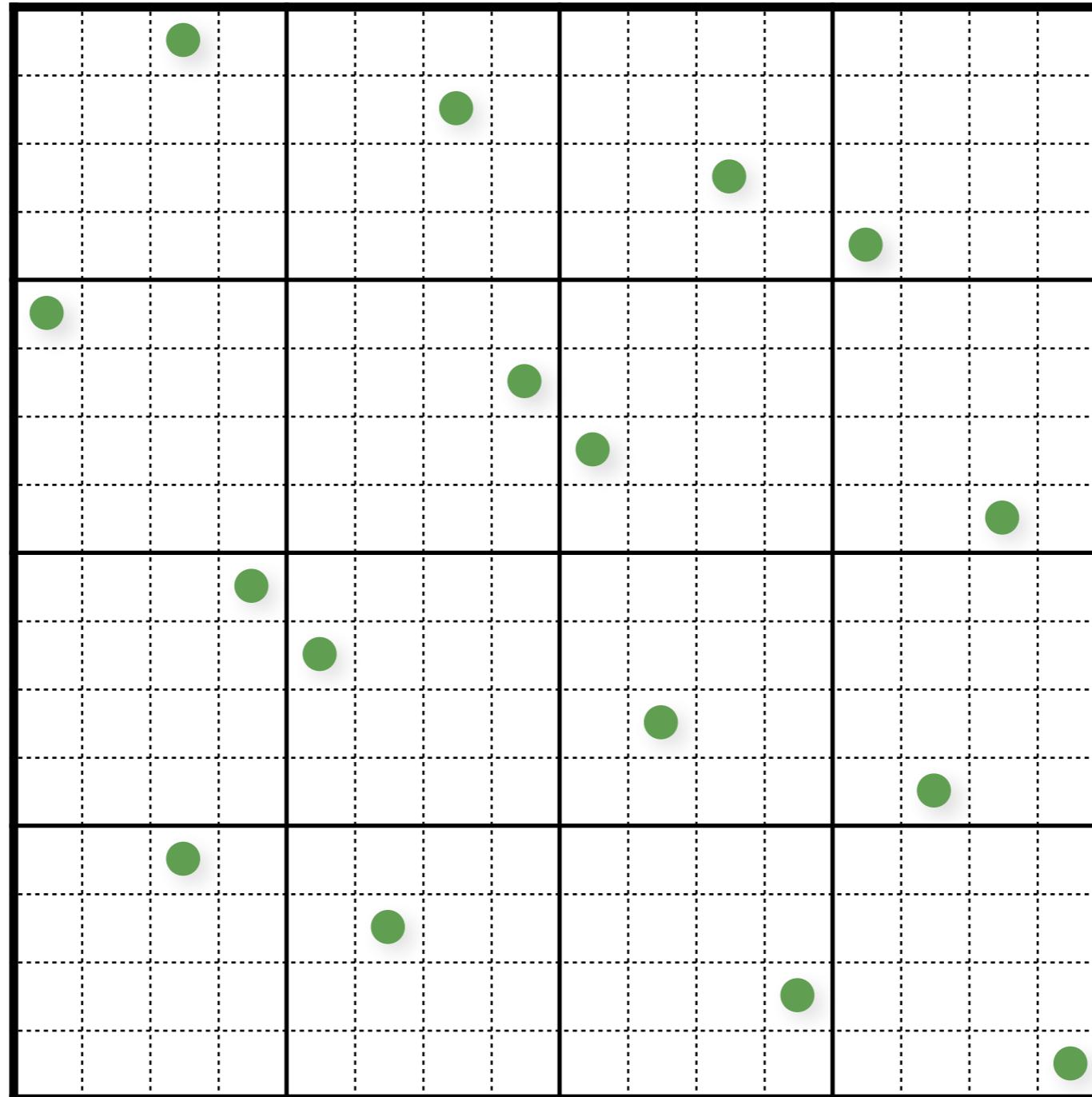
Shuffle x-coords

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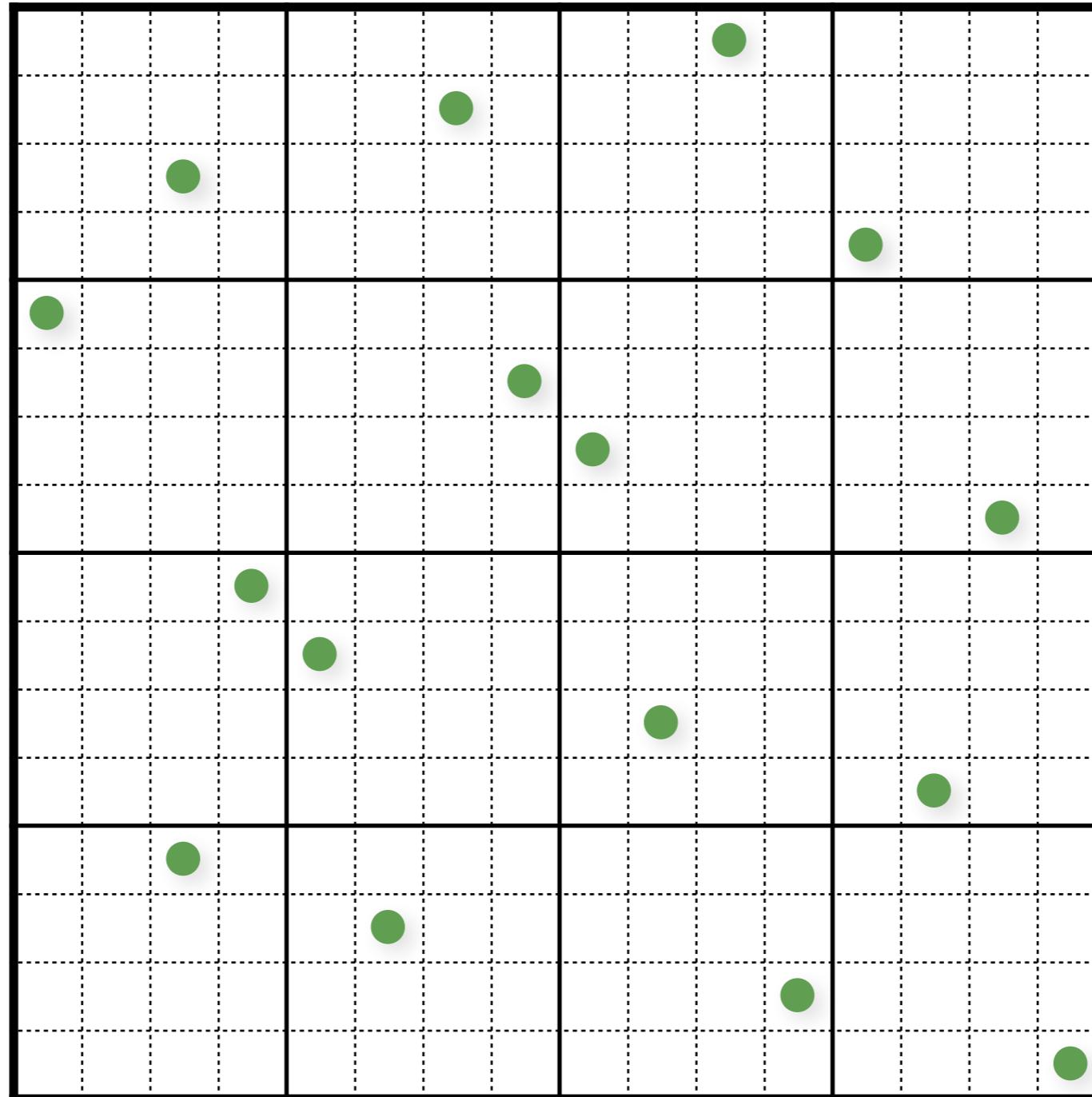


