

```

10 CONTINUE
  Q(I) = 1.
  IF (NDD.EQ.0) GO TO 50
  CI = 1.
  DO 20 I=1,NDD
    Q(I+1) = CI**I/FACT(I+1)
    CI = CI + 1.
20 CONTINUE
  IF (NDP.GT.N) GO TO 80
  FV = FLOAT(NDP) - FND
  JMAX = IDINT(FV) + 1
  DO 40 I=NDP,NDD
    SUM = 0.
    FT = FND
    K = 1
    FU = FV
    DO 30 J=1,JMAX
      SUM = SUM + FT**J/FACT(J)*FU**K/
      * FACT(K+1)
      FT = FT + 1.
      FU = FU - 1.
      K = K + 1
30 CONTINUE
  Q(I+1) = Q(I+1) - 2.*FND*SUM
  JMAX = JMAX + 1
  FV = FV + 1.
40 CONTINUE
  IF (NDD.EQ.N) GO TO 80
50 DO 70 I=NDDP,N
  SUM = 0.
  SIGN = 1.
  FT = 2.*FND
  DO 60 J=1,NDT
    FT = FT - 1.
    K = I - J + 1
    SUM = SUM + SIGN*FT**J/FACT(J+1)*Q(K)
    SIGN = -SIGN
60 CONTINUE
  Q(I+1) = SUM
70 CONTINUE
80 PKS2 = Q(N+1)*FACT(N+1)/FN**N
  RETURN
90 PKS2 = 2.*D - 1.
  RETURN
100 PKS2 = 0.
  RETURN
  END

```

```

SUBROUTINE PRFAC
  DOUBLE PRECISION PF(4,40)
  DIMENSION DXA(4)
  COMMON DX, DXA, PF, J
  DATA I /1/
  DO 10 J=1,4
    IF (DXA(J).EQ.DX) RETURN
10 CONTINUE
  J = I
  I = I + 1
  IF (I.EQ.5) I = 1
  DXA(J) = DX
  PF(J,I) = 1.
  DO 20 K=2,38
    PF(J,K) = (PF(J,K-1)*DX)/FLOAT(K-1)
20 CONTINUE
  RETURN
  END

```

```

FUNCTION CEIL(X)
  IF (X.GE.0.) GO TO 10
  I = -X
  CEIL = -1
  RETURN
10 I = X + .99999999
  CEIL = I
  RETURN
  END

```

```

FUNCTION PKS(N, EPS)
  C CALCULATE THE CUMULATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF THE
  C KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV STATISTIC USING THE FORMULAS OF
  C JOHN POMERANZ. EXACT VALUES OF THE TWO-SIDED
  C KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV CUMULATIVE DISTRIBUTION FOR
  C FINITE SAMPLE SIZE. TECHNICAL REPORT NUMBER 88,
  C COMPUTER SCIENCES DEPARTMENT, PURDUE UNIVERSITY,
  C FEBRUARY 1973.

```

```

  DOUBLE PRECISION PF(4,40), U(40), V(40)
  DOUBLE PRECISION SUM
  DIMENSION DXA(4)
  COMMON DX, DXA, PF, L
  DATA MNP /40/
  FN = N
  RN = 1./FN
  K = EPS*FN + .00000001
  FK = K
  IF (ABS(FK-EPS*FN).GT..00000001) GO TO 10
  K = K - 1
  FK = K
10 CONTINUE

