

Random and pseudorandom numbers

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Agenda

- 1 Applications of randomness
- 2 What does it mean «random numbers»?
 - Problem formalization
 - Definition 1. Frequency stability
 - Definition 2. Unpredictability
- 3 Pseudorandom numbers
 - Random and pseudorandom numbers
 - Random numbers sources
 - Pseudorandom numbers sources
 - The Linear Congruential Method
 - Randomness criterias

Monte Carlo



Figure: Monte Carlo city

Stochastic systems modeling and analysis

- 1 Queueing theory
- 2 Mathematical finance

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Decision theory (matrix games)

		Defender		
		(2,0)	(1,1)	(0,2)
Attacker	(2,0)	0	$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$
	(1,1)	$\frac{1}{3}$	0	$\frac{2}{3}$
	(0,2)	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	0

Decision theory (matrix games)

		Defender		
		(2,0)	(1,1)	(0,2)
Attacker	(2,0)	0	2/3	2/3
	(1,1)	1/3	0	2/3
	(0,2)	1/3	1/3	0

Strategy = $(p_1, \quad , p_2, \quad p_3)$

Aesthetics

mathematics
mathematics
 mathematics
 mathematics

FIGURE 22.
 A bit of randomness introduced
 into various styles of type.

“I think it can be said that the letters in this final example have a warmth and charm which makes it hard to believe that they were really generated by a computer following strict mathematical rules.”

D.E. Knuth, Mathematical typography — Bull. Amer. Math. Soc. 1
 (1979), 369

Numerical analysis

Denote $f(y) = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2$. Want to estimate

$$I = \int_0^1 dy_1 \dots \int_0^1 f(y) dy_n$$

with estimators ($N = M^n$):

$$\tilde{l}_1 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N f(\bar{x}_j),$$

where $\{\bar{x}_j\}_{1 \leq j \leq N}$ form uniform grid in $[0; 1]^n$ cube and

$$\tilde{l}_2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N f(\bar{x}'_j),$$

where \bar{x}'_j is uniform random point in j -th subcube.

Numerical analysis

Table: $n=1$

N	$ I - \tilde{I}_1 $	$ I - \tilde{I}_2 $
10^2	$5 * 10^{-3}$	$7 * 10^{-6}$
10^3	$5 * 10^{-4}$	$4 * 10^{-7}$
10^4	$5 * 10^{-5}$	$5 * 10^{-9}$
10^5	$5 * 10^{-6}$	$4 * 10^{-10}$
10^6	$5 * 10^{-7}$	$1 * 10^{-11}$
10^7	$5 * 10^{-8}$	$1 * 10^{-12}$

Table: $n=2$

N	$ I - \tilde{I}_1 $	$ I - \tilde{I}_2 $
10^2	10^{-1}	$6 * 10^{-5}$
10^4	10^{-2}	10^{-6}
10^6	10^{-3}	$5 * 10^{-7}$
10^8	10^{-4}	$3 * 10^{-9}$

Table: $n=3$

N	$ I - \tilde{I}_1 $	$ I - \tilde{I}_2 $
10^3	0.145	$2 * 10^{-3}$
10^6	0.0145	$6 * 10^{-6}$

Numerical analysis

Assume $f(\cdot)$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}$ are continuous and $\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k} \right| \leq L$, $1 \leq k \leq n$.

Then

Assertion 1

$$P\left(\left|I - \tilde{I}_2\right| \leq (nL/\varepsilon)N^{-1/2-1/n}\right) \geq 1 - \varepsilon^2, \quad 0 < \varepsilon < 1$$

and

Assertion 2

$$\sup_f \left|I - \tilde{I}_1\right| \leq nLN^{-1/n}$$

Quick sort

Consider array

$$(a[1], a[2], \dots, a[N]).$$

We want to sort it in direct (increasing) order.

```
// begin with QuickSort(a, 1, N)
QuickSort(a, begin, end)
if begin < end
  then q = Partition (a,begin, end);
  QuickSort(a, begin, q-1);
  QuickSort(a, q+1, end);
```

```
Partition(a,begin,end)
  x = a[end];
  i = begin - 1;
  for j = begin to (end - 1)
    if a[j] <= x
      then i = i+1;
      exchange a[i] and a[j]
  exchange a[i+1] and a[end];
  return i + 1;
```

