

Random Numbers

Random numbers are ubiquitous in physics – thermodynamics, radioactivity, particle collision and everything in between

Two basic methods to generate random number with varying degree of randomness

- *True* RNG

True RNG : uses natural phenomenon like coin flipping, dice rolling, radioactive decay, thermal noise, atmospheric radio-noise etc.

Requires post-processing, slow \Rightarrow not useful for regular usage

- *Pseudo* RNG

Pseudo RNG : based on algorithms, generated iteratively

Deterministic, finite sequence length, correlated but extremely fast and portable

Sequence length can be made veryyy long by proper choice of parameters

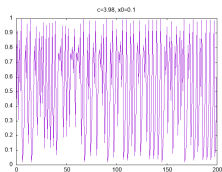
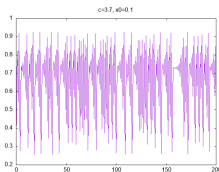
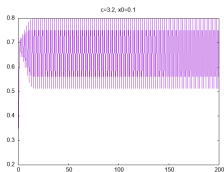
Basic goal : Write your own pRNG and use it for all assignments, exams and DIY

Example : a quick and dirty pRNG

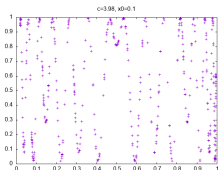
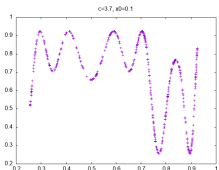
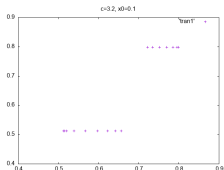
$$x_{i+1} = c x_i (1 - x_i)$$

x_0 is the seed which defines the random sequence.

An exercise with $x_0 = 0.1$ and $c = 3.2, 3.7, 3.98$



Plots of x_i vs. x_{i+5} show correlatedness (how to measure / quantify it?)



Bad pRNG for many choices of c and seed x_0 – settles down into regular pattern. However, no specific pattern for $c = 3.98, x_0 = 0.1$

Quantifying good and bad pRNG : Need mathematical tests for determining randomness \Rightarrow if pRNG fails test, then don't use

Eyes are good at discerning patterns but can fool us too!

Basic test : correlation, moments

Advanced test : chi-square, Kolmogorov-Smirnov

Ideally random numbers generated have have no correlations and error statistical i.e. scale as $1/\sqrt{N}$

Correlations test :

$$\epsilon(n, N) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i x_{i+n} - \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \right)^2$$

Connected Correlations test :

$$\epsilon(n, N) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i x_{i+n} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_{i+n}$$

If tuplets of RN not correlated, $\epsilon(n, N) \rightarrow 0$ with statistical error $1/\sqrt{N}$.

Linear Congruential Generator

One of the oldest and most common choice of **pRNG** having a uniform distribution,

$$x_{i+1} = (ax_i + c) \bmod m \equiv x_{i+1} = \text{remainder} \left(\frac{ax_i + c}{m} \right)$$

The m determines the period of the generator *i.e.* produces random numbers between 0 and $m - 1$, whereas x_i/m yields randoms in the interval $[0,1]$.

- ▶ m is typically chosen to be 2^{32}
- ▶ a is *multiplier* and usually $0 < a < m$. **Numerical Recipes** uses $a = 1664525$ and **gcc** uses $a = 1103515245$
- ▶ c is *increment* and usually $0 < c < m$. **Numerical Recipes** uses $c = 1013904223$ and **gcc** uses $c = 12345$

Not all rosy with **LCG**

- $a, c, m, x_0 = 6, 7, 5, 2$: 4,1,2,0,2,4,1,2,0,2, ...
- $a, c, m, x_0 = 27, 11, 54, 2$: 11,38,11,38, ...

LCG : Hull-Dobell theorem

LCG is extremely sensitive to a, c, x_0, m . Particularly, a has to be chosen with great care else short / very short periodicity will set in.

Hull-Dobell theorem : LCG has a period m iff $c \neq 0$ and

1. c is coprime 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.

