

# 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



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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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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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$x \in \{0; 1\}^N$  — uniform random vector. Instead of (1) check

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

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

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$$A \times B \times x = C \times x? \tag{2}$$

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

$$P(Q(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) = 0 | Q(\cdot, \cdot, \dots, \cdot) \neq 0) < \frac{kN}{n}.$$

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

(4)

01111011001101110001

# 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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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  $\Leftrightarrow L(a_1, a_2, \dots) = 1$

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

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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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### 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  $(X_n, X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}) \in$

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

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

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

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.

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### 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

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



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Better to analyse:

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

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In our example:

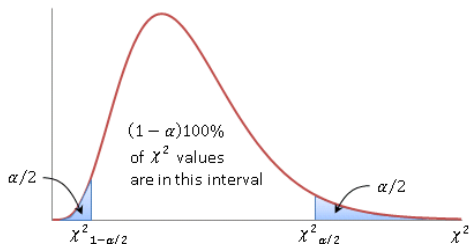
$$V = \frac{(2 - 4)^2}{4} + \frac{(4 - 8)^2}{8} + \dots + \frac{(9 - 8)^2}{8} + \frac{(6 - 4)^2}{4} = 7\frac{7}{48}. \quad (9)$$

# "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

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



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

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

# "Chi-square" test. Pseudorandom numbers generators app

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