```

```

  DEL = EPS - FK*RN
  XUP = RN - DEL
  XLO = DEL
  IF (ABS(XUP-XLO).LT..00000001) XUP = XLO
  XPREV = 0.
  DO 20 I=1,MNP
    U(I) = 0.
20 CONTINUE
  U(K+1) = 1.
  IMIN = -K
30 X = AMINI(XUP,XLO)
  IF (X.GT..999999) X = 1.
  DX = X - XPREV
  JMIN = CEIL((X-EPS)*FN-.00000001)
  IF (ABS(FLOAT(JMIN)-(X-EPS)*FN).LT..00000001)
  * JMIN = JMIN + 1
  JMAX = (X+EPS)*FN + .00000001
  IF (ABS(FLOAT(JMAX)-(X+EPS)*FN).LT..00000001)
  * JMAX = JMAX - 1
  JMAX = JMAX - JMIN + 1
  CALL PRFAC
  DO 60 J=1,MNP
    SUM = 0.
    IF (J.GT.JMAX) GO TO 50
    I = 1
40 IP = J - I + 1 + JMIN - IMIN
    SUM = SUM + U(I)*PF(L,IP)
    I = I + 1
    IF ((IMIN+I).LE.(JMIN+J)) GO TO 40
50 V(J) = SUM
60 CONTINUE
  DO 70 I=1,MNP
    U(I) = V(I)
70 CONTINUE
  IMIN = JMIN
  XPREV = X
  IF (X.EQ.XUP) XUP = XUP + RN
  IF (X.EQ.XLO) XLO = XLO + RN
  IF (X.LT.1.) GO TO 30
  DO 80 I=1,N
    U(K+1) = U(K+1)*FLOAT(I)
80 CONTINUE
  PKS = U(K+1)
  RETURN
  END

```

Algorithm 488

A Gaussian Pseudo-Random Number Generator [G5]

Richard P. Brent [Recd. 9 Nov. 1973, and 19 Dec. 1973]
Computer Centre, Australian National University,
Canberra, Australia

Key Words and Phrases: random numbers, pseudo-random numbers, Gaussian distribution, normal distribution

CR Categories: 5.39, 5.5

Language: Fortran

Description

Introduction. Successive calls to the Fortran function *GRAND* return independent, normally distributed pseudo-random numbers with zero mean and unit standard deviation. It is assumed that a Fortran function *RAND* is available to generate pseudo-random numbers which are independent and uniformly distributed on $[0, 1)$. Thus, *GRAND* may be regarded as a function which converts uniformly distributed numbers to normally distributed numbers.

Outline of the method. *GRAND* is based on the following algorithm (Algorithm A) for sampling from a distribution with density function $f(x) = K \exp(-G(x))$ on $[a, b)$, where

$$0 \leq G(x) \leq 1 \quad (1)$$

on $[a, b)$, and the function $G(x)$ is easy to compute:

Step 1. If the first call, then take a sample u from the uniform distribution on $[0, 1)$; otherwise u has been saved from a previous call.

Step 2. Set $x \leftarrow a + (b - a)u$ and $u_0 \leftarrow G(x)$.

Step 3. Take independent samples u_1, u_2, \dots from the uniform distribution on $[0, 1)$ until, for some $k \geq 1$, $u_{k-1} \leq u_k$.

Step 4. Set $u \leftarrow (u_k - u_{k-1}) / (1 - u_{k-1})$.
 Step 5. If k is even go to Step 2, otherwise return x .

The reason why Algorithm A is correct is explained in Ahrens and Dieter [2], Forsythe [4], and Von Neumann [6]. The only point which needs explanation here is that, at Step 4, we can form a new uniform variate u from u_{k-1} and u_k , thus avoiding an extra call to the uniform random number generator. This is permissible since at Step 4 it is clear (from Step 3) that $(u_k - u_{k-1}) / (1 - u_{k-1})$ is distributed uniformly and independent of x and k . (The fact that it is dependent on u_k is irrelevant.)

Let a_i be defined by $(2/\pi)^{1/2} \int_{a_i}^{\infty} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}t^2) dt = 2^{-i}$ for $i = 0, 1, \dots$. To sample from the positive normal distribution (Algorithm B), we may choose $i \geq 1$ with probability 2^{-i} (easily done by inspecting the leading bits in a uniformly distributed number) and then use Algorithm A to generate a sample from $[a_{i-1}, a_i]$, with $G(x) = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - a_{i-1}^2)$. It is easy to verify that condition (1) is satisfied, in fact

$$\frac{1}{2}(a_i^2 - a_{i-1}^2) < \log(2). \quad (2)$$

Finally, to sample from the normal distribution (Algorithm C), we generate a sample from the positive normal distribution and then attach a random sign.

Comments on the method. The algorithm is exact, apart from the inevitable effect of computing with floating-point numbers with a finite word-length. Thus, the method is preferable to methods which depend on the central limit theorem or use approximations to the inverse distribution function.

