Computational Physics – Lecture 21

(4 May 2020)

Recap

In the previous lecture, we learnt how to obtain uniformly distributed random numbers.

Today's plan

In today's class, we want to learn how to obtain non-uniformly distributed random numbers.

As we saw in the case of the linear congruential generator, random number generators need a seed

The seed tells the generator where to start its pseudorandom sequence.

In the case of the linear congruential generator, the seed is the first number in the output sequency.

For example, for the seed value 1, our linear congruential number gives the sequence

```
1
1015568748
1586005467
2165703038
```

For the seed value 42, we get

```
42
1083814273
378494188
2479403867
```

But the seed need not be part of the output sequence at all.

For example, in Python, random.randrange(100) will give us a random integer between 0 and 99 using the Mersenne Twister generator.

We can set the seed value of this generator using the function random.seed.

For a seed value of 1, I get 17, 72, 97, ..., which does not start with 1.



While using library functions, should you choose a seed?

If you do not use a seed, Python's Mersene Twister generator will take an appropriate randomly chosen seed for you.

But if you do use a seed, your programme will get the same randon number sequence every time it runs.

This is useful while writing programmes.

Sometimes it can happen that you are developing a programme that fails for a random number sequence.

But if you run the programme again it runs OK because it now gets a different random number sequence.

In such cases, it helps if you control the random number sequence by setting seeds.

You can choose to avoid seeding the generator once your programme development is complete.

Another important reason to set a seed is to make stochastic computations reproducible.

But how do ensure that we have chosen a good seed?

By choosing a good generator. And by testing the random number sequence in your code.

Non-uniform deviates

For a uniform deviate, the probability of generating a number between x and x + dx is

$$p(x)dx = \begin{cases} dx & \text{if } 0 < x < 1\\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$
 (1)

where

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \ p(x) = 1. \tag{2}$$

But we are often interested in *non-uniform* deviates—random numbers that follow a non-uniform probability distribution function.



Non-uniform deviates

For example, the time taken by a particle to decay follows an exponential distribution $p(x) \propto \exp(-x)dx$.

Noise, i.e., random errors in measurements, follows a Gaussian distribution $p(x) \propto \exp(-x^2)dx$.

The density of randomly chosen points on a flat surface follows a Poisson distribution.



One way to generate non-uniform deviates is by using the transformation method.

Suppose I have a uniform deviate x.

What is the distribution of a transformation y(x)?

It is just

$$p(y)dy = p(x) \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}y} \right|,\tag{3}$$

because p(x)dx = p(y)dy ("conservation of measure").



Now we just have to choose y(x) so that p(y) is our desired non-uniform random number distribution.

For example, if I take y(x) to be $-\ln x$, then

$$p(y)dy = p(x) \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}y} \right| \tag{4}$$

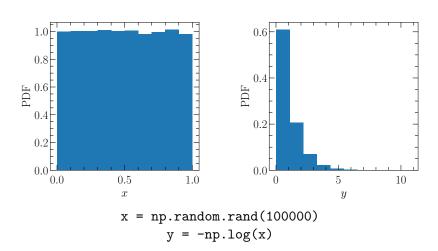
$$= \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}y} \right| \tag{5}$$

$$= \exp(-y) \, \mathrm{d}y, \tag{6}$$

so that y now has an exponential distribution.

(Recall that the PDF for the exponential distribution is $\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$.)







In general, if we want to have random numbers with a distribution f(y), we need to solve the differential equation

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}y} = f(y). \tag{7}$$

The solution of this equation is x = F(y), where

$$F(y) = \int_0^y f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y. \tag{8}$$

So our desired transformation is the inverse of F

$$y(x) = F^{-1}(x).$$
 (9)

(Calculating F^{-1} is sometimes possible, sometimes impossible.)



We can generalise the transformation method to higher dimensions.

If x_1, x_2, \ldots are random numbers with joint PDF $p(x_1, x_2, \ldots)$ and if y_1, y_2, \ldots are functions of the x_1, x_2, \ldots , then the joint PDF of the y_1, y_2, \ldots is given by

$$p(y_1, y_2, \ldots) dy_1 dy_2 \ldots = p(x_1, x_2, \ldots) \left| \frac{\partial(x_1, x_2, \ldots)}{\partial(y_1, y_2, \ldots)} \right| dy_1 dy_2 \ldots,$$

where the $|\partial()/\partial()|$ is the Jacobian determinant.