# Multi-Jittered Sampling



Shuffle y-coords

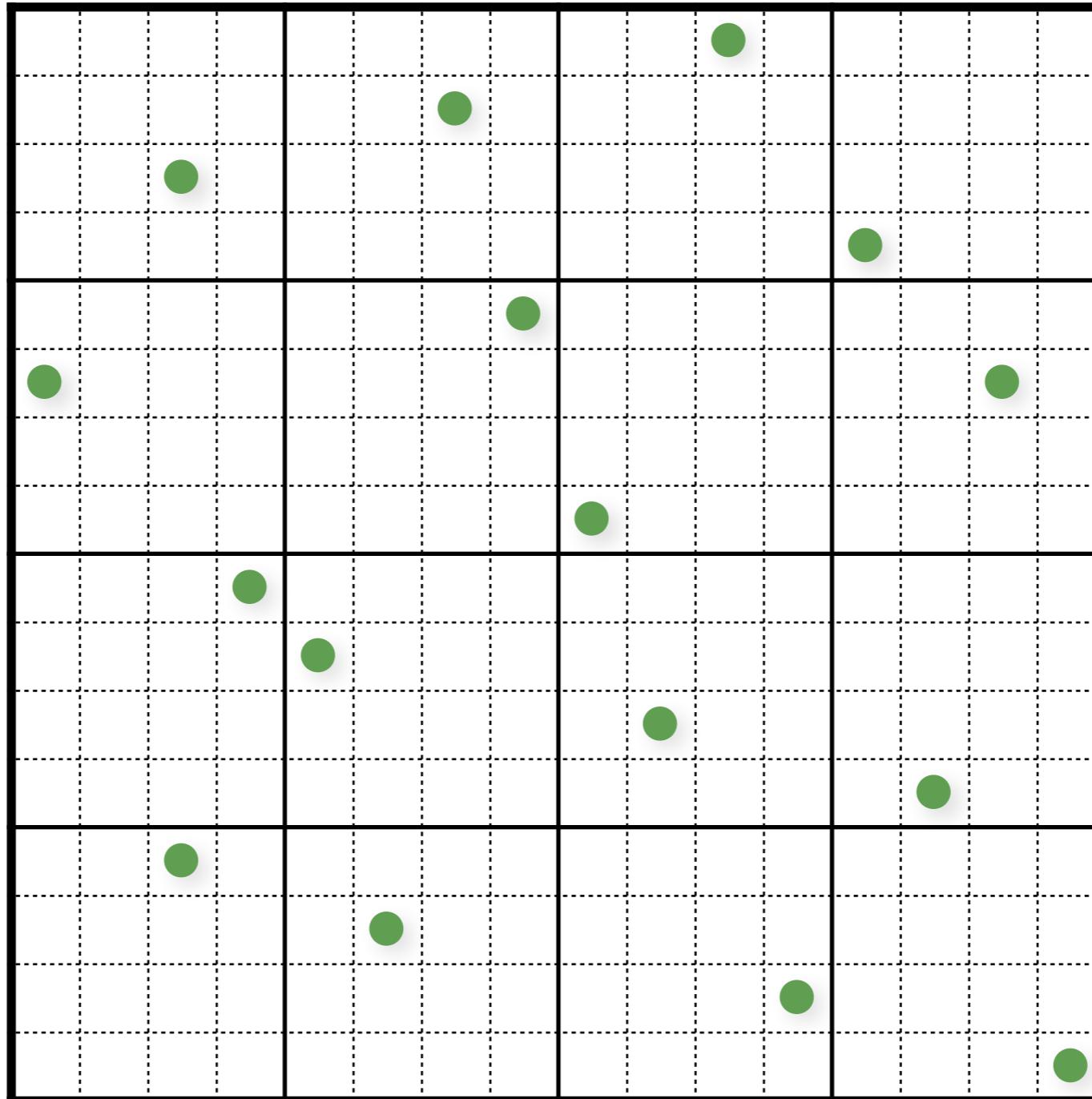
# Multi-Jittered Sampling



Shuffle y-coords

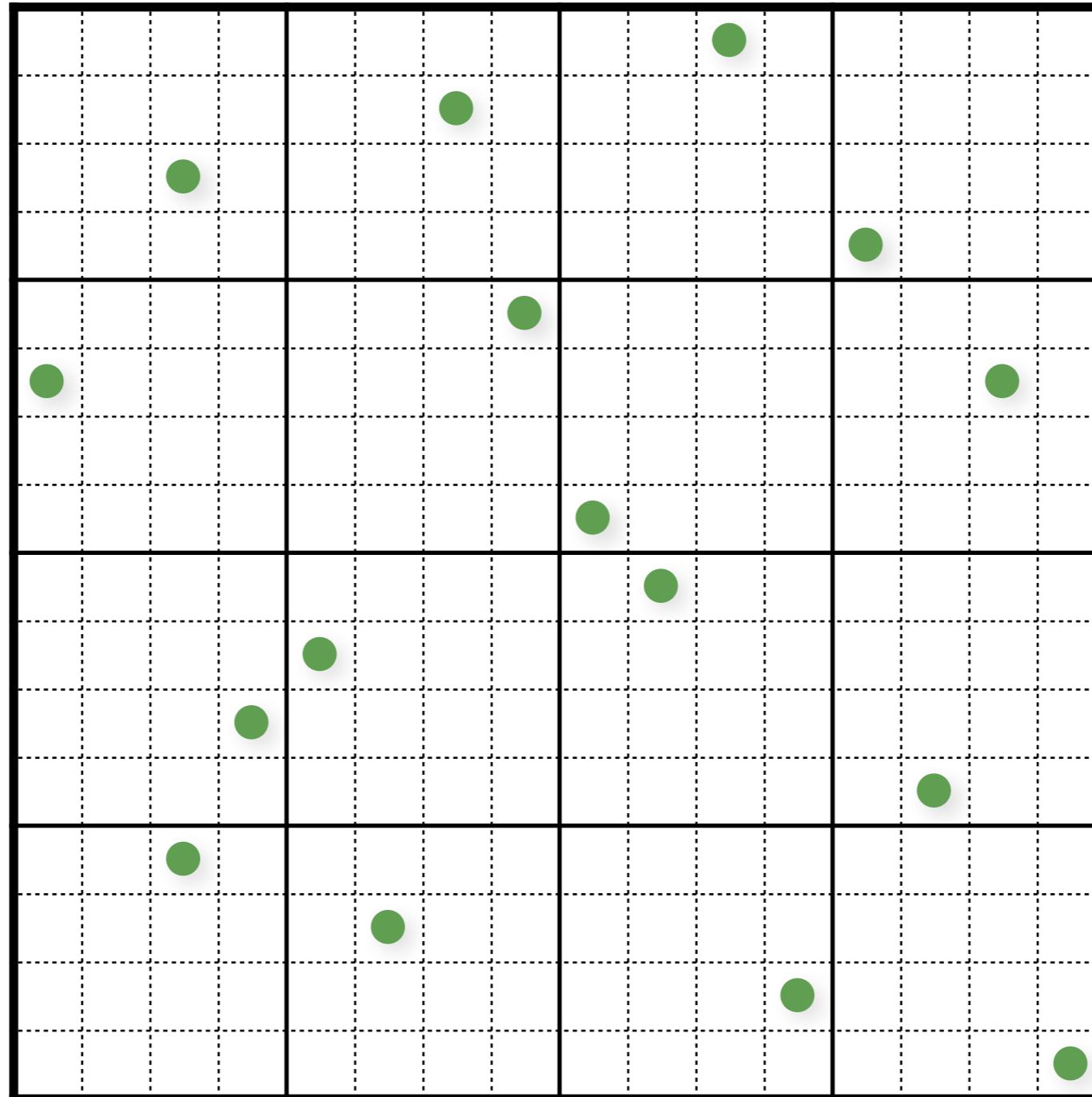
# Multi-Jittered Sampling

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Shuffle y-coords

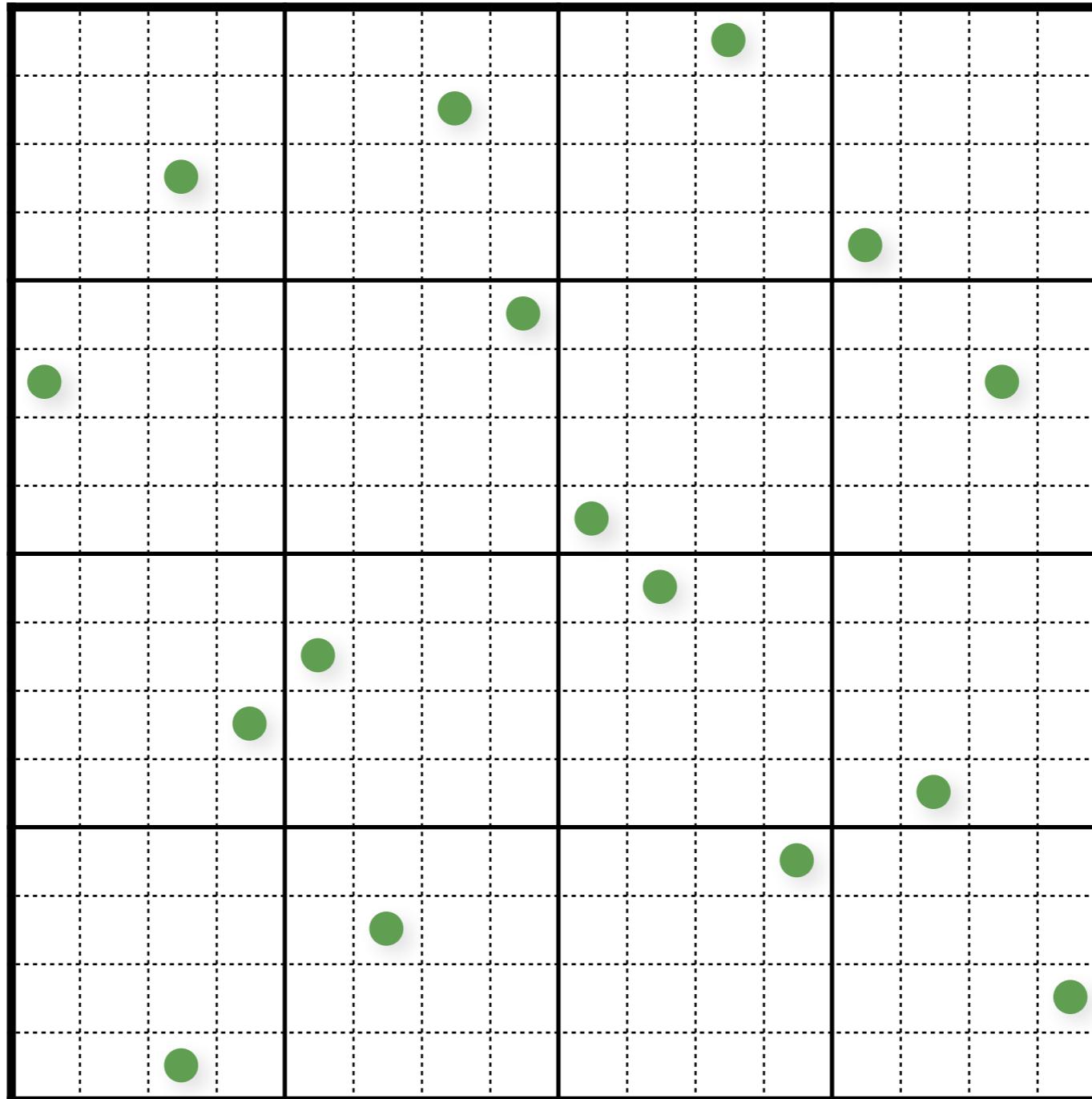
# Multi-Jittered Sampling



Shuffle y-coords

# Multi-Jittered Sampling

---



Shuffle y-coords

# Multi-Jittered Sampling

---

```
// initialize
float cellSize = 1.0 / (resX*resY);
for (uint i = 0; i < resX; i++)
    for (uint j = 0; j < resY; j++)
    {
        samples(i,j).x = i/resX + (j+randf()) / (resX*resY);
        samples(i,j).y = j/resY + (i+randf()) / (resX*resY);
    }

// shuffle x coordinates within each column of cells
for (uint i = 0; i < resX; i++)
    for (uint j = resY-1; j >= 1; j--)
        swap(samples(i, j).x, samples(i, randi(0, j)).x);

// shuffle y coordinates within each row of cells
for (unsigned j = 0; j < resY; j++)
    for (unsigned i = resX-1; i >= 1; i--)
        swap(samples(i, j).y, samples(randi(0, i), j).y);
```

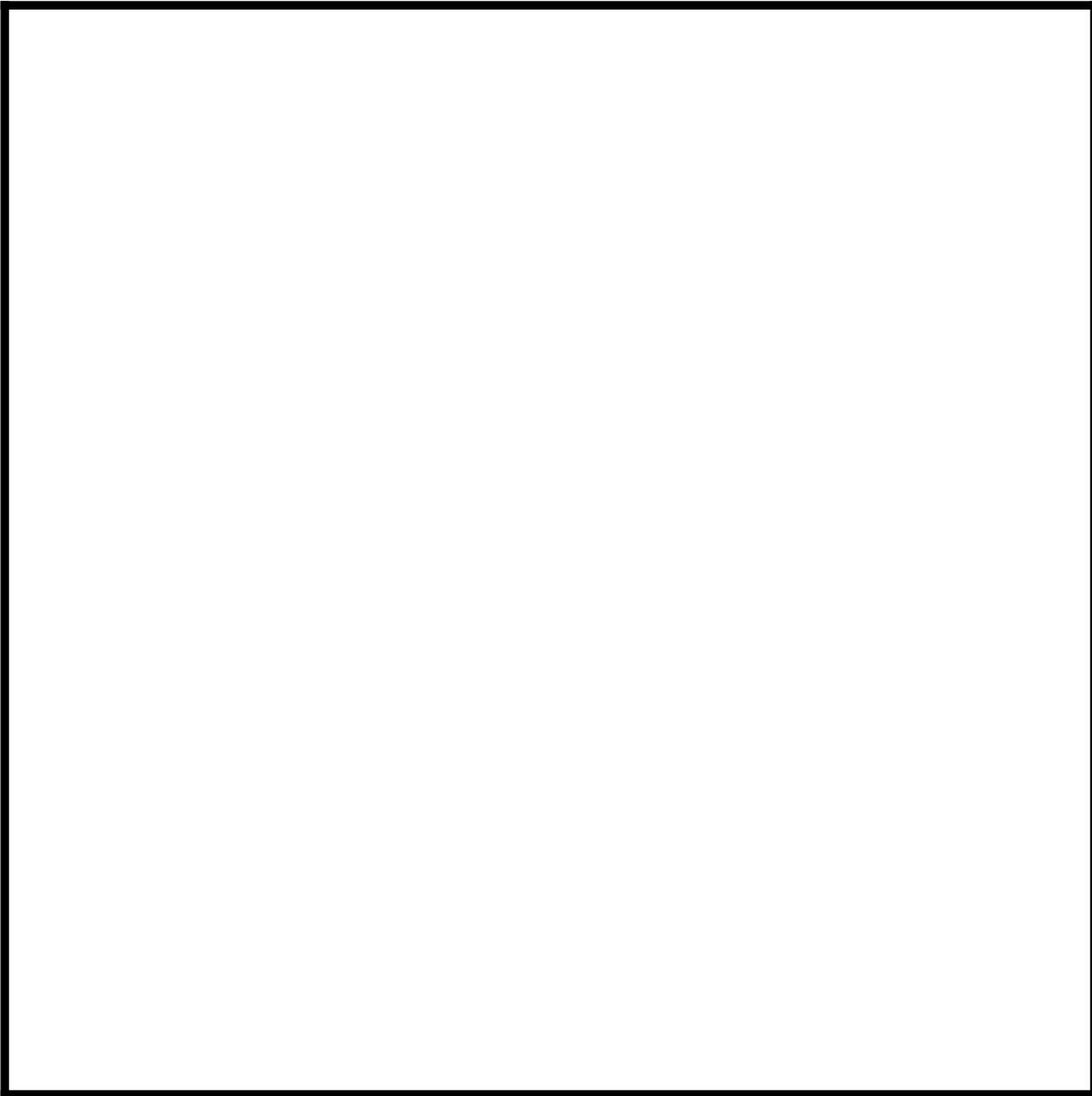
# Poisson-Disk/Blue-Noise Sampling

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- Enforce a minimum distance between points
- Poisson-Disk Sampling:
  - Robert L. Cook. Stochastic sampling in computer graphics. *ACM Transactions on Graphics*. 5(1): 51–72, 1986.
  - Ares Lagae and Philip Dutré. A comparison of methods for generating Poisson disk distributions. *Computer Graphics Forum*, 27(1):114–129, March 2008.