Let N be the expected number of calls to a uniform random number generator when Algorithm A is executed. If the expected value of k at Step 3 is E , and the probability that k is even is P , then $N = E + NP$, so $N = E / (1 - P)$. From Forsythe [4, eq. (11)], $E = (b - a)^{-1} \int_a^b \exp(G(x)) dx$ and

$$1 - P = \frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b \exp(-G(x)) dx, \quad \text{so}$$

$$N = \int_a^b \exp(G(x)) dx / \int_a^b \exp(-G(x)) dx. \quad (3)$$

From (3) and the choice of a_i , the expected number of calls to a uniform random number generator when Algorithm C is executed is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 2^{-i} \int_{a_{i-1}}^{a_i} \exp(\frac{1}{2}(x^2 - a_{i-1}^2)) dx / \int_{a_{i-1}}^{a_i} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(x^2 - a_{i-1}^2)) dx \approx 1.37446. \quad (4)$$

This is lower than 4.03585 for the algorithm given in Forsythe [4], or 2.53947 for the improved version (FT) given in Ahrens and Dieter [2]. It is even slightly lower than 1.38009 for the algorithm FL_4 of [2], and FL_4 requires a larger table than Algorithm C. Thus, Algorithm C should be quite fast, and comparable to the best algorithms described by Ahrens and Dieter [1]. The number (4) could be reduced by increasing the table size (as in the algorithms FL_4 , FL_5 , and FL_6 of [2]), but this hardly seems worthwhile. Exact timing comparisons depend on the machine and uniform random number generator used. (If a very fast uniform generator is used, then Step 4 of Algorithm A may take longer than generating a new uniform deviate.)

The loss of accuracy caused by Step 4 of Algorithm A is not serious. We may say that $\log_2(1 - u_{k-1})^{-1}$ "bits of accuracy" are lost, and in our application we have, from (2) and Step 3 of Algorithm A, $\log(2) > u_0 > \dots > u_{k-1}$, so the number of bits lost is less than $\log_2(1 - \log(2))^{-1} < 2$.

Test results. If x is normally distributed then $u = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^x \exp(-\frac{1}{2}t^2) dt$ is uniformly distributed on $(0, 1)$. Hence, standard tests for uniformity may be applied to the transformed variate u . Several statistical tests were performed, using a Univac 1108 with both single-precision (27-bit fraction) and double-precision (60-bit fraction). For example, we tested two-dimensional uniformity by taking 10^6 pairs (u, u') , plotting them in the unit square, and performing the Chi-squared test on the observed num-

bers falling within each of 100 by 100 smaller squares. This test should show up any lack of independence in pairs of successive uniform deviates. We tested one-dimensional uniformity similarly, taking 10^6 trials and subdividing $(0, 1)$ into 1,000 smaller intervals. The values of χ^2 obtained were not significant at the 5 percent level. It is worth noting that the method of summing 12 numbers distributed uniformly on $(-1/2, 1/2)$ failed the latter test, giving $\chi_{999}^2 = 1351$. (The probability of such a value being exceeded by chance is less than 10^{-11} .)

Naturally, test results depend on the particular uniform generator $RAND$ which is used. $GRAND$ will not produce independent normally distributed deviates unless $RAND$ supplies it with independent uniformly distributed deviates! For our tests we used an additive uniform generator of the form $u_n = u_{n-1} + u_{n-127} \pmod{2^w}$ with $w = 27$ or 60 (see Brent [3] and Knuth [5]), but a good linear congruential generator should also be adequate for most applications.

Comparison with Algorithm 334. The fastest exact method previously published in Communications is Algorithm 334 [7]. We timed function $GRAND$, subroutine $NORM$ (a Fortran translation of Algorithm 334), and function $RAND$ (the uniform random number generator called by $GRAND$ and $NORM$). The mean execution times obtained from 500,000 trials on a Univac 1108 were 172, 376 and 59 μsec respectively. Since $NORM$ returns two normally distributed numbers, $GRAND$ was effectively 9 percent faster than $NORM$. Based on comparisons in [2], we estimate that the saving would be greater if both routines were coded in assembly language, for much of the execution time of $NORM$ is taken up in evaluating a square-root and logarithm which are already coded in assembly language.

