
Note: This document is a part of the lectures given during the Jan-May 2019 Semester.

Combining Generators:

One can move beyond the basic linear congruence generators by combining two or more such generators through summation. Wichmann and Hill proposed summing values in the unit interval. L'Ecuyer sums first and then divides. To be more explicit, consider J generators with the j -th generator having parameters a_j and m_j . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}x_{j,i+1} &= a_j x_{j,i} \bmod m_j, \\u_{j,i+1} &= x_{j,i+1}/m_j, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, J.\end{aligned}$$

1. The Wichmann-Hill combination sets u_{i+1} equal to the fractional part of $u_{1,i+1} + u_{2,i+1} + \dots + u_{J,i+1}$.
2. L'Ecuyer's combination takes the form:

$$x_{i+1} = \sum_{j=1}^J (-1)^{(j-1)} x_{j,i+1} \bmod (m_1 - 1)$$

and

$$u_{i+1} = \begin{cases} x_{i+1}/m_1, & x_{i+1} > 0, \\ (m_1 - 1)/m_1, & x_{i+1} = 0. \end{cases}$$

This assumes that m_1 is the largest of the m_j .

A combination of generators can result in a much longer period than any of its components. A long period can also be achieved in a single generator by using a larger modulus, which could create problems with overflow. In combining generators, it is possible to choose the multiplier a_j much smaller than $\sqrt{m_j}$, in order to use the integer implementation. While L'Ecuyer's uses integer arithmetic, Wichmann-Hill uses floating point arithmetic. Another way of extending the basic linear congruence generator uses a higher order recursion of the form:

$$x_i = (a_1 x_{i-1} + a_2 x_{i-2} + \dots + a_k x_{i-k}) \bmod m \text{ and } u_i = x_i/m.$$

This is called a *multiple* recursive generator. A seed for this generator consists of initial values $x_{k-1}, x_{k-2}, \dots, x_0$. The vector $(x_{i-1}, x_{i-2}, \dots, x_{i-k})$ can take up to m^k distinct values. The sequence x_i repeats once this vector returns to a previously visited value. If the vector reaches the zero vector then all subsequent x_i are zero. Thus the longest possible period for the multiple recursive generator is $m^k - 1$. See Knuth's book for the conditions on m and a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k under which this bound is achieved.

Inversive Congruential Generator:

This method uses recursions of the form

$$x_{i+1} = (ax_i^- + c) \bmod m,$$

where the $(\bmod m)$ -inverse x^- of x is an integer in $\{1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$ satisfying $xx^- = 1 \bmod m$.

Fibonacci Generators:

The original Fibonacci recursion motivates the formula:

$$N_{i+1} = (N_i + N_{i-1}) \bmod M.$$

It turns out that this is not suitable for generating random numbers. The modified approach is:

$$N_{i+1} = (N_{i-\nu} - N_{i-\mu}) \bmod M,$$

for suitable $\nu, \mu \in \mathbb{N}$ is called the *lagged Fibonacci* generator. For many choices of ν and μ , this approach leads to recommendable generators.

Example:

$U_i = U_{i-17} - U_{i-5}$. In case $U_i < 0$ we set $U_i = U_i + 1.0$. This recursion immediately produces floating point numbers $U_i \in [0, 1)$. This generator requires a prologue in which 17 initial U 's are generated by means of another method.

General Sampling Methods:

With the introduction of random number generators behind us, we assume the availability of an ideal sequence of random numbers. More precisely, we assume the availability of a sequence U_1, U_2, \dots of independent random variables, each satisfying,

$$P(U_i \leq u) = \begin{cases} 0, & u < 0 \\ u, & 0 \leq u \leq 1 \\ 1, & u > 1, \end{cases}$$

i.e., uniformly distributed between 0 and 1. A simulation algorithm transforms these independent uniform variables into sample paths of stochastic processes. A typical simulation uses methods for transforming samples from the uniform distribution to samples from other distributions. The two most widely used general techniques are:

1. Inverse Transform Method.
2. Acceptance Rejection Method.

Inverse Transform Method:

Suppose we want a sample from a cumulative distribution function $F(x)$, *i.e.*, we want to generate a random variable X with the property that $P(X \leq x) = F(x) \forall x$. The inverse transform method sets:

$$X = F^{-1}(U), \quad U \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 1],$$

where F^{-1} is the inverse of F and $\mathcal{U}[0, 1]$ is a uniform distribution on $[0, 1]$.

Theorem:

Suppose $U \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 1]$ and F is a continuous strictly increasing function. Then $F^{-1}(U)$ is a sample from F .

Proof:

Let P denote the underlying probability. $U \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 1]$ means $P(U \leq \xi) = \xi$, $0 \leq \xi \leq 1$. Therefore $P(F^{-1}(U) \leq x) = P(U \leq F(x)) = F(x)$.

Examples:

1. Exponential Distribution:

The exponential distribution with mean θ has distribution

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-x/\theta}, \quad x \geq 0.$$

This is, for example, the distribution of the times between jumps of a Poisson process with rate $1/\theta$. Inverting yields

$$X = -\theta \log(1 - U).$$

This can be implemented also as $X = -\theta \log(U)$, since U and $(1 - U)$ have the same distribution.

2. Arc Sin Law:

The time at which a standard Brownian motion attains it's maximum over the time interval $[0, 1]$ has the distribution:

$$F(x) = \frac{2}{\pi} \arcsin \sqrt{x} , \ 0 \leq x \leq 1.$$

The inverse transform method for sampling from this distribution is:

$$X = \sin^2 \left(\frac{U\pi}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cos(U\pi) , \ 0 \leq t \leq \pi/2, \ , \ U \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 1].$$