Quick sort

$T(N) = ?$

```
// begin with QuickSort(a, 1, N)
QuickSort(a, begin, end)
if begin < end
    then q = Partition (a,begin, end); // (end - begin) <= (N - 1) iterations
    QuickSort(a, begin, q-1);         // T(q - begin) <= T(N - 1) iterations
    QuickSort(a, q+1, end);           // T(end - q) <= T(N - 1) iterations
```

In the worst case

$$T(N) = (N - 1) + (N - 2) + \dots + 2 + 1 = \frac{(N - 2) * (N - 1)}{2} = O(N^2)$$

iterations when

$$a[1] < a[2] < \dots < a[N].$$

Quick sort

But! If

$$P(a[i_1] < a[i_2] < \dots < a[i_N]) = \frac{1}{N!}$$

for any permutation (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_N) , then

$$\overline{T}(N) = E[T(N)] = O(N \log N)!$$

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$$(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{N!})?$$

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Lets use pseudorandom numbers!

$$\overline{T}(N) = O(N \log N).$$

Matrix equations

A, B and $C \in R^{N \times N}$.

$$A \times B = C? \tag{1}$$

Complexity (determined algorithms): $O(N^3)$ or $O(N^{2.3})$.

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$$A \times B \times x = C \times x? \quad (2)$$

Decision rule: if (2) is true (false) then (1) is true (false).

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Decision rule: if (2) is true (false) then (1) is true (false).

Complexity: $O(N^2)$. Error probability:

$$P(\text{"false"} | A \times B = C) = 0, \quad P(\text{"true"} | A \times B \neq C) \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

Repeat it 20 times and get error probability $< 10^{-6}$.

Integer equations

Let $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ and $Q(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$ be k -degree polynomial.

$$Q(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) \equiv 0? \quad (3)$$

No polynomial algorithm.

Integer equations

Shwartz Lemm

If $\{x_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq N}$ are independent uniform random numbers from $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ then

$$P(Q(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) = 0 | Q(\cdot, \cdot, \dots, \cdot) \not\equiv 0) < \frac{kN}{n}.$$

Let $n = 2kN + 1$ then $P(\text{Error}) < 1/2$.

Check 100 times $\Rightarrow P(\text{Error}) < 1/2^{100}$

What does it mean «random numbers»?



Psychological test

10001011101111010000
01111011001101110001

(4)

Psychological test

10001011101111010000 (4)
01111011001101110001

00000000000000000000 (5)
11111111111111111111

Remarks:

- $P(\xi_i = 1) = P(\xi_i = 0) = \frac{1}{2}$
- Consider only $(\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_N)$, where N is large ($N \rightarrow \infty$)

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Problem

Denote

$$\Omega = \{0, 1\}^\infty.$$

Want to find

$R \subset \Omega$ — set of random sequences.

General approach

Let $L: \Omega \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be a characteristic property indicator of sequence (a_1, a_2, \dots) .

(a_1, a_2, \dots) — random sequence $\Leftrightarrow L(a_1, a_2, \dots) = 1$

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What L functions can you imagine?

Intuitive assumption

Consider sequence

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{N-1}, a_N, a_{N+1}, \dots).$$

Obviously we want

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\nu_N("1")}{N} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad (6)$$

where $\nu_N("1") = \sum_{i=1}^N \text{Indicator}\{a_i = 1\}$.

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What about sequence

0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 ... ?

Definition 1

(a_1, a_2, \dots) is random if for any computable functions $F()$ and $G()$:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad n(1) = F(\Lambda), n(2) = F(a_{n(1)})$$

$$(a_{n(1)}, a_{n(2)}, \dots) - \text{mixed}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \text{Get } a_{n(k)} \Leftrightarrow G(a_{n(1)}, a_{n(2)}, \dots, a_{n(k-1)}) = 1$$

$$(\tilde{a}_1, \tilde{a}_2, \dots) - \text{result sequence}$$

true following

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\nu_N("1")}{N} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Intuitive assumption

Let

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots)$$

be a casino tool, that is gamer tries to predict these numbers.

- 1 Gamer knows nothing and he just predicts $(n(1), i(1), v(1))$;
casino checks whether $i(1) = a_{n(1)}$; $V(1) = V(0) + / - v(1)$;
- 2 Gamer knows $a_{n(1)}$ and tries to predict the next number; he says
 $(n(2), i(2), v(2))$; $V(2) = V(1) + / - v(2)$;
- 3 ...