$GRAND$ requires about 1.38 uniform deviates per normal deviate, and $NORM$ requires $4/\pi + 1/2 \approx 1.77$. Thus, we may estimate that if a uniform generator taking $U \mu\text{sec}$ per call were used, the time per normal deviate would be $(91 + 1.38U) \mu\text{sec}$ for $GRAND$ and $(83 + 1.77U) \mu\text{sec}$ for $NORM$. Hence, $GRAND$ should be faster for $U \geq 20$.

References

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Algorithm

```

FUNCTION GRAND(N)
C EXCEPT ON THE FIRST CALL GRAND RETURNS A
C PSEUDO-RANDOM NUMBER HAVING A GAUSSIAN (I.E.
C NORMAL) DISTRIBUTION WITH ZERO MEAN AND UNIT
C STANDARD DEVIATION.  THUS, THE DENSITY IS F(X) =
C EXP(-0.5*X**2)/SQRT(2.0*PI).  THE FIRST CALL
C INITIALIZES GRAND AND RETURNS ZERO.
C THE PARAMETER N IS DUMMY.
C GRAND CALLS A FUNCTION RAND, AND IT IS ASSUMED THAT
C SUCCESSIVE CALLS TO RAND(0) GIVE INDEPENDENT
C PSEUDO-RANDOM NUMBERS DISTRIBUTED UNIFORMLY ON (0,
C 1), POSSIBLY INCLUDING 0 (BUT NOT 1).
C THE METHOD USED WAS SUGGESTED BY VON NEUMANN, AND
C IMPROVED BY FORSYTHE, AHRENS, DIETER AND BRENT.
C ON THE AVERAGE THERE ARE 1.37746 CALLS OF RAND FOR
C EACH CALL OF GRAND.
C WARNING - DIMENSION AND DATA STATEMENTS BELOW ARE
C MACHINE-DEPENDENT.
C DIMENSION OF D MUST BE AT LEAST THE NUMBER OF BITS
C IN THE FRACTION OF A FLOATING-POINT NUMBER.

```

```

C THUS, ON MOST MACHINES THE DATA STATEMENT BELOW
C CAN BE TRUNCATED.
C IF THE INTEGRAL OF SQRT(2.0/Pi)*EXP(-0.5*X**2) FROM
C A(1) TO INFINITY IS 2**(-1), THEN D(1) = A(1) -
C A(1-1).
  DIMENSION D(60)
  DATA D(1), D(2), D(3), D(4), D(5), D(6), D(7),
* D(8), D(9), D(10), D(11), D(12), D(13),
* D(14), D(15), D(16), D(17), D(18), D(19),
* D(20), D(21), D(22), D(23), D(24), D(25),
* D(26), D(27), D(28), D(29), D(30), D(31),
* D(32) /0.674489750,0.475859630,0.383771164,
* 0.328611323,0.291142827,0.263684322,
* 0.242588452,0.225567444,0.211634166,
* 0.199924267,0.189910758,0.181225181,
* 0.173601400,0.166841909,0.160796729,
* 0.155349717,0.150409384,0.145902577,
* 0.141770033,0.137963174,0.134441762,
* 0.131172150,0.128125965,0.125279090,
* 0.122610883,0.120103560,0.117741707,
* 0.115511892,0.113402349,0.111402720,
* 0.109503852,0.107697617/
  DATA D(33), D(34), D(35), D(36), D(37), D(38),
* D(39), D(40), D(41), D(42), D(43), D(44),
* D(45), D(46), D(47), D(48), D(49), D(50),
* D(51), D(52), D(53), D(54), D(55), D(56),
* D(57), D(58), D(59), D(60)
* /0.105976772,0.104334841,0.102766012,
* 0.101265052,0.099827234,0.098448282,
* 0.097124309,0.095851778,0.094627461,
* 0.093442407,0.092311909,0.091215482,
* 0.090156838,0.089133867,0.088144619,
* 0.087187293,0.086260215,0.085361834,
* 0.084490706,0.083645487,0.082824924,
* 0.082027847,0.081253162,0.080499844,
* 0.079766932,0.079053527,0.078358781,
* 0.077681899/
C END OF MACHINE-DEPENDENT STATEMENTS
C U MUST BE PRESERVED BETWEEN CALLS.
  DATA U /0.0/
C INITIALIZE DISPLACEMENT A AND COUNTER I.
  A = 0.0
  I = 0
C INCREMENT COUNTER AND DISPLACEMENT IF LEADING BIT
C OF U IS ONE.
  I0 U = U + U
  IF (U.LT.1.0) GO TO 20
  U = U - 1.0
  I = I + 1
  A = A - D(I)
  GO TO I0
C FORM W UNIFORM ON 0 .LE. W .LT. D(I+1) FROM U.
  20 W = D(I+1)*U
C FORM V = 0.5*(W-A)**2 - A**2). NOTE THAT 0 .LE. V
C .LT. LOG(2).
  V = W*(0.5*W-A)
C GENERATE NEW UNIFORM U.
  30 U = RAND(0)
C ACCEPT W AS A RANDOM SAMPLE IF V .LE. U.
  IF (V.LE.U) GO TO 40
C GENERATE RANDOM V.
  V = RAND(0)
C LOOP IF U .GT. V.
  IF (U.GT.V) GO TO 30
C REJECT W AND FORM A NEW UNIFORM U FROM V AND U.
  U = (V-U)/(1.0-U)
  GO TO 20
C FORM NEW U (TO BE USED ON NEXT CALL) FROM U AND V.
  40 U = (U-V)/(1.0-V)
C USE FIRST BIT OF U FOR SIGN, RETURN NORMAL VARIATE.
  U = U + U
  IF (U.LT.1.0) GO TO 50
  U = U - 1.0
  GRAND = W - A
  RETURN
  50 GRAND = A - W
  RETURN
  END

