# Playing DnD with a Yahtzee Set

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#### DRAFT

#### Abstract

We describe a procedure for emulating any discreet uniform probability distribution using another. For example, using two six-sided dice in order to emulate the twenty-sided die found in Dungeons and Dragons. We also perform a cost analysis of this procedure, as well as note two special cases when constant runtime is achieved.

#### 1 Introduction

Dungeons and Dragons, an infamous tabletop role-playing game, uses a variety of unusual dice in order to determine outcomes of the game. The most iconic of these dice is the twenty-sided die. In DnD, a roll of the twenty-sided die may vastly determine the outcome of the game; for example, when a character performs an attack, the 20-sided die is used to determine how much damage is incurred to the victim.

Wizards of the Coast calls this style of gameplay the "d20 system" [1]. Since its first introduction, this notation has caught on and gained some notoriety, especially in the larger geek community.

Unfortunately, this style of gameplay requires the use of a twenty-sided dice. In many areas, such dice may be difficult or inconvenient to obtain. As such, we aim to answer the question, "How may one emulate a twenty-sided die using only a set of six-sided dice?"

**Definition 1** For any nonzero, positive integer n,  $d_n$  is the uniform, discrete probability distribution whose possible outcomes range from 0 to n-1, inclusive.

Informally, we may say  $d_n$  is the distribution representing a fair, *n*-sided die with sides labeled  $0, 1, \ldots, n-1$ . For example,  $d_2$  may represent to a coin flip,  $d_6$  may represent a commonplace six-sided die, and  $d_{20}$  represents our coveted 20-sided die.

Using this notation, we can formalize our goal as a procedure which uses a distribution  $d_n$  in order to simulate a distribution  $d_m$ .

### 2 Combinatoric Intuition

#### 2.1 Using decision trees

The general idea behind emulating  $d_m$  distribution will require that we use the  $d_n$  distribution to produce  $k \ge m$  unique possibilities to choose from. Of these k possibilities, we will assign exactly k - m of these options a probability of 0, and the remaining m possibilities will all have a probability of exactly 1/m.

In order to use the  $d_n$  distribution to produce k possibilities, we will sample the  $d_n$  distribution multiple times, using a decision tree to decide which of the k possibilities to choose from. The simplest way to do this is to keep track of ordered rolls. If we roll x times, then we will have  $n^x$  different possibilities for ordered outcomes. Let us choose x such that,

$$k = n^x \ge m$$

Clearly, the minimal integer x for which this inequality holds is

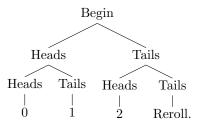
$$x = \lceil \log_n m \rceil$$

Of course, our decision tree currently has k possibilities, each with a probability of 1/k. We will solve this by rereoiling whenever we choose one of the rightmost k - m branches. In this way, these rightmost branches will have a probability of exactly 0 (since they will never be chosen), and the leftover probability will be equally distributed among the other m branches.

It is important that whenever we reach a branch with P = 0, we must restart at the very top of the decision tree. Otherwise, we will have a situation very similar to the Monty Hall Problem, resulting in a nonuniform distribution.

**Example 1** Create a decision tree for emulating a three-sided die using coin flips.

In this example, we have m = 3 and n = 2. Using the equations above, x = 2 and k = 4. Thus, one possible decision tree for our procedure is



That is, to emulate a three-sided die, we flip a coin twice. If both our coins are Heads, we will return 0. If we get a Heads, then a Tails, we will return 1. If we get a Tails, and then a Heads, we will return 2. Finally, if both of our flips are Tails, we must retry by flipping both coins again until we get something other than Tails–Tails.

#### 2.2 Using base-*n* numbers

Next, we observe that it is unnecessary to actually completely construct a decision tree. Rather, it is possible to interpret each progressive roll as a digit in a base-n number.