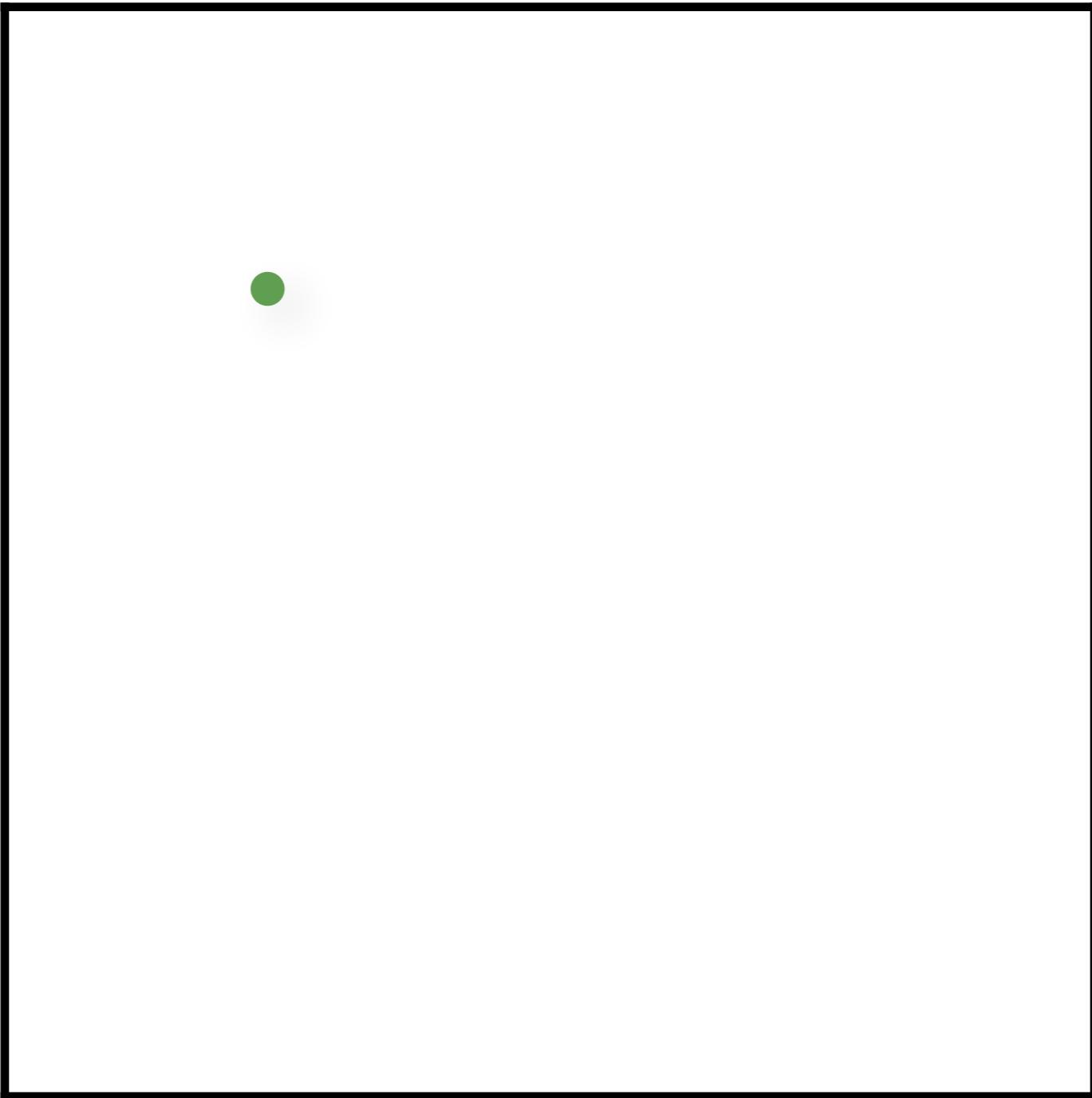
# Random Dart Throwing

---



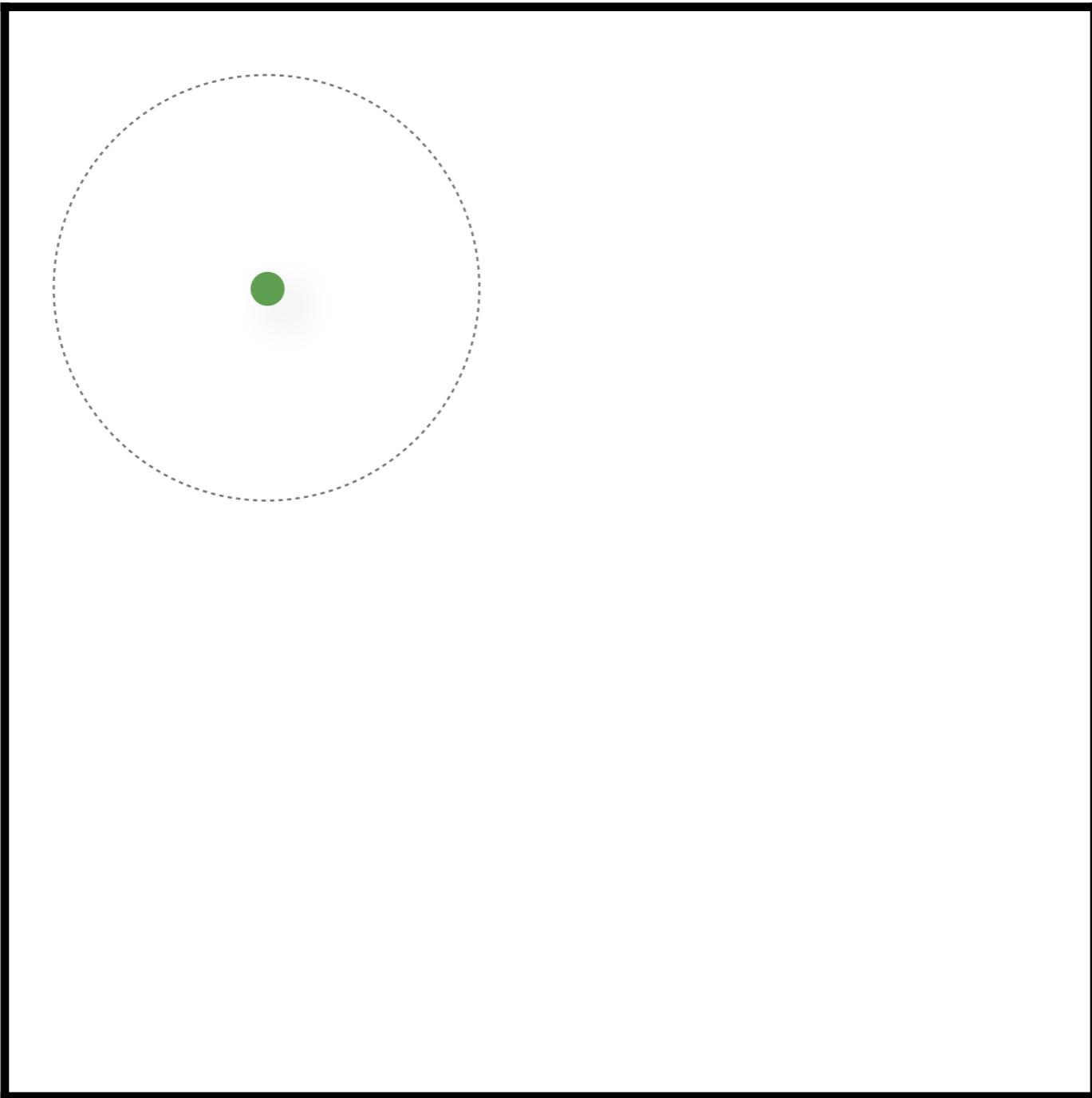
# Random Dart Throwing

---

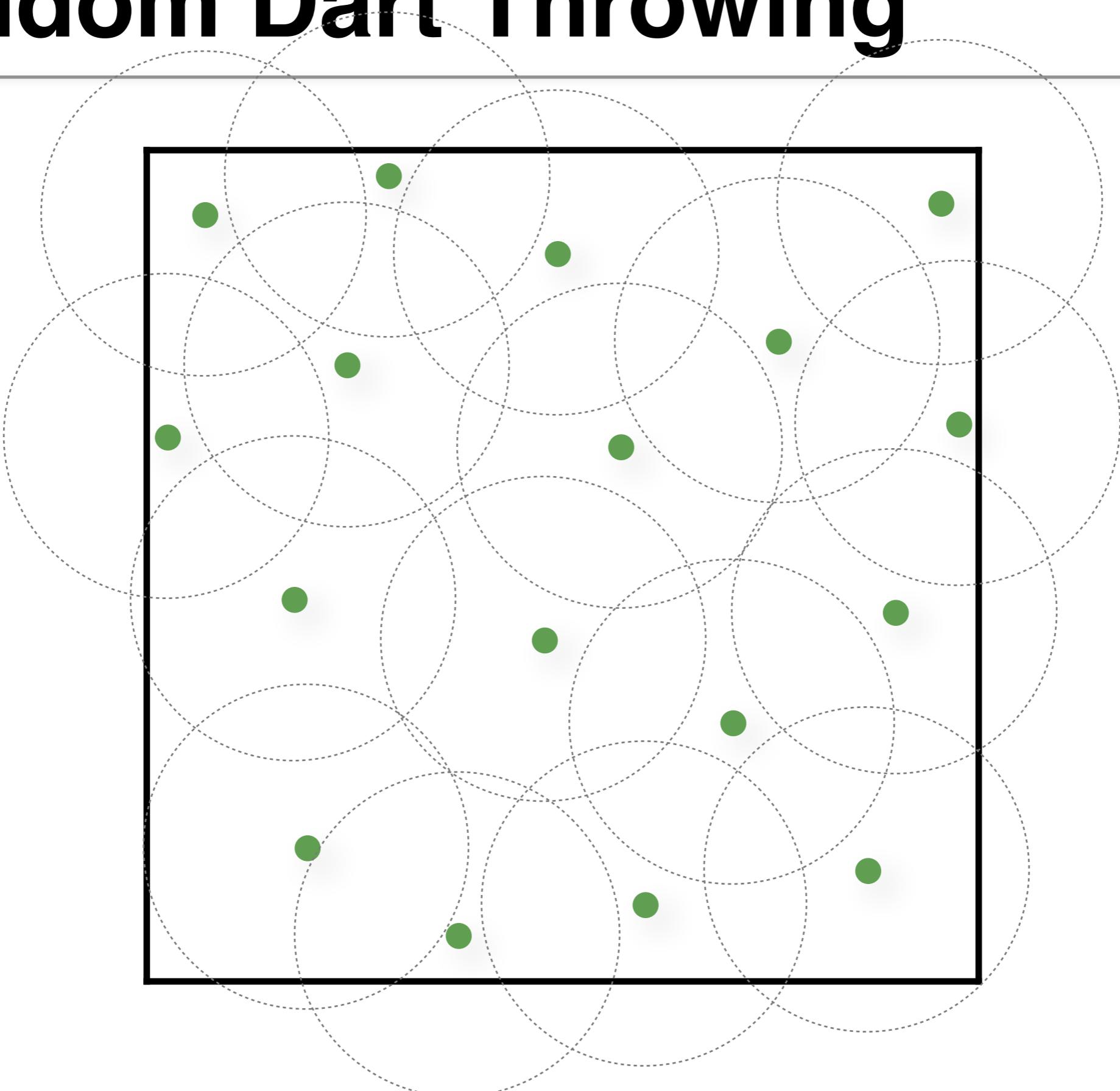


# Random Dart Throwing

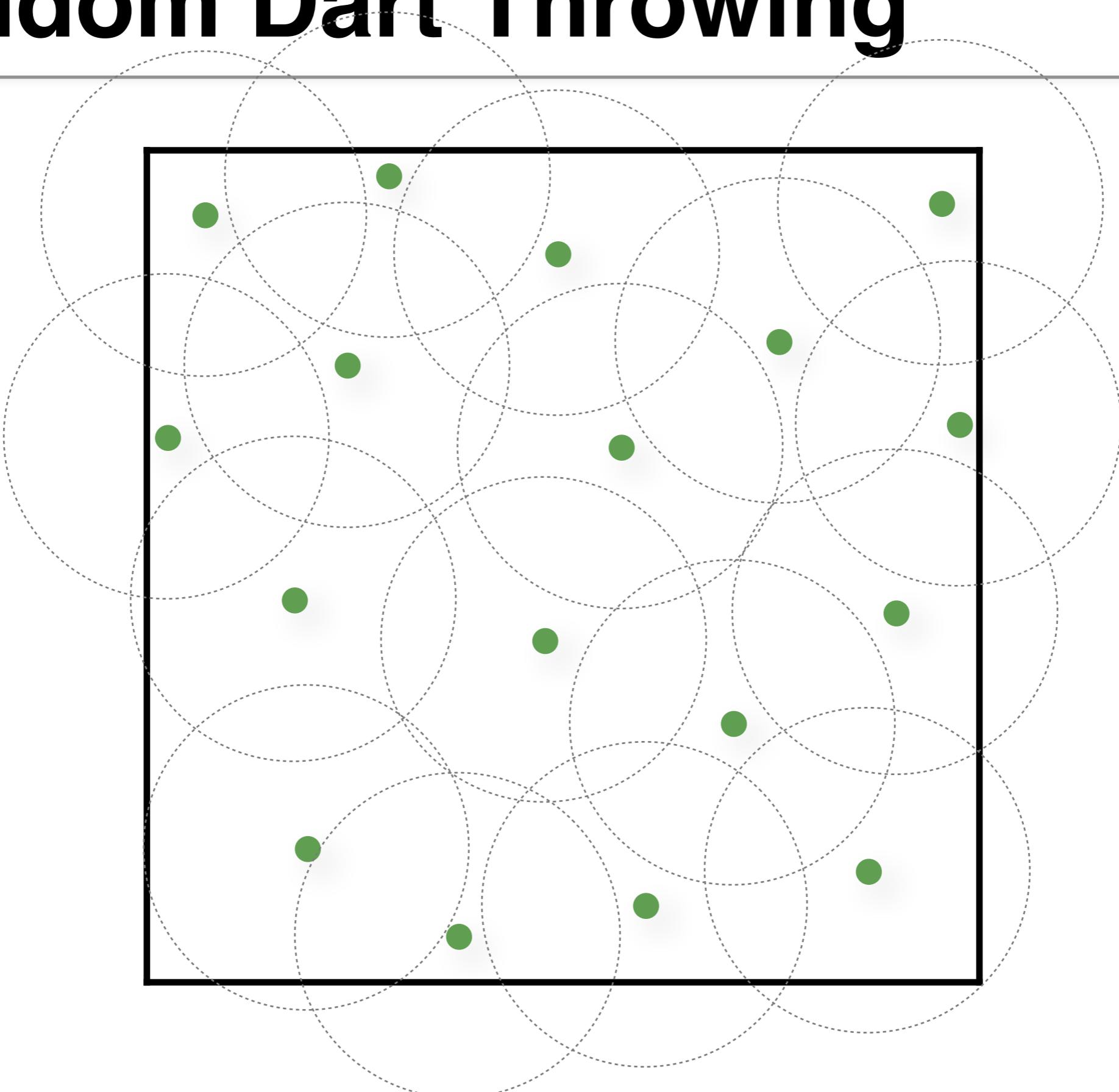
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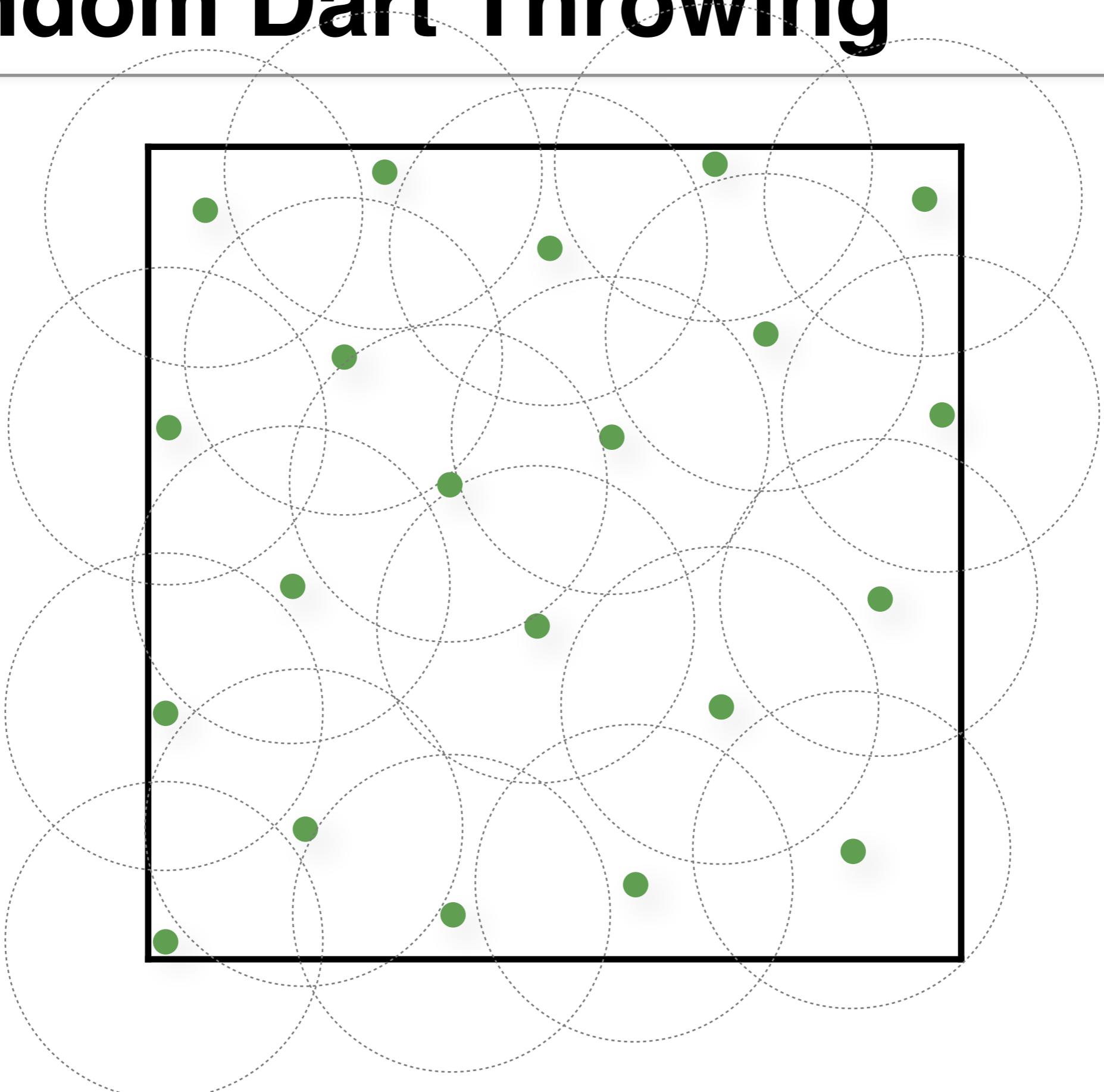
# Random Dart Throwing