This higher-dimensional transformation method is used to get Normal deviates with

$$p(y)dy = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-y^2/2}dy.$$
 (10)

Consider two uniform deviates x_1 and x_2 and their transformations

$$y_1 = \sqrt{-2\ln(x_1)}\cos(2\pi x_2)$$

 $y_2 = \sqrt{-2\ln(x_1)}\sin(2\pi x_2)$ (11)



In other words,

$$x_{1} = \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(y_{1}^{2} + y_{2}^{2})\right]$$

$$x_{2} = \frac{1}{2\pi}\arctan\frac{y_{1}}{y_{2}}$$
(12)

Now the Jacobian determinant is given by

$$\frac{\partial(x_1, x_2)}{\partial(y_1, y_2)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_2} \\ \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_2} \end{vmatrix}$$
(13)



So in our case we get

$$\frac{\partial(x_1, x_2)}{\partial(y_1, y_2)} = -\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-y_1^2/2}dy\right]\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-y_2^2/2}dy\right]$$
(14)

Which means that the joint PDF of y_1 and y_2 is just

$$p(y_1, y_2)dy_1dy_2 = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-y_1^2/2}dy\right] \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-y_2^2/2}dy\right] dy_1dy_2 \quad (15)$$

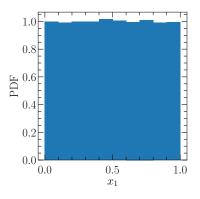
So y_1 and y_2 are independent and have Normal distributions.

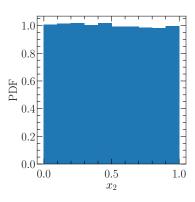
(This special case of the higher-dimensional transformation method is useful because calculating F^{-1} for the Gaussian is hard. This method is called the Box-Muller method.)

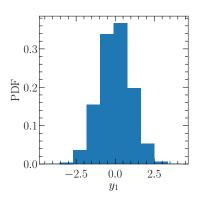


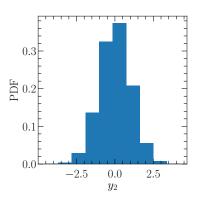
I can code this up as

```
x1 = np.random.rand(100000)
x2 = np.random.rand(100000)
y1 = np.sqrt(-2*np.log(x1)) * np.cos(2*np.pi*x2)
y2 = np.sqrt(-2*np.log(x1)) * np.sin(2*np.pi*x2)
```











Another method of obtaining non-uniform deviates is the Rejection method.

Simplest incarnation of this method is the biased coin.

Suppose you want to model a coin for which the probability of getting heads is 0.2.

This is like sampling two random integers 0 and 1 but with probability 0.8 and 0.2, respectively.



We can get such non-uniformly distributed numbers by generating a uniform random number between 0 and 1 and calling it heads only if the number is less than 0.2.

For example, something like

```
if np.random.rand() < 0.2:
    print('Heads')
else:
    print('Tails')</pre>
```

We can generalise this for more powerful cases.

Suppose we want random numbers fro a distribution p(x).

We can draw a graph of p(x), that is, plot y = p(x) versus x.

Now if we sample random numbers in 2 dimensions with uniform probability under the area of the curve then the x value of the points will have the distribution p(x).



The advantage of this method is that it does not require the inverse cumulative distribution function of p(x).

Now consider a function f(x) for which we can use the transformation method and which is such that its graph lies everywhere above the graph of p(x).

Let us call this f(x) a comparison function.

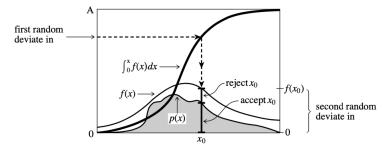
Now we choose random points on 2 dimensions that are uniform in the area under f(x).



When a random point lies below the original function p(x), we accept it; otherwise, we reject it.

Now the accepted points will be uniformly distributed under p(x) and their x values will have the desired PDF.

How to get the points uniformly distributed under f(x)? Just use the transformation method.



(Figure from "Numerical Recipes".)



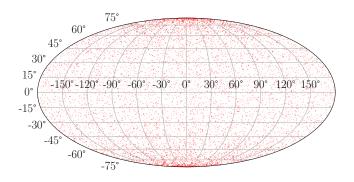
Suppose we want to get two-dimensional uniform random numbers on a unit-sphere.

We need uniform numbers (θ, ϕ) where θ goes from $-\pi/2$ to $\pi/2$ and ϕ goes from $-\pi$ to π .

We could naively do $\phi = 2\pi u - \pi$ and $\theta = \pi v - \pi/2$, where u and v and uniform deviates over (0,1).

But this would be wrong because the area element has changed!







What works is

$$\phi = 2\pi u - \pi,\tag{16}$$

and

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}(2v - 1) - \pi/2. \tag{17}$$