Recall that a base-n number, A, of length x, is equivalent to the following base-10 formula:

$$A = a_0 + na_1 + \ldots + n^{x-2}a_{x-2} + n^{x-1}a_{x-1},$$
(1)

where  $a_i$  is the *i*th digit of the A counting from the right. In this way, possible values of A ranges from 0 to  $n^x - 1$ , inclusive. After some algebraic manipulation, may rewrite (1) as

$$A = a_0 + n(a_1 + n(a_2 + \dots)).$$
(2)

Equation (2) is key to the notion of using base-*n* numbers in order to implicitly construct our decision tree. We will treat each successive  $d_n$  roll as a digit in a base-*n* number of length *x*, thus giving us  $k = n^x$  different possible results. To throw out the k - m rightmost branches, we will simply reroll whenever  $A \ge m$ , thus creating a uniform distribution over the numbers 0 to m - 1.

### **3** Formal Procedure

We are now ready to formalize our procedure. Note that in this pseudocode, we use the notation  $d_n()$  to represent taking a sample from the  $d_n$  distribution; in other words,  $d_n()$  represents rolling an *n*-sided die.

Algorithm 1 Emulating a *m*-sided die using many *n*-sided rolls.

```
x \leftarrow \lceil \log_n m \rceil
loop
A \leftarrow 0
for i = 0 to x - 1 do
A \leftarrow A * n + d_n()
end for
if A < m then
return A
end if
end loop
```

In theory, this algorithm may possibly run forever, though with an infinitely small probability. In the next section, we aim to analyze how many times we will need to roll on average.

### 4 Cost Analysis

In each iteration of the loop, we have m possible ways of stopping (success) and k - m possible ways of needing to reiterate (failure). That is, we have a

geometric distribution with a P = m/k probability of getting a success. The mean of a geometric distribution is well-known [2] to be 1/P, and so the average number of trials (loop iterations) before a success (termination) is

 $\frac{n^x}{m}$ ,

where  $x = \lceil \log_n m \rceil$ . Therefore, the average number of samples taken from  $d_n$  (rolls of the *n*-sided die), will be

$$x\frac{n^x}{m}$$
.

**Example 2** Emulating a six-sided die using coin flips will require 4 flips on average.

**Example 3** Emulating a 20-sided die using only a single die will require 3.6 rolls on average. Using a set of two colored dice, we will need 1.8 rolls on average.

**Example 4** Emulating a 100-sided die with two 10-sided die will never require a reroll.

### 5 Perfect emulation

A modification to Algorithm 1 can allow for perfect emulation (that is, constant runtime) whenever  $0 \equiv n^x \mod m$ . In this case, instead of rerolling, we can simply assign multiple branches of the decision tree the same value; because  $n^x$  is evenly divisible by m, we will have an equal number of branches for each possible value 0 to m - 1.

Algorithm 2 Simulating  $d_m$  using many  $d_n$  samples when  $0 \equiv n^x \mod m$ .

 $\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow \lceil \log_n m \rceil \\ A \leftarrow 0 \\ \textbf{for } i = 0 \text{ to } x - 1 \textbf{ do} \\ A \leftarrow A * n + d_n() \\ \textbf{end for} \\ \textbf{return } A \bmod m \end{array}$ 

**Example 5** Simulating a 20-sided die with two 10-sided die. We roll the dice, concatenating the values in order to produce a number between 00 and 99. We return the mod 20 of this number.

There exist alternative encodings, as well. For example, consider m = 8 and n = 4. Here, we may use the first dice roll to determine whether our answer should be "high" or "low", and the second roll to select a value from the sets  $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  or  $\{4, 5, 6, 7\}$ . We leave the generalization of this case, and others, as exercises for the reader.

### 6 Conclusion

We have shown a procedure for simulating any discreet, uniform distribution  $d_m$  using a fixed number of samples from another discreet, uniform  $d_n$  distribution. One real world example is emulating the popular 20-sided die found in Dungeons and Dragons using only a six-sided die.

We also have shown a cost analysis for such a procedure, as well as pointed out two special cases where perfect emulation is achieved.

# 7 Acknowledgements

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## References

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