# Random Dart Throwing

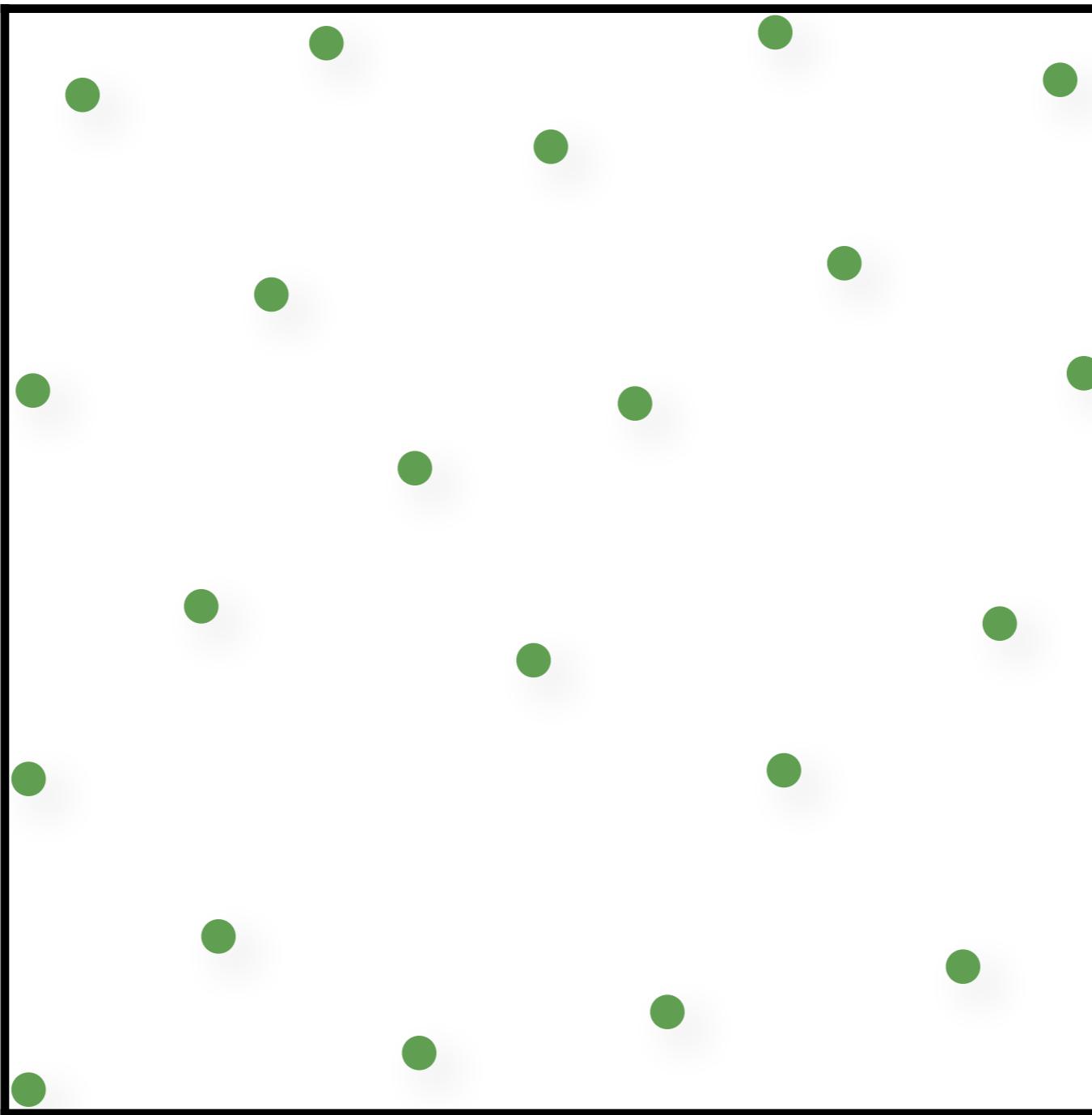


# Random Dart Throwing



# Random Dart Throwing

---



# Stratified Sampling

---



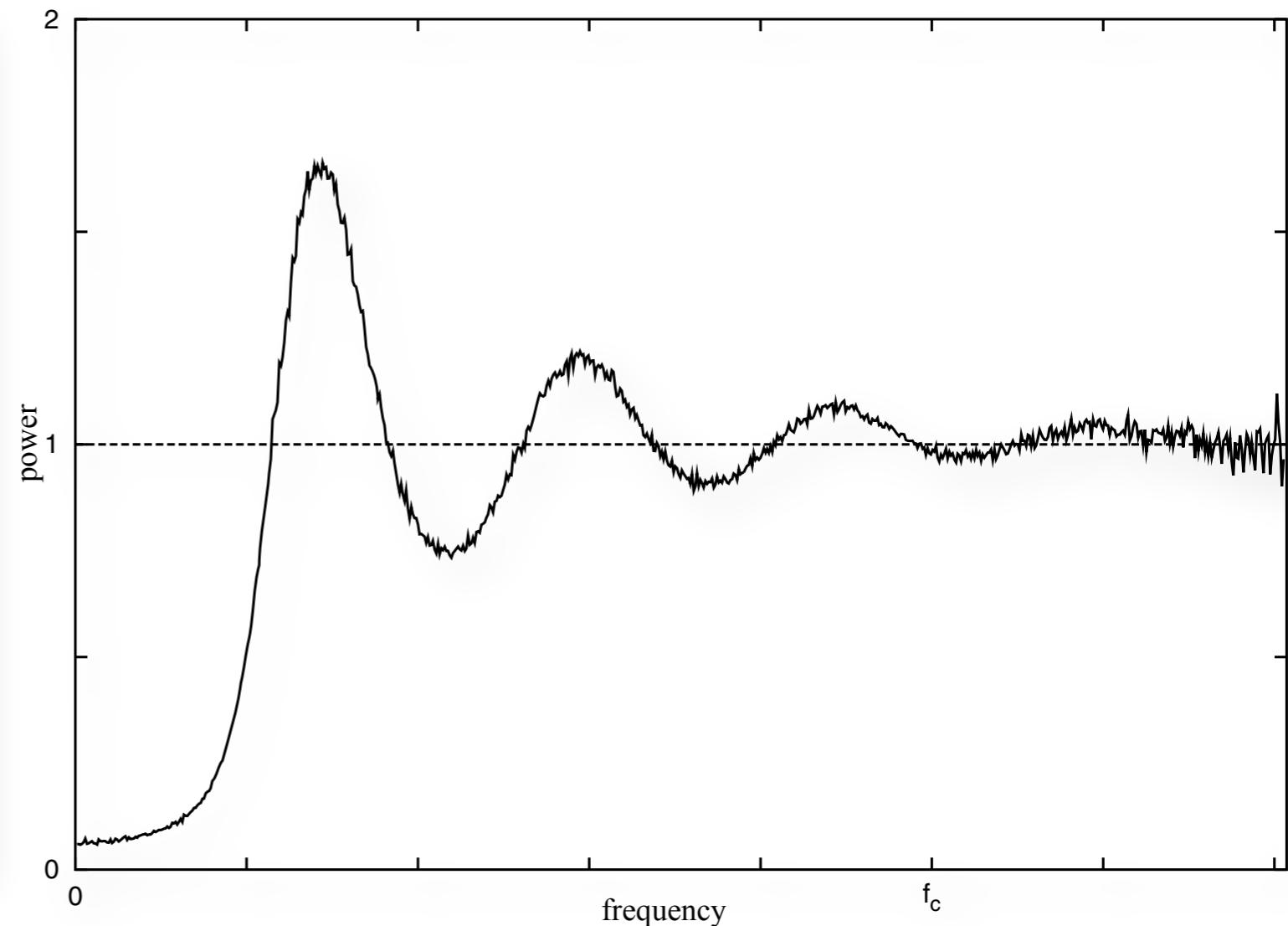
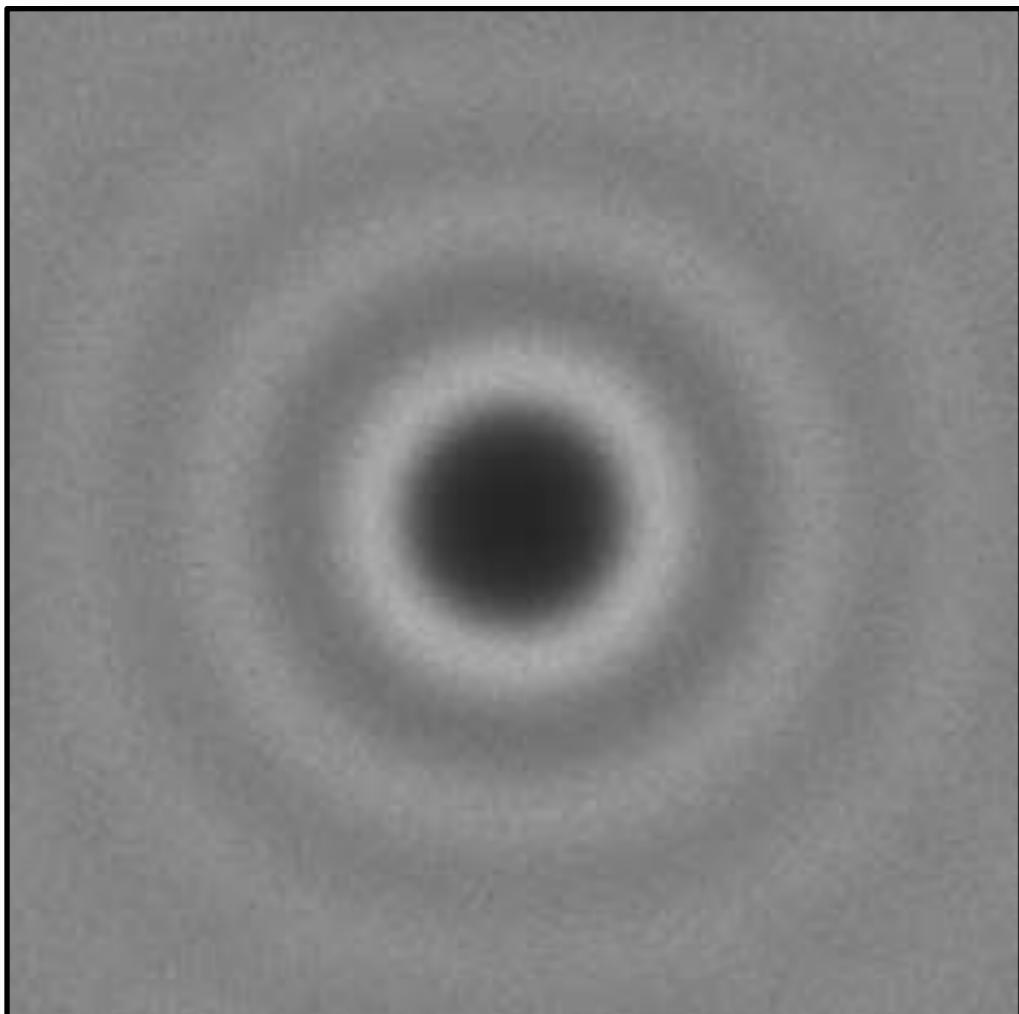
# Best-Candidate Sampling

---



# Power Spectrum

---



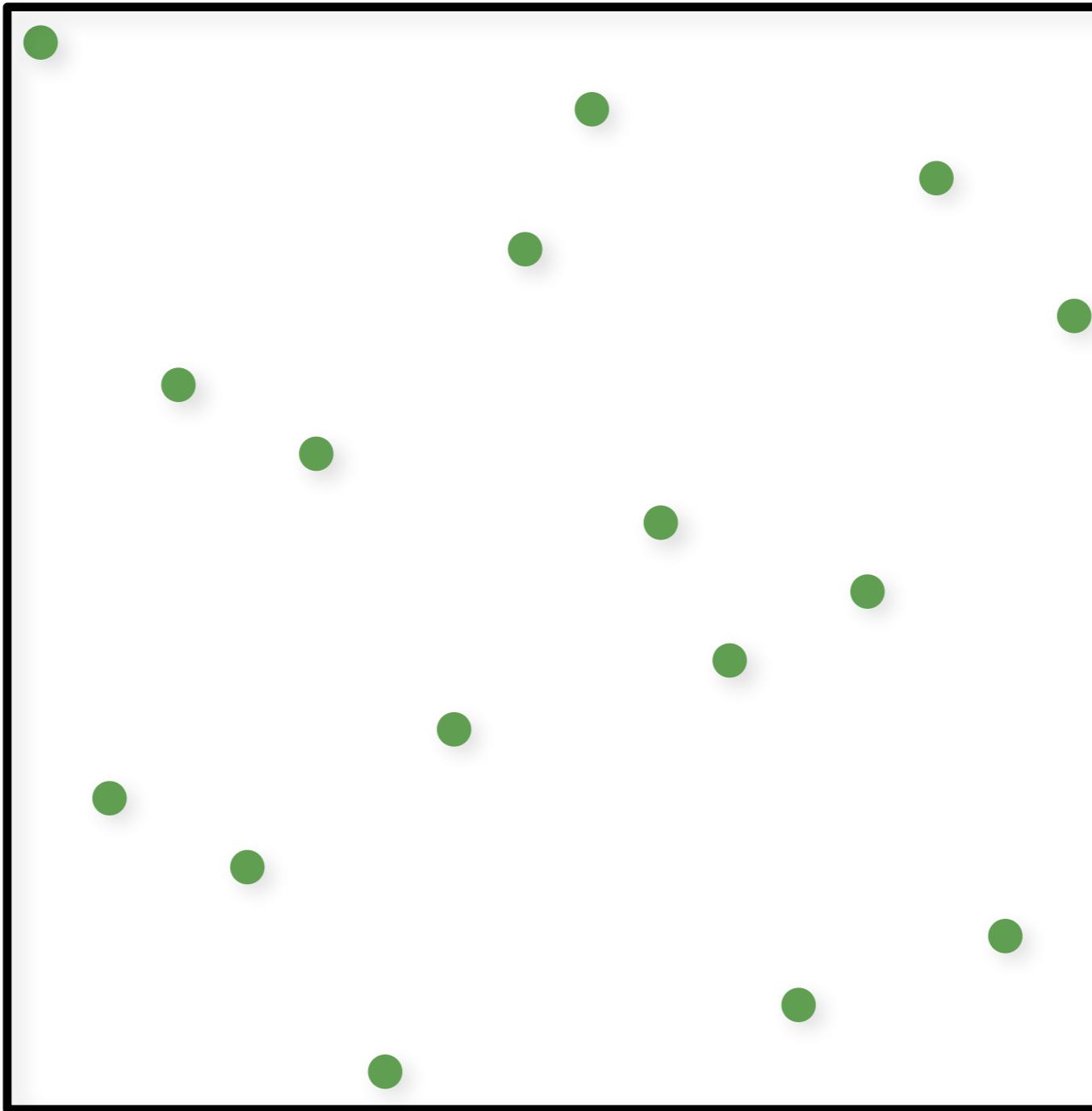
# Discrepancy

---

- Previous stratified approaches try to minimizing “clumping”
- “Discrepancy” is another possible formal definition of clumping:  $D^*(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ 
  - maximum difference between fraction of points and volume of containing subregion

