

## Ch.8: Random numbers and simple games

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1 Use of random numbers in programs

2 Monte Carlo integration

3 Random walk

## Use of random numbers in programs



# Random numbers are used to simulate uncertain events

## Deterministic problems

- Some problems in science and technology are described by “exact” mathematics, leading to “precise” results
- Example: throwing a ball up in the air ( $y(t) = v_0 t - \frac{1}{2} g t^2$ )

## Stochastic problems

- Some problems appear physically uncertain
- Examples: rolling a die, molecular motion, games
- Use *random numbers* to mimic the uncertainty of the experiment.

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- Use *random numbers* to mimic the uncertainty of the experiment.

# Drawing random numbers

Python has a `random` module for drawing random numbers.  
`random.random()` draws random numbers in  $[0, 1)$ :

```
>>> import random
>>> random.random()
0.81550546885338104
>>> random.random()
0.44913326809029852
>>> random.random()
0.88320653116367454
```

## Notice

The sequence of random numbers is produced by a deterministic algorithm - the numbers just appear random.

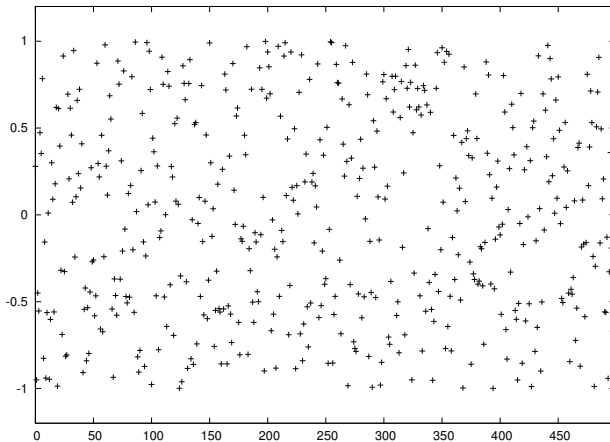
# Distribution of random numbers

- `random.random()` generates random numbers that are *uniformly distributed* in the interval  $[0, 1)$
- `random.uniform(a, b)` generates random numbers uniformly distributed in  $[a, b)$
- “Uniformly distributed” means that if we generate a large set of numbers, no part of  $[a, b)$  gets more numbers than others



# Distribution of random numbers visualized

```
N = 500 # no of samples
x = range(N)
y = [random.uniform(-1,1) for i in x]
from scitools.std import plot
plot(x, y, '+', axis=[0,N-1,-1.2,1.2])
```



# Vectorized drawing of random numbers

- `random.random()` generates one number at a time
- `numpy` has a `random` module that efficiently generates a (large) number of random numbers at a time

```
from numpy import random
r = random.random()           # one no between 0 and 1
r = random.random(size=10000) # array with 10000 numbers
r = random.uniform(-1, 10)    # one no between -1 and 10
r = random.uniform(-1, 10, size=10000) # array
```

- Vectorized drawing is important for speeding up programs!
- Possible problem: two `random` modules, one Python "built-in" and one in `numpy` (`np`)
- Convention: use `random` (Python) and `np.random`

```
random.uniform(-1, 1)           # scalar number
import numpy as np
np.random.uniform(-1, 1, 100000) # vectorized
```

# Drawing integers

- Quite often we want to draw an integer from  $[a, b]$  and not a real number
- Python's `random` module and `numpy.random` have functions for drawing uniformly distributed integers:

```
import random  
r = random.randint(a, b)  # a, a+1, ..., b
```

```
import numpy as np  
r = np.random.randint(a, b+1, N)      # b+1 is not included  
r = np.random.random_integers(a, b, N) # b is included
```

# Example: Rolling a die

## Problem

- Any no of eyes, 1-6, is equally probable when you roll a die
- What is the chance of getting a 6?

## Solution by Monte Carlo simulation:

Rolling a die is the same as drawing integers in  $[1, 6]$ .

```
import random
N = 10000
eyes = [random.randint(1, 6) for i in range(N)]
M = 0 # counter for successes: how many times we get 6 eyes
for outcome in eyes:
    if outcome == 6:
        M += 1
print 'Got six %d times out of %d' % (M, N)
print 'Probability:', float(M)/N
```

Probability:  $M/N$  (exact:  $1/6$ )

## Example: Rolling a die; vectorized version

```
import sys, numpy as np
N = int(sys.argv[1])
eyes = np.random.randint(1, 7, N)
success = eyes == 6          # True/False array
six = np.sum(success)        # treats True as 1, False as 0
print 'Got six %d times out of %d' % (six, N)
print 'Probability:', float(six)/N
```

### Important!

Use `sum` from `numpy` and not Python's built-in `sum` function! (The latter is slow, often making a vectorized version slower than the scalar version.)