LCG works well for m having many repeated prime factors p , such as power of 2. But if m are square-free integer (having no n^2 factor for any n), then only $a = 1$ is allowed and it is a very bad pRNG.

LCG is extremely fast, least memory footprint but period severely limited by choice of m : for $m \sim 10^{32} \rightarrow 10^9$ pRN. Gets exhausted in seconds!!

$c = 0$ corresponds to Lehmer, Park-Miller pRNG

$$x_{i+1} = ax_i \cdot \text{mod } m$$

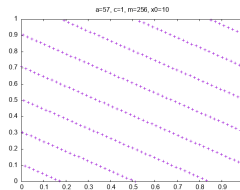
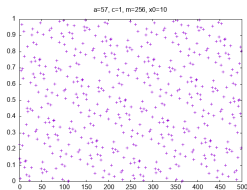
m can be a prime or a prime just less than a power of 2 (Mersenne primes $2^{31} - 1, 2^{61} - 1$ etc.) or can be a simple power of 2.

A few exercise in **LCG**

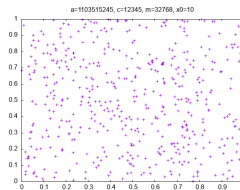
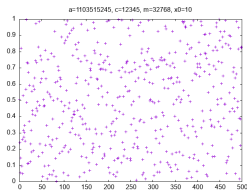
$a = 27, c = 11, m = 54, x_0 = 10$ (Ugly choice) :

0.204, 0.704, 0.204, 0.704, ...

$a = 57, c = 1, m = 256, x_0 = 10$ (Bad choice)



$a = 1103515245, c = 12345, m = 32768, x_0 = 10$ (Good choice)

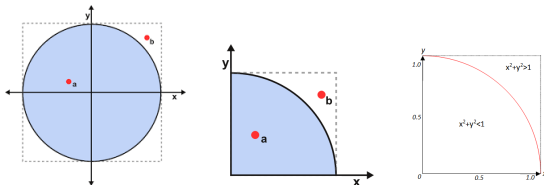


Application : Determination of π

Consider a **unit circle** $r = 1$ centered at origin \Rightarrow area = π .

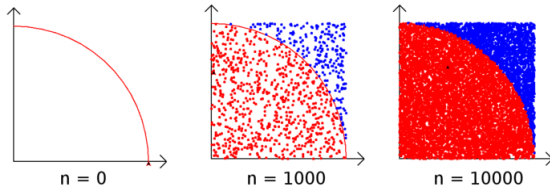
Put unit circle in a square of side $2r = 2$.

Confine to first quadrant and randomly generate points (x, y) and check for inside points $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$. \Rightarrow area = $\pi/4$.



Then over LARGE number of trials

$$\frac{\text{circle area}}{\text{square area}} \approx \frac{\text{total inside}}{\text{total trials}} \Rightarrow \pi \approx 4 \times \frac{\text{total inside}}{\text{total trials}}$$



Different pRNG distribution

Standard **pRNG** generates uniform random integers $\ell \in [0, INT_MAX]$ or floating point numbers $x = (\ell / INT_MAX) \in [0, 1)$.

- **pRNG** uniformly distributed $u \in [a, b)$ from $x \in [0, 1)$

$$u = a + (b - a) x$$

Suppose $p(x)$ is **pdf** of a uniform RN x and target **pdf** is $q(y)$.

$$|q(y) dy| = |p(x) dx| \rightarrow q(y) = p(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$$

For uniform RN $x \in [0, 1) \Rightarrow p(x) = 1$.

- Exponentially distributed RN

$$q(y) = a e^{-ay} \text{ for } y \geq 0, a > 0$$

From the transformation law

$$a e^{-ay} = \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| \rightarrow x = \int_0^y q(y) dy = 1 - e^{-ay} \Rightarrow y = -\frac{1}{a} \ln(1-x) \equiv -\frac{1}{a} \ln x$$

because $(1-x) \in [0, 1)$ as well.