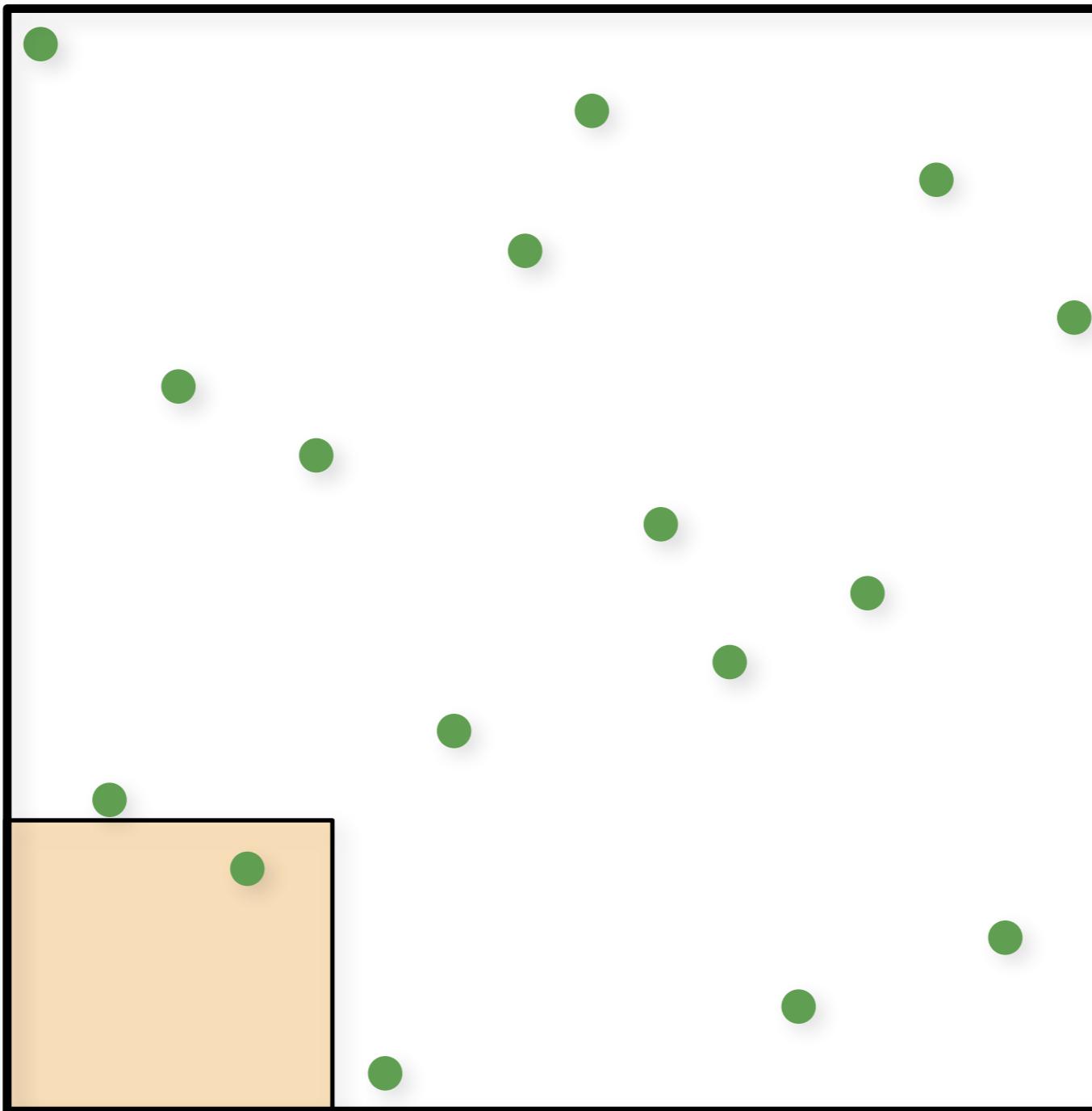
# Discrepancy

---



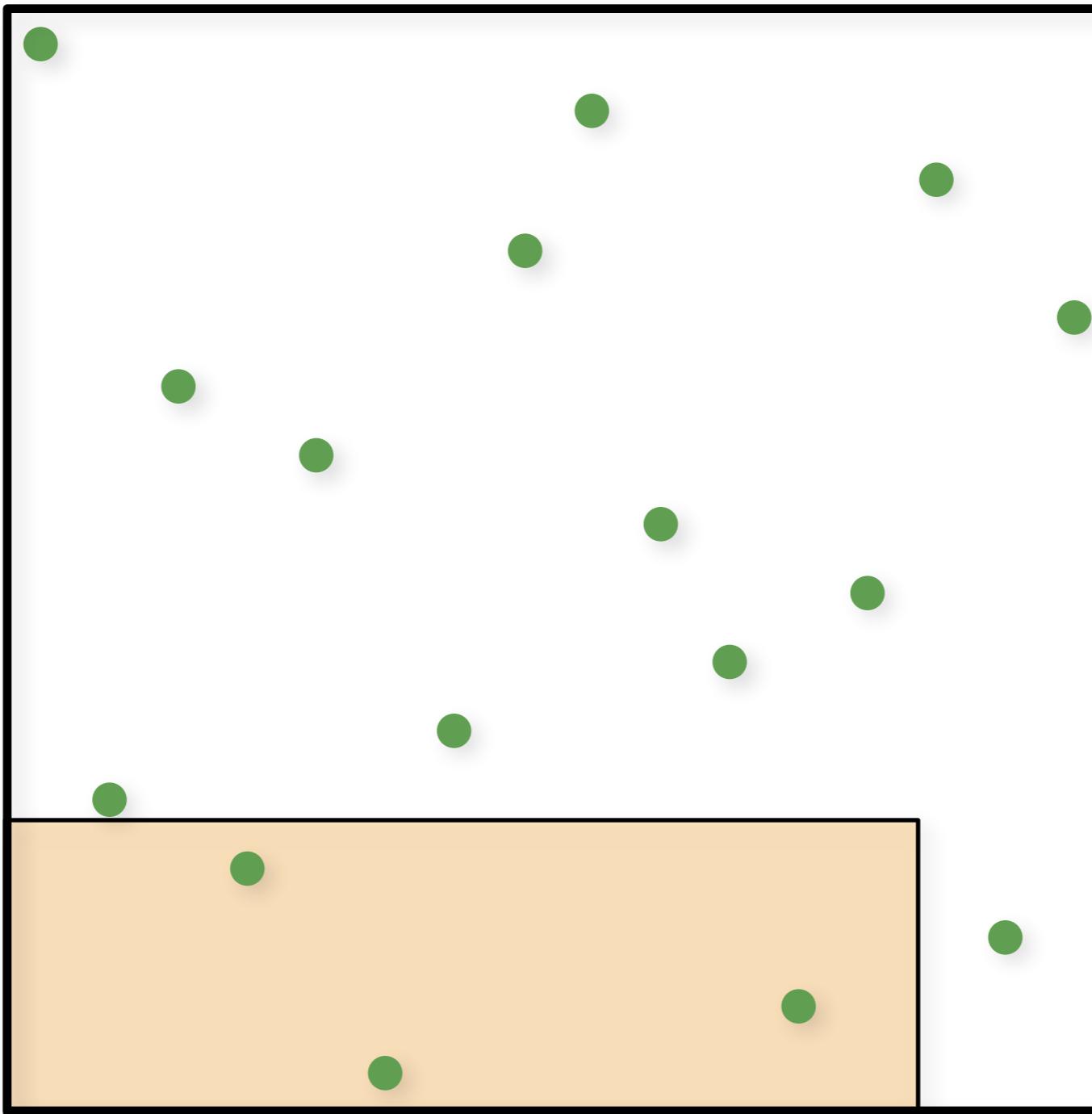
# Discrepancy

---



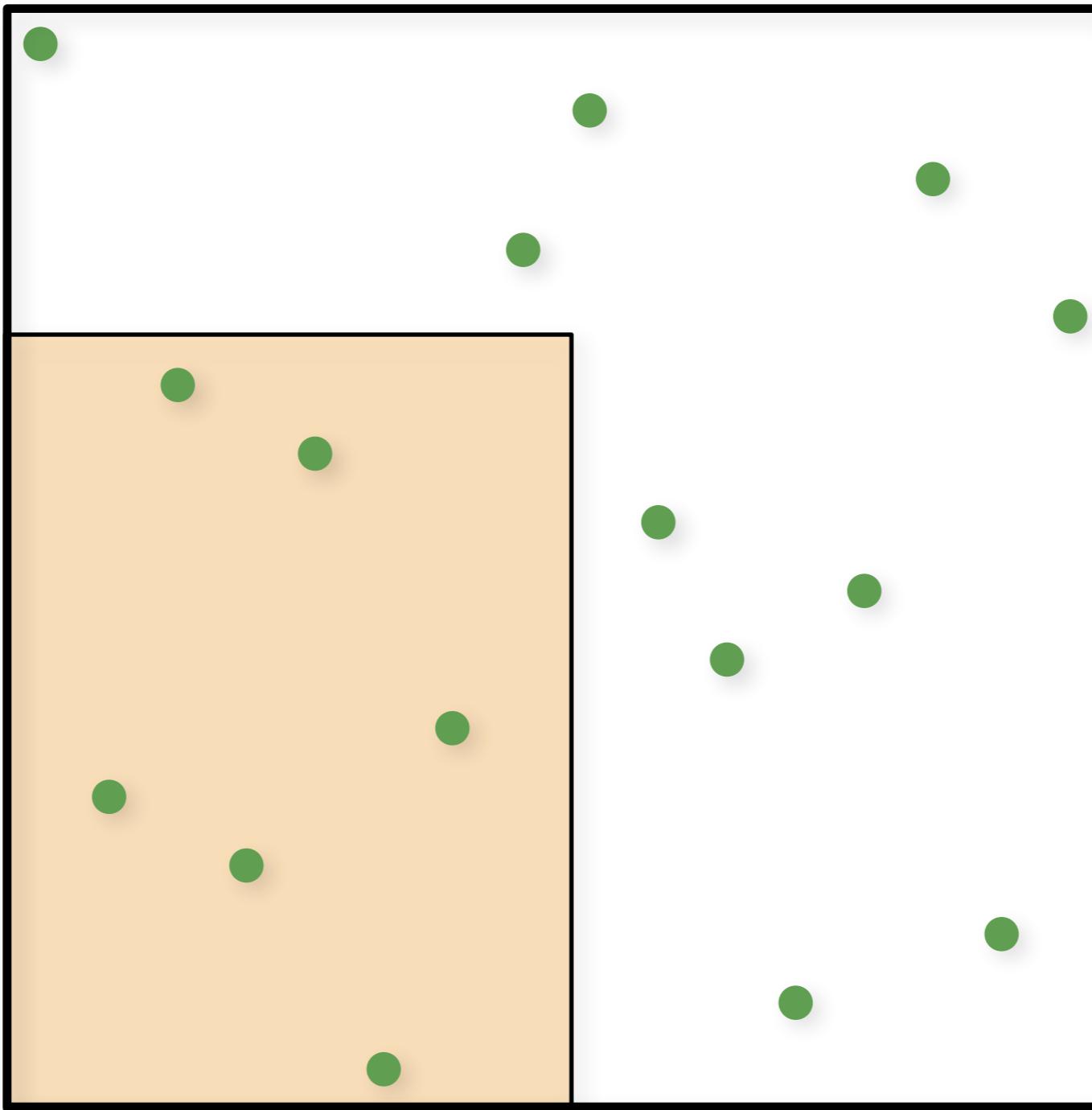
# Discrepancy

---



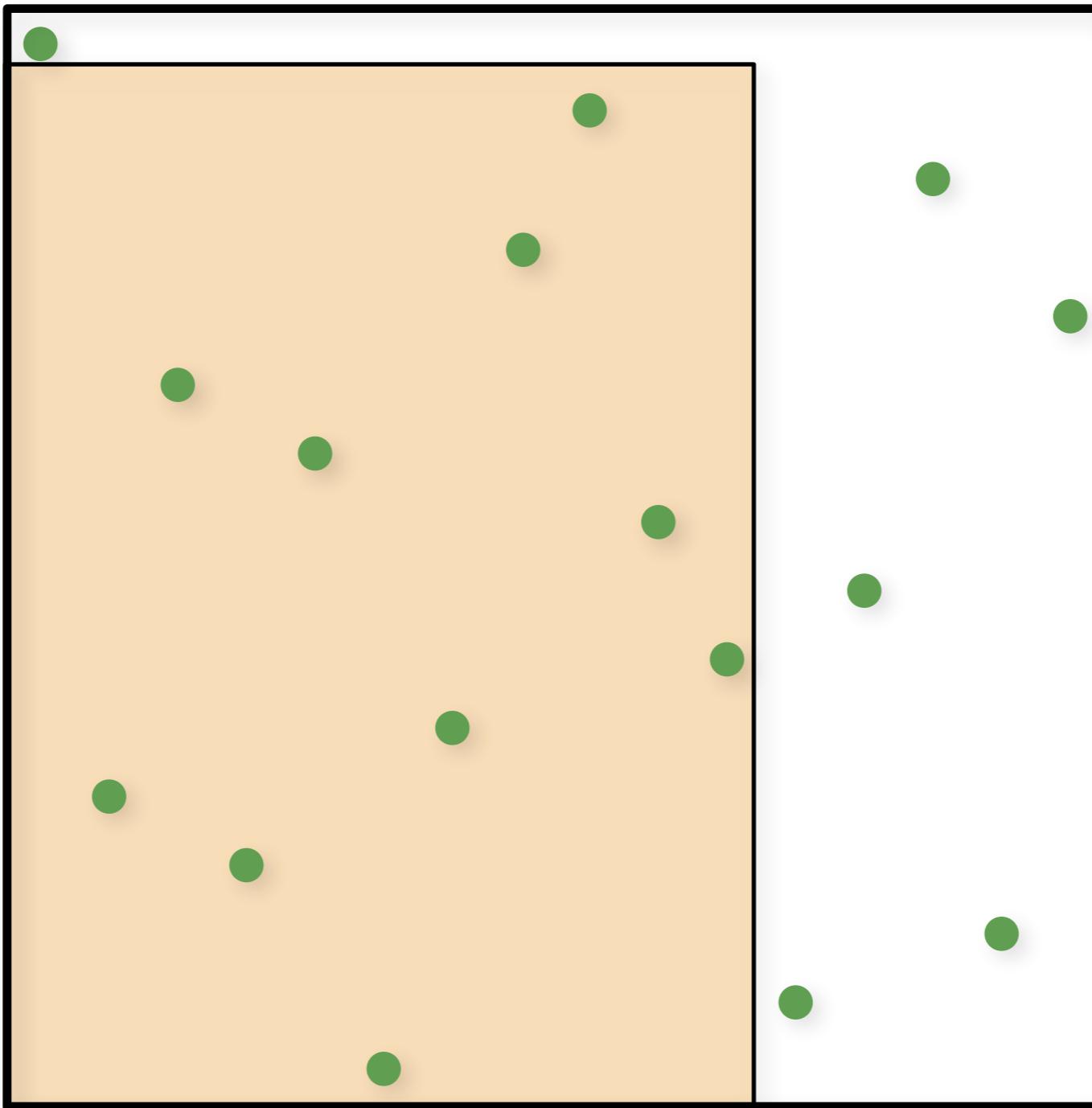
# Discrepancy

---



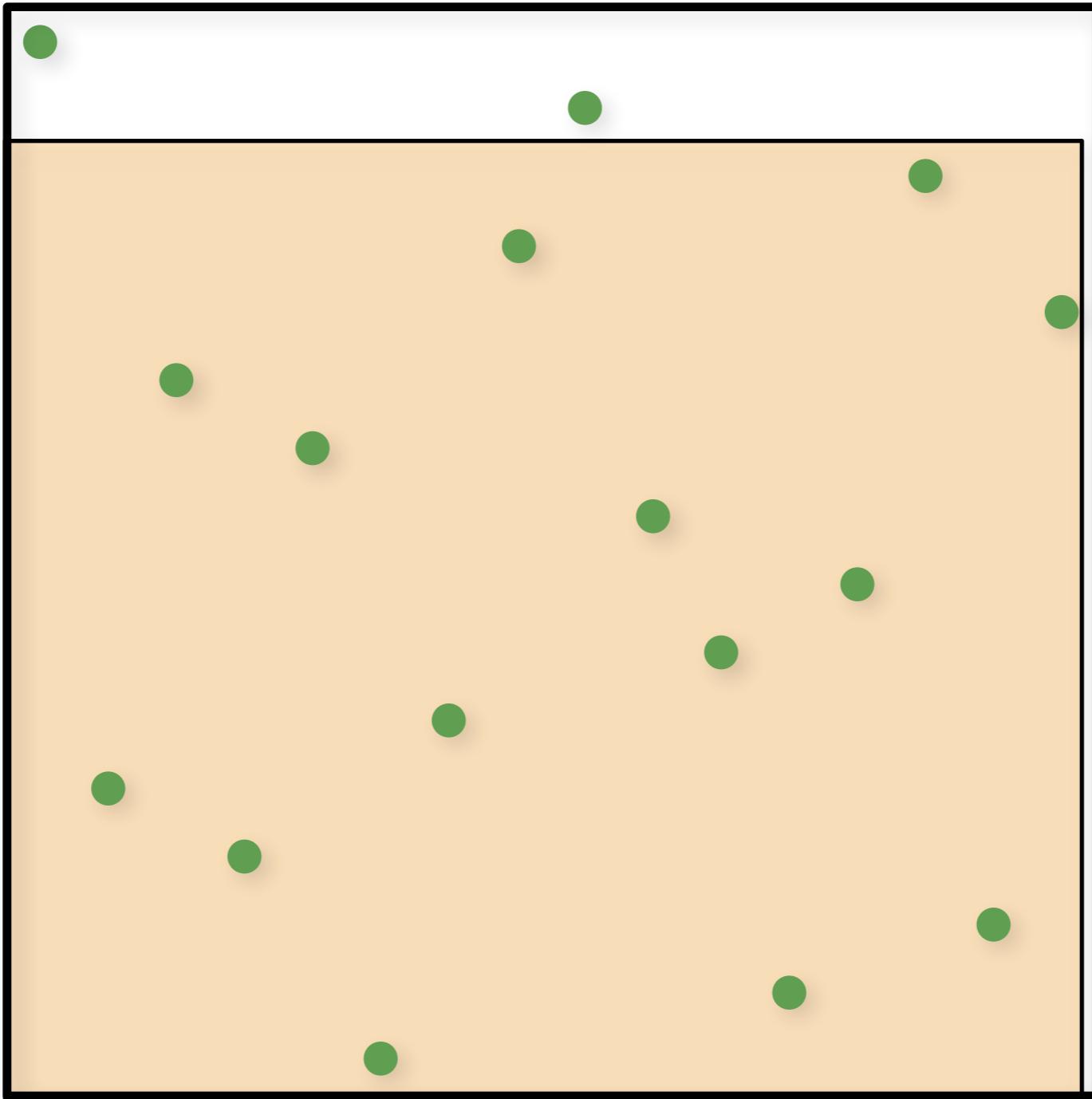
# Discrepancy

---



# Discrepancy

---



# Low-Discrepancy Sampling

---

- Low-Discrepancy sequences are specially crafted to have small discrepancy values.
- Entire field of study called Quasi-Monte Carlo (QMC)

# Koksma-Hlawka inequality

---

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) - \int f(u) \, du \right| \leq V(f) D^*(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

# The Radical Inverse

---

- A positive integer value  $n$  can be expressed in a base  $b$  with a sequence of digits  $d_m \dots d_2 d_1$  uniquely determined by:

$$n = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} d_i b^{i-1}$$

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- The radical inverse function  $\Phi_b$  in base  $b$  converts a non-negative integer  $n$  to a floating-point value in  $[0, 1)$  by reflecting these digits about the decimal point:

$$\Phi_b(n) = 0.d_1 d_2 \dots d_m$$

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$$\Phi_b(n) = 0.d_1 d_2 \dots d_m$$