Every time gamer applies some decision function $\Xi()$, named “strategy”.

Definition 2

Suppose gamer has $V(0) = 1$ money initially.

Definition

(a_1, a_2, \dots) is random if there is no computable strategy $\Xi()$, that implies

$$V(k) \xrightarrow[k \rightarrow \infty]{} \infty.$$

Theorem

Let U be class of «unpredictable» sequences and S be class of frequency stable sequences. Then

$$U \subset S.$$

Random and pseudorandom numbers



Figure: Random

$$X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \mod m$$

Figure: Pseudorandom

Examples

- Flipping a coin or dices, dragging balls from an urn etc;
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- ③ systematic bias (difficult to quantify, no general solution).

Advantages

They are truly random! Nobody can argue with it.

Application: as a seed for pseudorandom numbers.

The first pseudorandom numbers generator

John von Neumann.

Suppose we have X_n . Calculate X_n^2 and get, for example, 10 digits from the middle as X_{n+1} .

Example:

$$X_n = 5772156649 \rightarrow X_n^2 = 33317792380594909201$$

$$X_{n+1} = 7923805949$$

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$$X_{n+1} = 7923805949$$

Disadvantage: a few numbers and hard to calculate.

Assertion

20-digits binary number generates at maximum 142 different numbers.

“Random numbers should not be generated with a method chosen at random”

D. E. Knuth “The Art of Computer Programming”, 2, page 6

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Some theory should be used.

What numbers do we need?

- Every random number U_n uniformly distributed in $[0, 1]$ can be transformed to arbitrary distributed random number.

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General approach

$$X_n \in \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\} \rightarrow U_n = X_n/m \rightarrow \text{arbitrary distribution}$$

Hence we need $X_n \in \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$.

Definition

Choose four numbers:

- m — the modulus; $0 < m$.
- a — the multiplier; $0 \leq a < m$.
- c — the increment; $0 \leq c < m$.
- X_0 — the starting value; $0 \leq X_0 < m$

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$$X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \mod m, \quad n \geq 0.$$

Example

For $m = 10$, $X_0 = a = c = 7$ we get

7, 6, 9, 0, 7, 6, 9, 0, ...

Congruential sequences always get into loop. Unfortunately.

Choice of modulus (m). $X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m$

- Period length $< m$.

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Using $m = 2^e$ numbers (e is a computer's word size, e.g.) is faster.

- Random properties.

Suppose $m = 2^e \implies$ the right-hand digits of X_n are much less random than the left-hand digits.

Assertion

If d is divisor of m and if $(Y_n = X_n \bmod d)$ then

$$Y_{n+1} = (aY_n + c) \bmod d.$$

You can use $m = 2^e - 1$ instead.

Choice of multiplier (a) and increment (c).

$$X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m$$

Goal: achieve the longest period (m). Is it possible?

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Yes:

$$X_{n+1} = (X_n + 1) \mod m.$$

Theorem

The linear congruential sequence defined by m , a , c and X_0 has period length m if and only if

- 1 c is relatively prime to m ;
- 2 $a - 1$ is a multiple of p , for every prime p dividing m ;
- 3 $a - 1$ is a multiple of 4, if m is a multiple of 4.

Potency. $X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m$

Suppose $\{X_n\}$ has maximum period (that is m).

Definition

The least integer s such that

$$(a - 1)^s \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$$

called «potency».

The larger potency \implies the more random sequence.

Potency. $X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m$

Let $X_0 = 0$ and $b = a - 1$, then

$$X_n = ((a^n - 1) c / b) \bmod m,$$

after transformations:

$$X_n = c \left(n + \binom{n}{2} b + \dots + \binom{n}{s} b^{s-1} \right) \bmod m.$$

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In particular:

$$s = 1 \implies X_n = cn \bmod m;$$

$$s = 2 \implies X_n = cn + c \binom{n}{2} b \bmod m \implies X_{n+1} - X_n \equiv c + cbn$$

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denoting ($d = cb \bmod m$) we have $(X_n, X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}) \in$

$$x - 2y + z = d + m,$$

$$x - 2y + z = d - m,$$

$$x - 2y + z = d,$$

$$x - 2y + z = d - 2m.$$

Potency. $X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m$

Examples:

- 1 Let $m = 2^e$; it is divisible by high powers of prime 2. Choosing $a = 2^k + 1$, have relatively big potency.