```

Remark on Algorithm 420 [J6]

Hidden-Line Plotting Program [Hugh Williamson, *Comm. ACM* 15 (Feb. 1972) 100-103] and Remark on Algorithm 420 [T.M.R. Ellis, *Comm. ACM* 17 (June 1974), 324-325]

T.M.R. Ellis [Recd. 8 July 1974] Computing Services, University of Sheffield, England

There was an unfortunate printing error in my Remark on Algorithm 420 which made nonsense of the whole thing. The statement which should be inserted to correct the error discussed should, of course, be:

IF(F1.EQ.F2) GO TO 1005

and not: IF(F1.EQ.FZ) GO TO 1005 as printed.

Remark on Algorithm 426

Merge Sort Algorithm [M1]

[C. Bron, *Comm. ACM* 15 (May 1972), 357-358]

C. Bron [Recd. 5 Nov. 1973]

Technological University of Twente, P.O. Box 217, Enschede, The Netherlands

A remark in [3 p. 158] suggested to the author that Algorithm 426 needs only very minor modifications in order to handle the sorting of records that are chained to begin with. The algorithm then rearranges the chain and needs no additional array to store chaining information. Furthermore, the assumption that we should be able to associate each of the integers from 1 to n with each of the n records to be sorted is no longer necessary [2].

References

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Remark on Algorithm 456 [H]

Routing Problem

[Zdeněk Fencl, *Comm. ACM* 16 (Sept. 1973), 572]

Gerhard Tesch [Recd. 15 Oct. 1973] VFW Vereinigte Flugtechnische Werke GMBH, 28 Bremen 1, Hunefeldstrasse 1-5, Germany and Zdeněk Fencl, M.I.T., Department of Urban Studies, R. 9-643, Cambridge, Mass.

Some confusion arose from the description of the algorithm capability. It should have been stated that the generated tour must pass through each of the n nodes once and only once, although this is the base for the definition of the traveling salesman problem. This algorithm solves an extended traveling salesman problem in which the end node does not have to be the start node. Such connections may be sought in the design automation of serial printed circuits as well as in transportation problems. The traveling salesman problem is discussed in [3, p. 232] and methods of solution are surveyed in [1].

The users who seek the shortest paths in electric networks (the shortest connection between the two specified nodes in a net without regard to the number of nodes to be connected) are referred to Ford's shortest path algorithm [2, p. 69] and Dantzig's shortest path algorithm [3, p. 175]. There is a set of three efficient Algol algorithms by J. Boothroyd [4] handling the shortest path problem as defined in [2, p. 69] and [3, p. 175]. These Algol algorithms can be modified so that even the number of nodes may be minimized or a restriction of some nodes may be imposed, etc.

Another type of shortest path algorithm is Lee's algorithm [5 and 6]. This algorithm is applicable for the orthogonal routing of printed circuit boards.

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