- Subsequent points “fall into biggest holes”

# The Radical Inverse

---

```
float radicalInverse(int n, int base, float inv)
{
    float v = 0.0f;
    for (float p = inv; n != 0; p *= inv, n /= base)
        v += (n % base) * p;
    return v;
}
```

```
float radicalInverse(int n, int base)
{
    return radicalInverse(n, base, 1.0f / base);
}
```

# The Radical Inverse

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}
```

More efficient version available for base 2

---

# The Van der Corput Sequence

---

- Radical Inverse in base two

n	Base 2	$\Phi_b$
---	--------	----------

# The Van der Corput Sequence

---

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1	1	.1 = 1/2



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---

- Radical Inverse in base two

n	Base 2	$\Phi_b$
1	1	.1 = 1/2
2	10	.01 = 1/4
3	11	.11 = 3/4



# The Van der Corput Sequence

- Radical Inverse in base two

n	Base 2	$\Phi_b$
1	1	.1 = 1/2
2	10	.01 = 1/4
3	11	.11 = 3/4
4	100	.001 = 1/8



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n	Base 2	$\Phi_b$
1	1	.1 = 1/2
2	10	.01 = 1/4
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4	100	.001 = 1/8
5	101	.101 = 5/8



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- Radical Inverse in base two

n	Base 2	$\Phi_b$
1	1	.1 = 1/2
2	10	.01 = 1/4
3	11	.11 = 3/4
4	100	.001 = 1/8
5	101	.101 = 5/8
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n	Base 2	$\Phi_b$
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1	1	.1 = 1/2
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...		

Discrepancy:

$$D^*(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in O\left(\frac{\log N}{N}\right)$$



# The Radical Inverse (Base 2)

---