Potency. $X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m$

Examples:

- 1 Let $m = 2^e$; it is divisible by high powers of prime 2. Choosing $a = 2^k + 1$, have relatively big potency.
- 2 Let $m = 2^e - 1$; commonly it is **not** divisible by high powers of primes \implies . There could not be a big potency.

"Chi-square" test. Experiment

Throw two "true" dices.

s — sum of the result numbers.

value of $s =$	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
probability, $p_s =$	$\frac{1}{36}$	$\frac{1}{18}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{18}$	$\frac{1}{36}$

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Repeat $n = 144$ times:

value of $s =$	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
observed number, $Y_s =$	2	4	10	12	22	29	21	15	14	9	6
probability, $p_s =$	$\frac{1}{36}$	$\frac{1}{18}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{18}$	$\frac{1}{36}$

"Chi-square" test. Statistic

$$V = (Y_2 - np_2)^2 + (Y_3 - np_3)^2 + \dots + (Y_{12} - np_{12})^2. \quad (7)$$

"Chi-square" test. Statistic

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Better to analyse:

$$V = \frac{(Y_2 - np_2)^2}{np_2} + \frac{(Y_3 - np_3)^2}{np_3} + \dots + \frac{(Y_{12} - np_{12})^2}{np_{12}}. \quad (8)$$

"Chi-square" test. Statistic

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In our example:

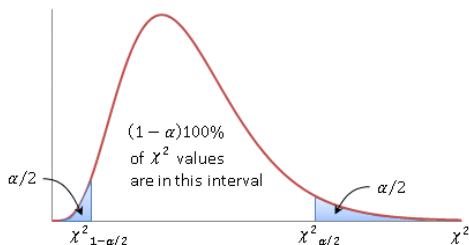
$$V = \frac{(2 - 4)^2}{4} + \frac{(4 - 8)^2}{8} + \dots + \frac{(9 - 8)^2}{8} + \frac{(6 - 4)^2}{4} = 7\frac{7}{48}. \quad (9)$$

"Chi-square" test. Test

$$V = \sum_{s=1}^k \frac{(Y_s - np_s)^2}{np_s} \xrightarrow{d} \chi^2(k-1)$$

"Chi-square" test. Test

$$V = \sum_{s=1}^k \frac{(Y_s - np_s)^2}{np_s} \xrightarrow{d} \chi^2(k-1)$$



$$\begin{aligned} P \left(\chi^2_{1-\alpha/2}(k-1) \leq \right. \\ \leq V(Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_k) \leq \\ \left. \leq \chi^2_{\alpha/2}(k-1) \mid V \in \chi^2(k-1) \right) = \\ = 1 - \alpha \end{aligned}$$

Figure: $\chi^2(k-1)$ density

"Chi-square" test. Pseudorandom numbers generators app

Consider

$$A = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}.$$

"Chi-square" test. Pseudorandom numbers generators app

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$$A = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}.$$

Split A into k subsets (of size $\frac{m}{k}$, e.g.):

$$A = \left\{0, 1, \dots, \frac{m}{k} - 1\right\} \cup \left\{\frac{m}{k}, \frac{m}{k} + 1, \dots, 2\frac{m}{k} - 1\right\} \cup \dots \\ \dots \cup \left\{m - \frac{m}{k}, m - \frac{m}{k} + 1, \dots, m - 1\right\}.$$

"Chi-square" test. Pseudorandom numbers generators app

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Generate n random numbers. n should satisfy

$$np_s = \frac{n}{k} \geq 5$$

"Chi-square" test. Pseudorandom numbers generators app

Consider

$$A = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}.$$

Split A into k subsets (of size $\frac{m}{k}$, e.g.):

$$A = \left\{0, 1, \dots, \frac{m}{k} - 1\right\} \cup \left\{\frac{m}{k}, \frac{m}{k} + 1, \dots, 2\frac{m}{k} - 1\right\} \cup \dots \\ \dots \cup \left\{m - \frac{m}{k}, m - \frac{m}{k} + 1, \dots, m - 1\right\}.$$

Generate n random numbers. n should satisfy

$$np_s = \frac{n}{k} \geq 5, \quad \text{better} \quad \geq 8$$

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Generate n random numbers. n should satisfy

$$np_s = \frac{n}{k} \geq 5 \quad \text{better} \quad \geq 8 \quad \text{better} \quad \geq 10$$