```
float vanDerCorputRIU(uint n)
{
    n = (n << 16) | (n >> 16);
    n = ((n & 0x00ff00ff) << 8) | ((n & 0xff00ff00) >> 8);
    n = ((n & 0x0f0f0f0f) << 4) | ((n & 0xf0f0f0f0) >> 4);
    n = ((n & 0x33333333) << 2) | ((n & 0xcccccccc) >> 2);
    n = ((n & 0x55555555) << 1) | ((n & 0xaaaaaaaa) >> 1);
    return n / float (0x100000000LL);
}
```

# The Halton Sequence

---

- An n-dimensional Halton sequence uses the radical inverse with a different base  $b$  for each dimension of the pattern.
- The bases must all be relatively prime.

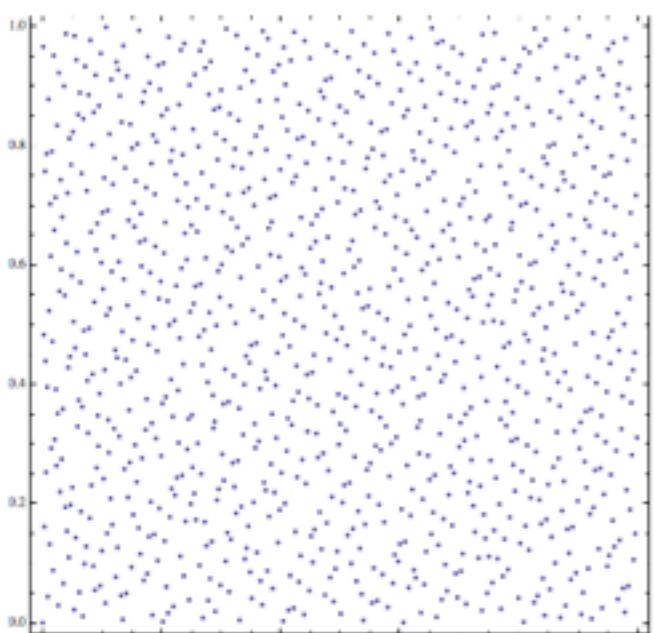
$$x_i = (\Phi_2(i), \Phi_3(i), \Phi_5(i), \dots, \Phi_{p_n}(i))$$

- Incremental

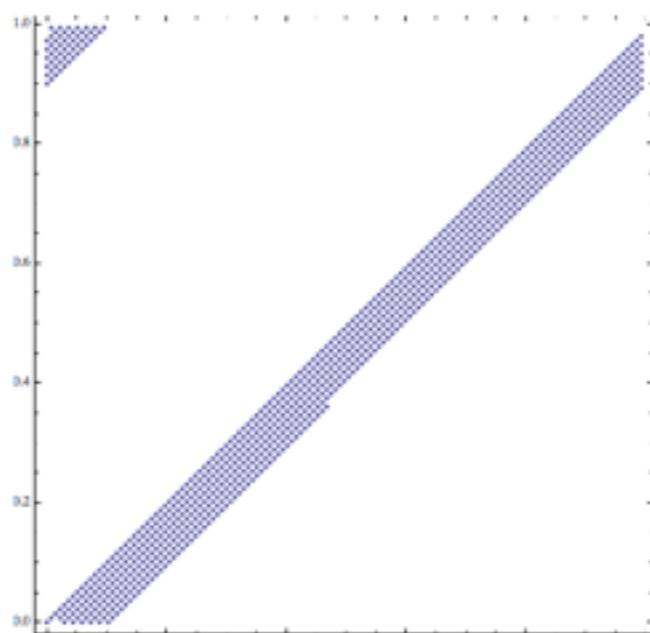
# Scrambling

---

Without scrambling

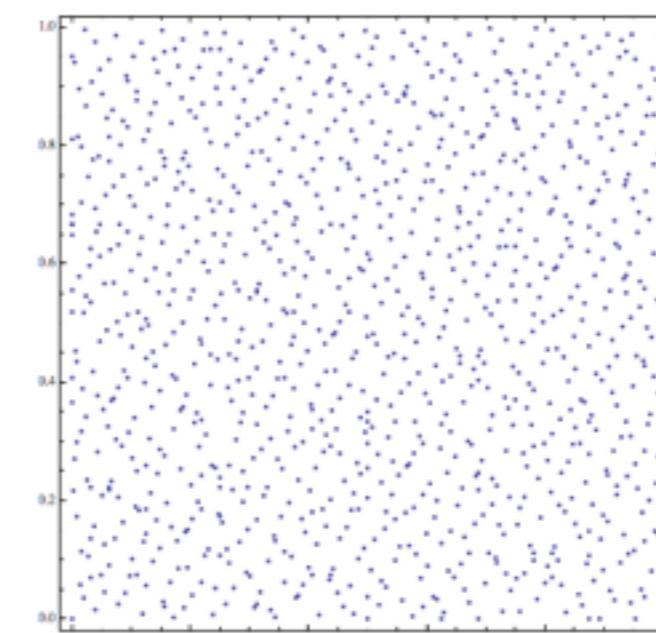


Dimensions 1 and 2

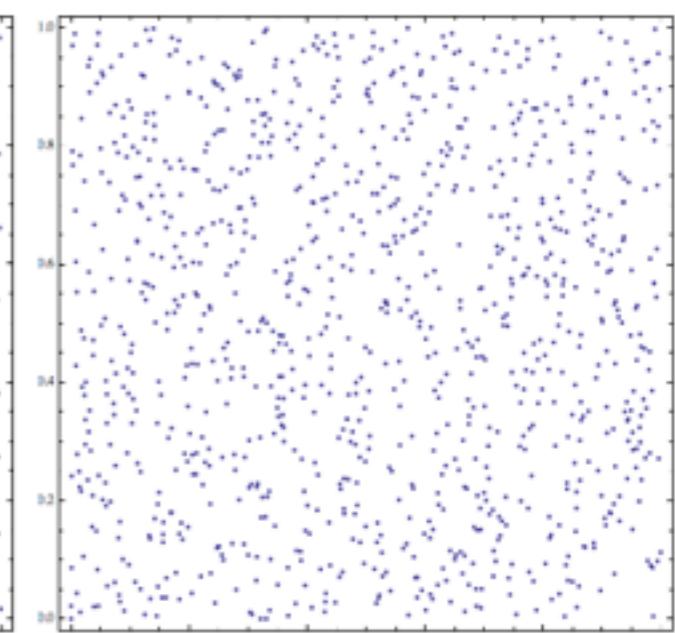


Dimensions 32 and 33

With scrambling



Dimensions 1 and 2

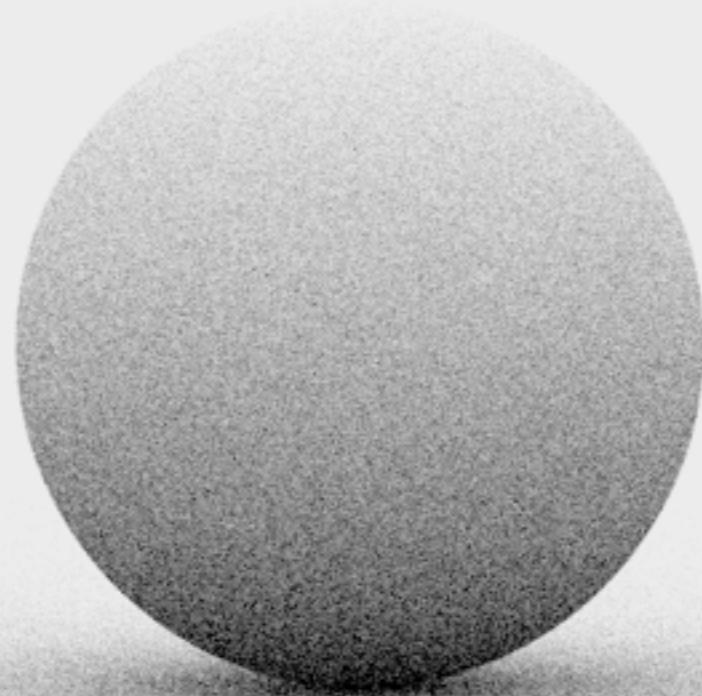


Dimensions 32 and 33

$$\Phi_b(n) = 0.\pi(d_1)\pi(d_2)\dots\pi(d_m)$$

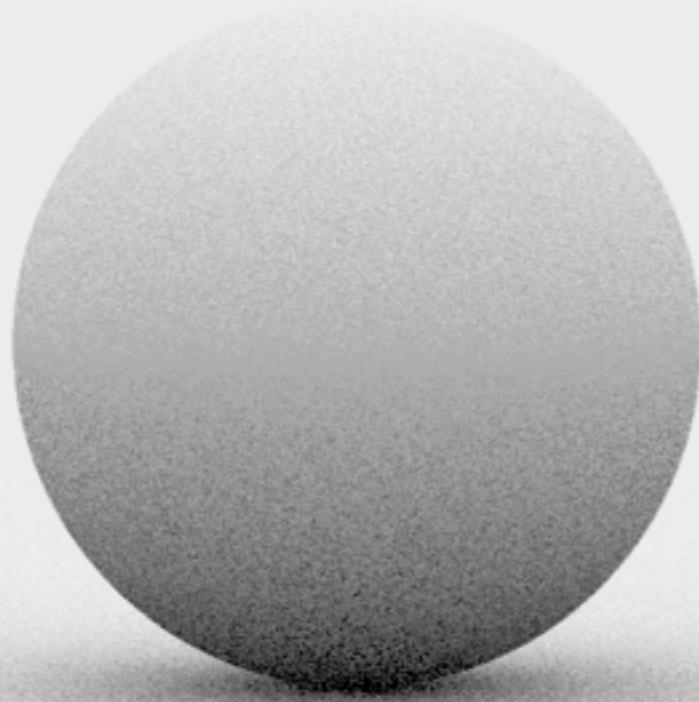
# Monte Carlo (16 random samples)

---



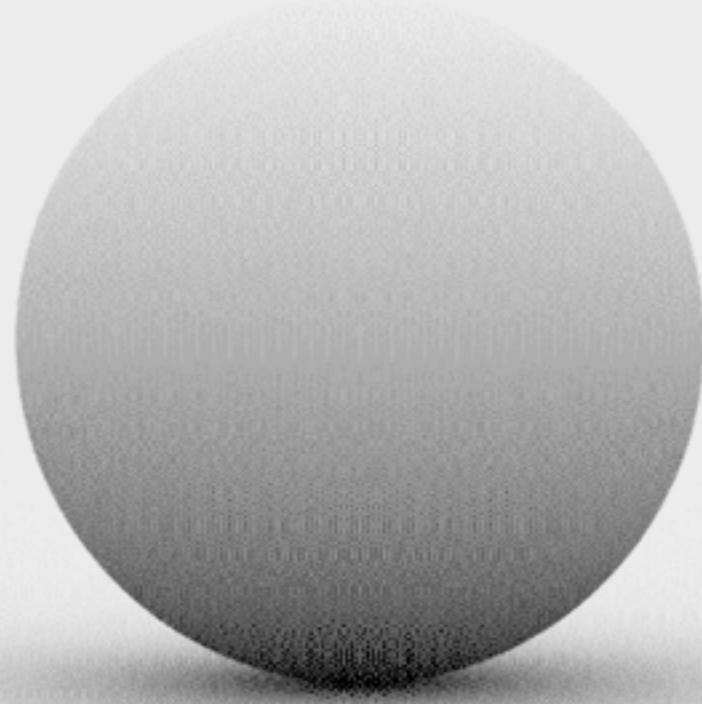
# Monte Carlo (16 stratified samples)

---



# Quasi-Monte Carlo (16 Halton samples)

---



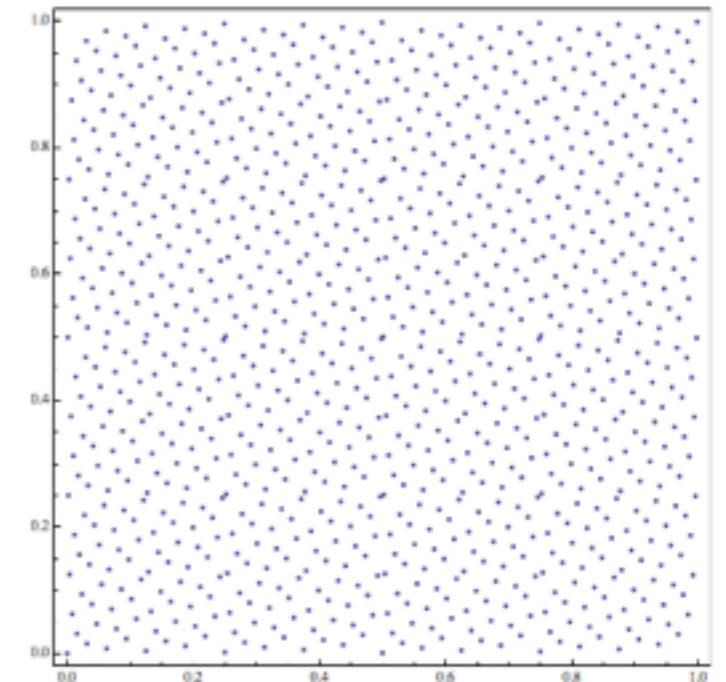
# The Hammersley Sequence

---

- Same as Halton, but uses  $i/N$  for first dimension:

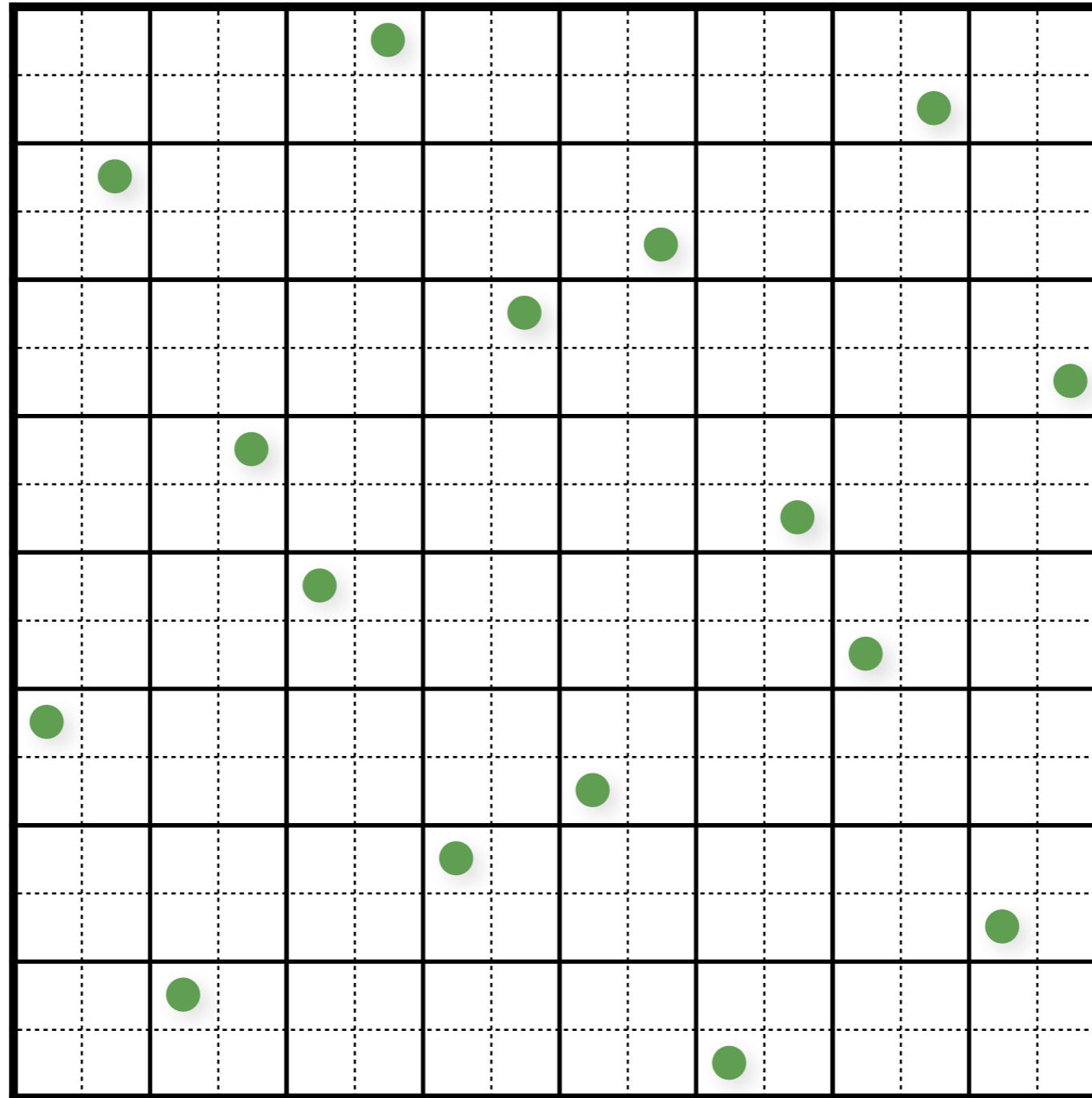
$$x_i = \left( \frac{i}{N}, \Phi_2(i), \Phi_3(i), \dots, \Phi_{p_n}(i) \right)$$

- Provides slightly lower discrepancy
- Not incremental, need to know total number of samples,  $N$ , in advance



# (0,2)-Sequences

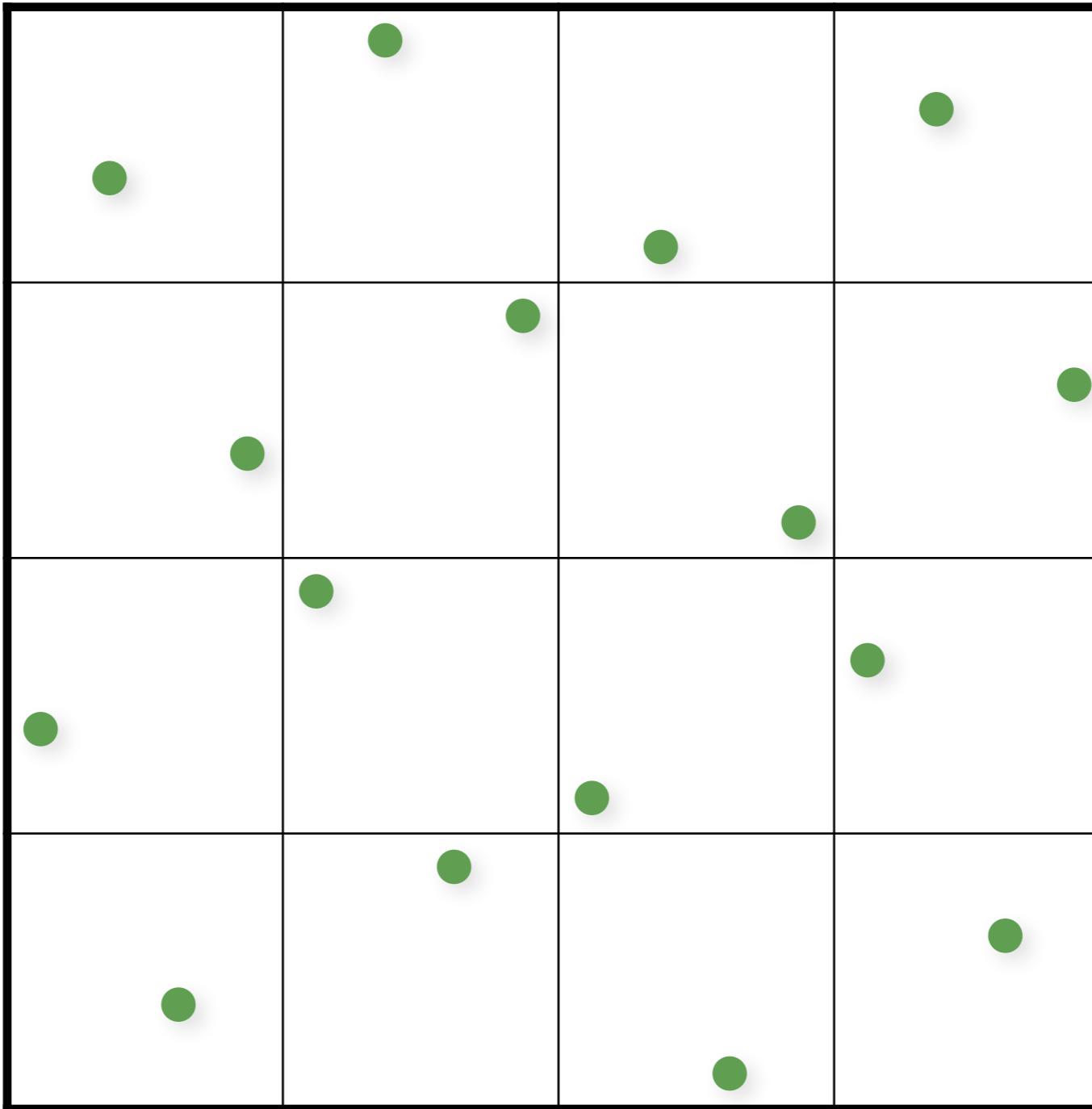
---



1 sample in each “elementary interval”

# (0,2)-Sequences

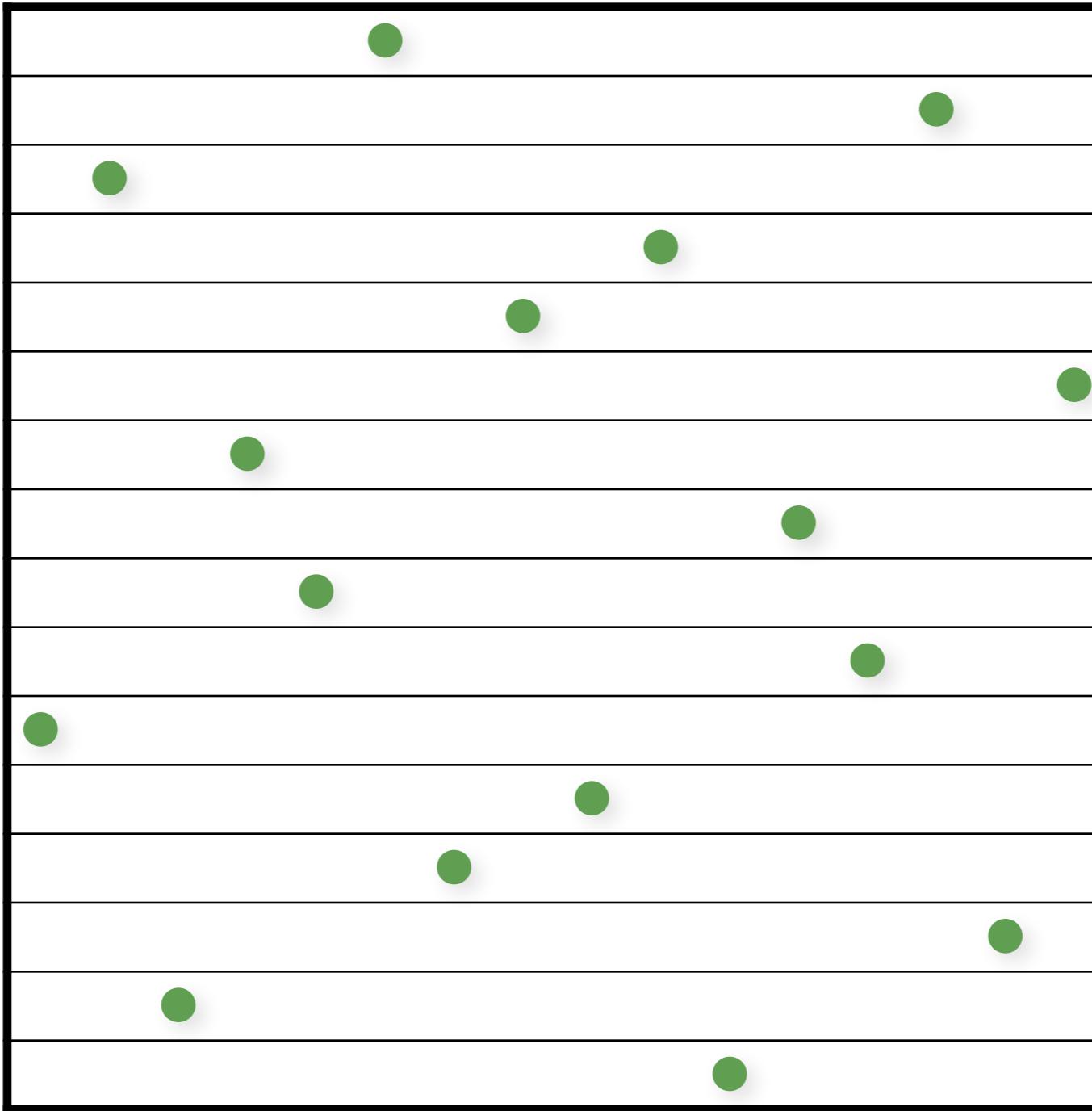
---



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# (0,2)-Sequences

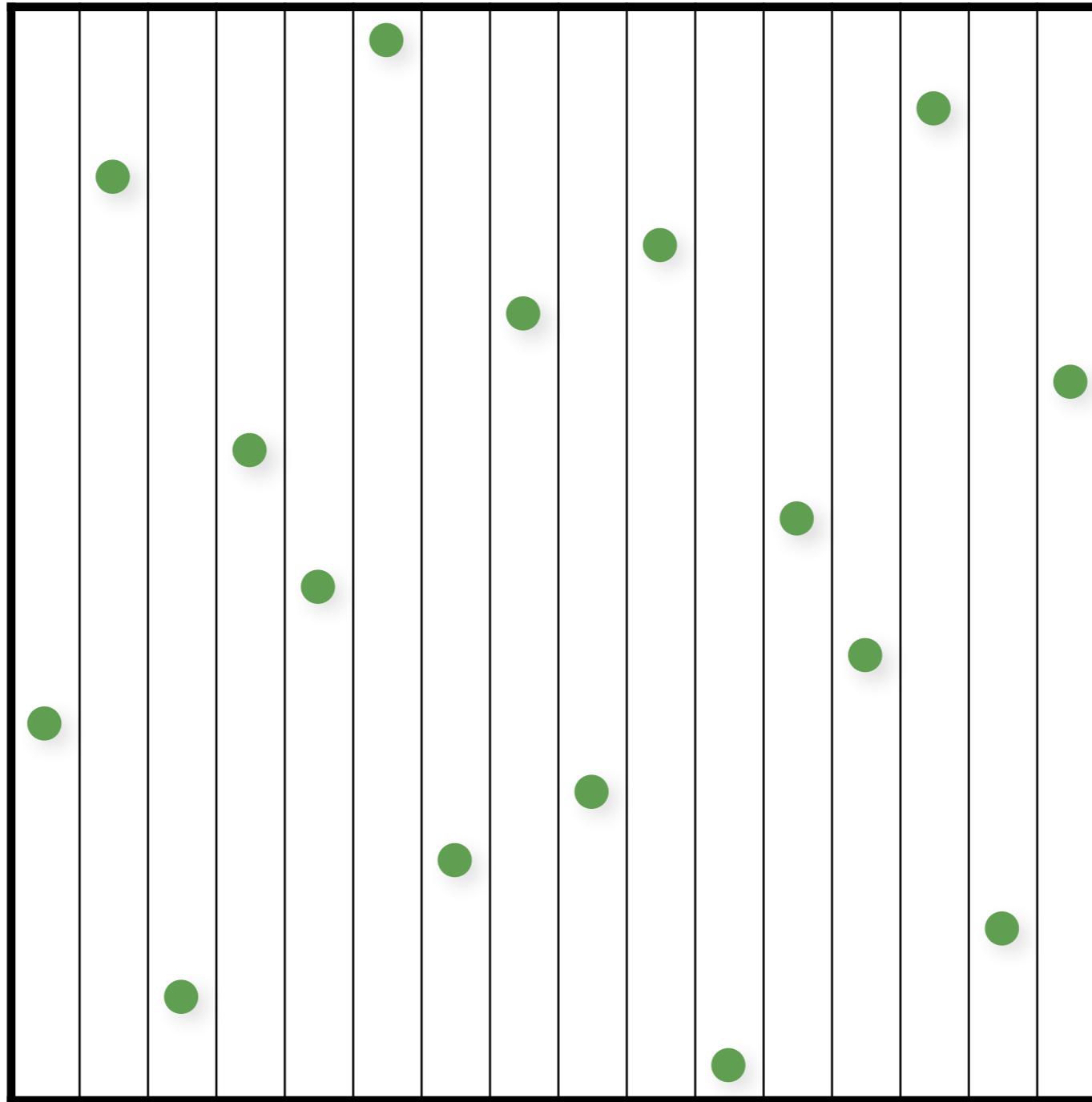
---



1 sample in each “elementary interval”

# (0,2)-Sequences

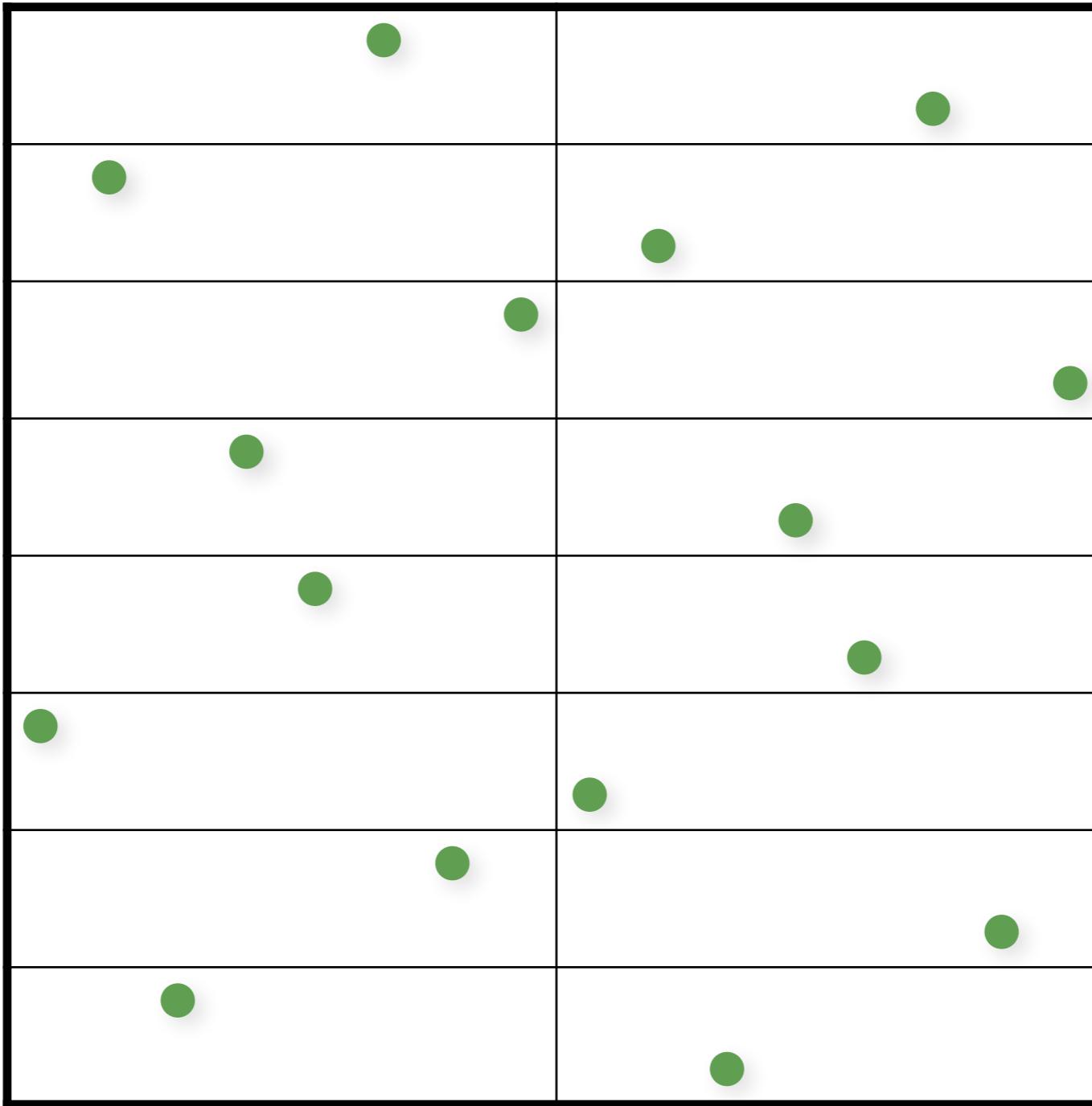
---



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# (0,2)-Sequences

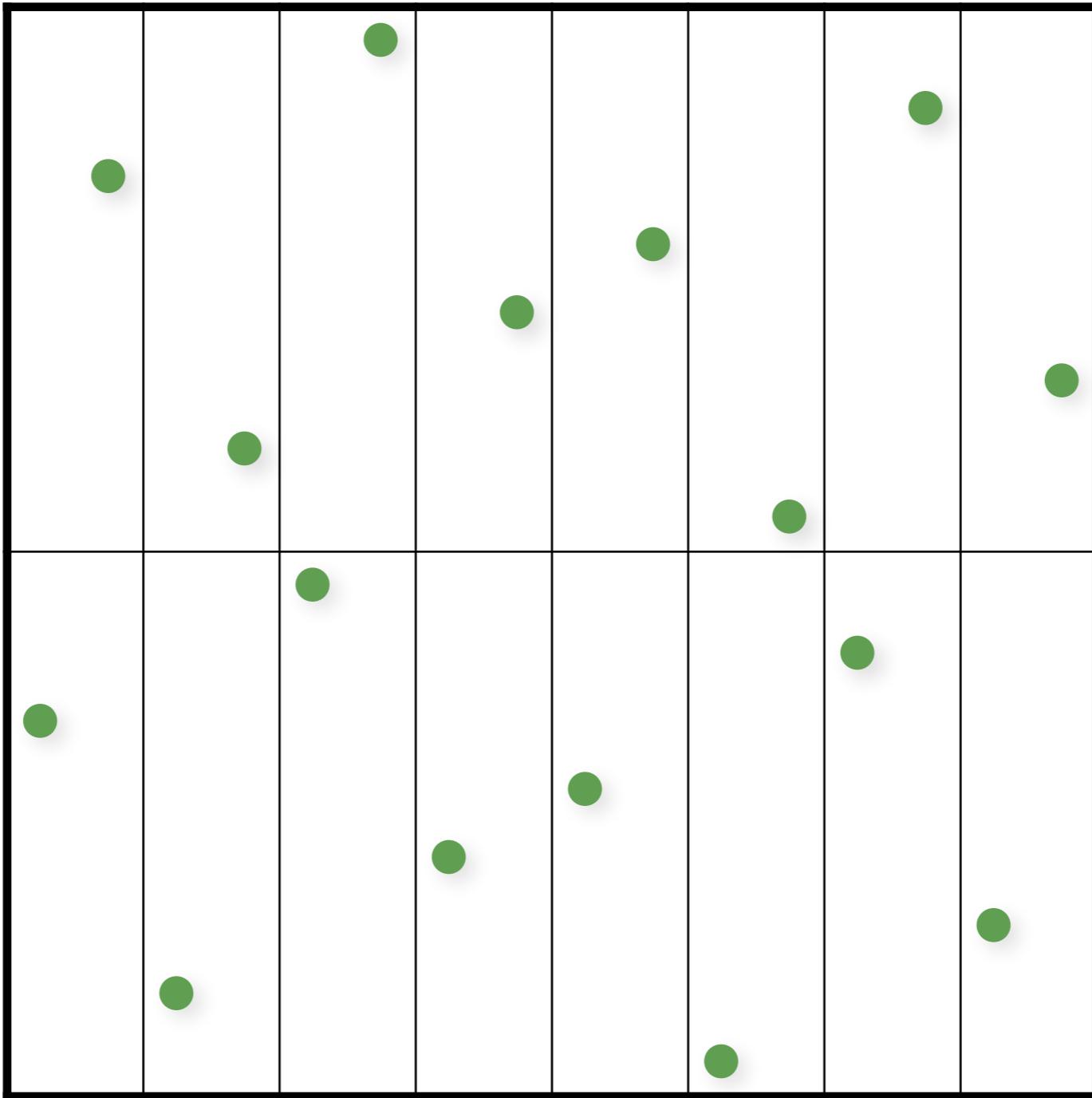
---



1 sample in each “elementary interval”

# (0,2)-Sequences

---



1 sample in each “elementary interval”

# Additional resources

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**Enumerating Quasi-Monte Carlo Point Sequences in Elementary Intervals**

L. Grünschloß, M. Raab and A. Keller

Monte Carlo and Quasi-Monte Carlo Methods 2010

<http://gruenschloss.org/>

# Many more...

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- Sobol
- Faure
- Larcher-Pillichshammer
- Folded Radical Inverse
- $(t,s)$ -sequences &  $(t,m,s)$ -nets
- Scrambling/randomization
- much more...

# Randomized/Scrambled Sequences

---

- LD sequence identical for multiple runs
  - cannot average independent images!
  - no “random” seed

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  - does not preserve elementary interval property

# Randomized/Scrambled Sequences

---

- LD sequence identical for multiple runs
  - cannot average independent images!
  - no “random” seed
- Cranley-Patterson rotation: add random number modulo 1
  - does not preserve elementary interval property
- Random permutations: compute a permutation table for the order of the digits and use it when computing the radical inverse
  - Can be done very efficiently for base 2 with XOR operation

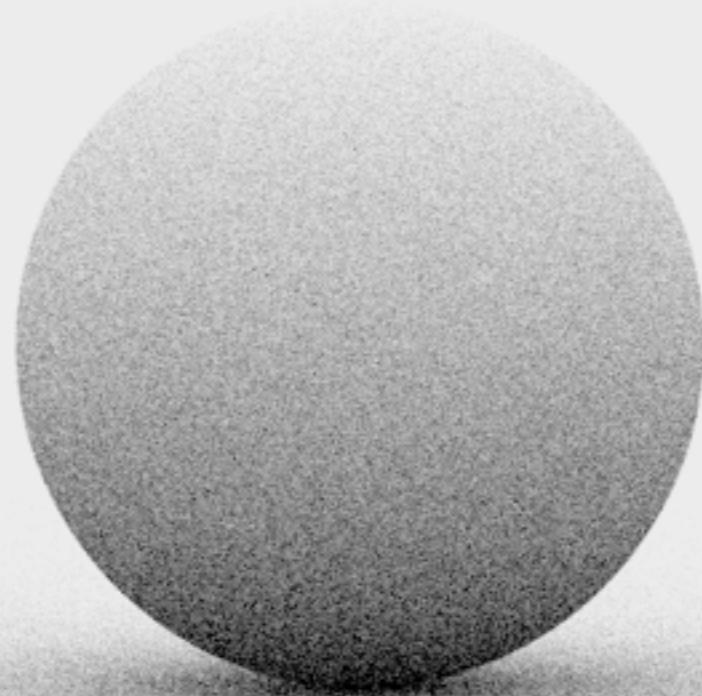
# Radical Inverse (Base 2)

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float vanDerCorputRIU(uint n, uint scramble = 0)
{
    n = (n << 16) | (n >> 16);
    n = ((n & 0x00ff00ff) << 8) | ((n & 0xff00ff00) >> 8);
    n = ((n & 0x0f0f0f0f) << 4) | ((n & 0xf0f0f0f0) >> 4);
    n = ((n & 0x33333333) << 2) | ((n & 0xcccccccc) >> 2);
    n = ((n & 0x55555555) << 1) | ((n & 0xaaaaaaaa) >> 1);
    n ^= scramble;
    return n / float (0x100000000LL);
}
```

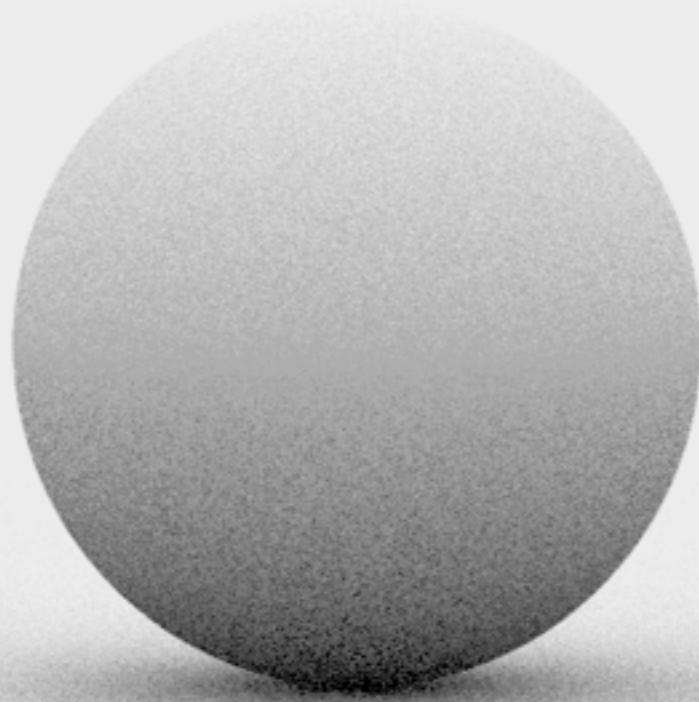
# Monte Carlo (16 random samples)

---



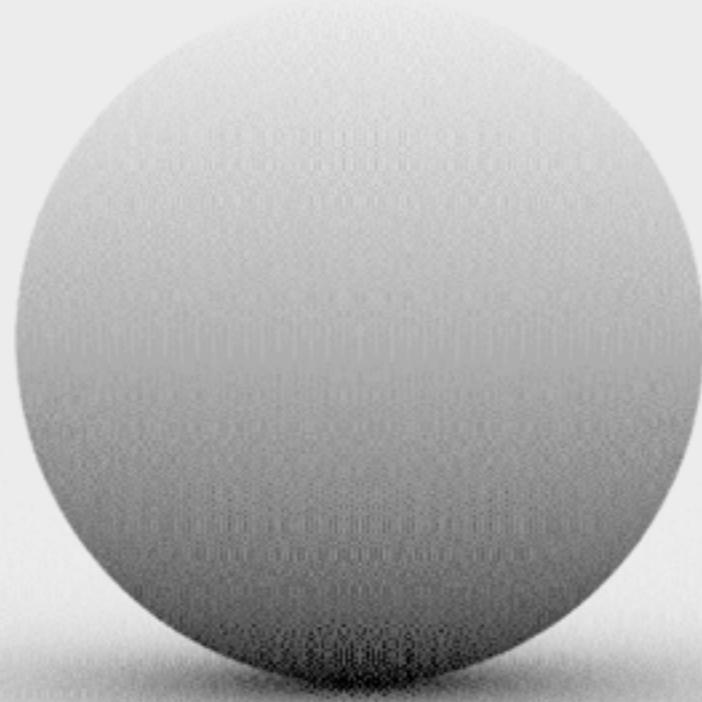
# Monte Carlo (16 stratified samples)

---



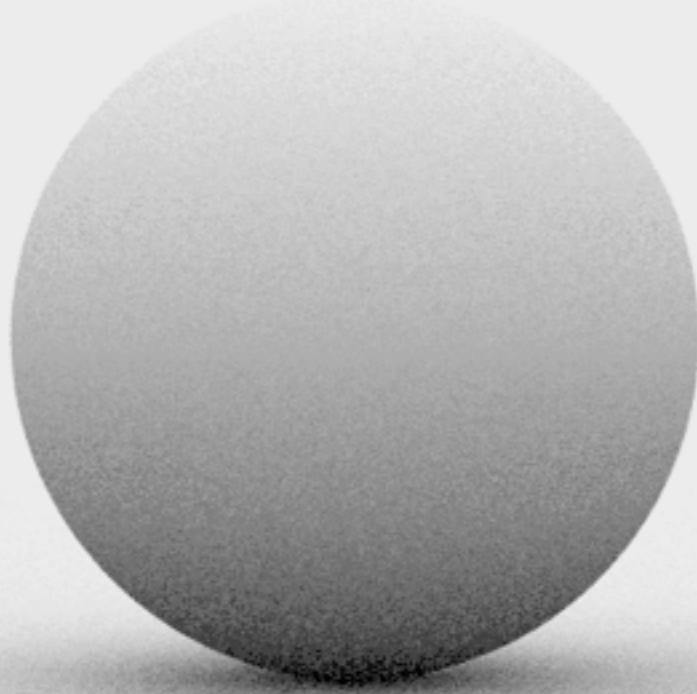
# Quasi-Monte Carlo (16 Halton samples)

---



# Quasi-Monte Carlo

---



scrambled Larcher-Pillichshammer sequence

# Implementation tips

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- Using QMC can often lead to unintuitive, difficult to debug, problems.
  - Always code up MC algorithms first, using random numbers, to ensure correctness
  - Only after confirming correctness, slowly incorporate QMC into the mix

# Questions?

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