# Debugging programs with random numbers requires fixing the seed of the random sequence

- Debugging programs with random numbers is difficult because the numbers produced vary each time we run the program
- For debugging it is important that a new run reproduces the sequence of random numbers in the last run
- This is possible by fixing the *seed* of the random module:  
`random.seed(121)` (int argument)

```
>>> import random
>>> random.seed(2)
>>> ['%.2f' % random.random() for i in range(7)]
['0.96', '0.95', '0.06', '0.08', '0.84', '0.74', '0.67']
>>> ['%.2f' % random.random() for i in range(7)]
['0.31', '0.61', '0.61', '0.58', '0.16', '0.43', '0.39']

>>> random.seed(2)      # repeat the random sequence
>>> ['%.2f' % random.random() for i in range(7)]
['0.96', '0.95', '0.06', '0.08', '0.84', '0.74', '0.67']
```

By default, the seed is based on the current time

# Drawing random elements from a list

There are different methods for picking an element from a list at random, but the main method applies `choice(list)`:

```
>>> awards = ['car', 'computer', 'ball', 'pen']
>>> import random
>>> random.choice(awards)
'car'
```

Alternatively, we can compute a random index:

```
>>> index = random.randint(0, len(awards)-1)
>>> awards[index]
'pen'
```

We can also shuffle the list randomly, and then pick any element:

```
>>> random.shuffle(awards)
>>> awards[0]
'computer'
```

# Example: Drawing cards from a deck; make deck and draw

## Make a deck of cards:

```
# A: ace, J: jack, Q: queen, K: king
# C: clubs, D: diamonds, H: hearts, S: spades

def make_deck():
    ranks = ['A', '2', '3', '4', '5', '6', '7',
             '8', '9', '10', 'J', 'Q', 'K']
    suits = ['C', 'D', 'H', 'S']
    deck = []
    for s in suits:
        for r in ranks:
            deck.append(s + r)
    random.shuffle(deck)
    return deck

deck = make_deck()
```

## Draw a card at random:

```
deck = make_deck()
card = deck[0]
del deck[0]

card = deck.pop(0)  # return and remove element with index 0
```



# Example: Drawing cards from a deck; draw a hand of cards

Draw a hand of  $n$  cards:

```
def deal_hand(n, deck):  
    hand = [deck[i] for i in range(n)]  
    del deck[:n]  
    return hand, deck
```

Note:

- `deck` is returned since the function changes the list
- `deck` is changed in-place so the change affects the `deck` object in the calling code anyway, but returning changed arguments is a Python convention and good habit

# Example: Drawing cards from a deck; deal

## Deal hands for a set of players:

```
def deal(cards_per_hand, no_of_players):  
    deck = make_deck()  
    hands = []  
    for i in range(no_of_players):  
        hand, deck = deal_hand(cards_per_hand, deck)  
        hands.append(hand)  
    return hands  
  
players = deal(5, 4)  
import pprint; pprint.pprint(players)
```

## Resulting output:

```
[['D4', 'CQ', 'H10', 'DK', 'CK'],  
 ['D7', 'D6', 'SJ', 'S4', 'C5'],  
 ['C3', 'DQ', 'S3', 'C9', 'DJ'],  
 ['H6', 'H9', 'C6', 'D5', 'S6']]
```

## Example: Drawing cards from a deck; analyze results (1)

Analyze the no of pairs or n-of-a-kind in a hand:

```
def same_rank(hand, n_of_a_kind):
    ranks = [card[1:] for card in hand]
    counter = 0
    already_counted = []
    for rank in ranks:
        if rank not in already_counted and \
            ranks.count(rank) == n_of_a_kind:
            counter += 1
            already_counted.append(rank)
    return counter
```

## Example: Drawing cards from a deck; analyze results (2)

Analyze the no of combinations of the same suit:

```
def same_suit(hand):  
    suits = [card[0] for card in hand]  
    counter = {}    # counter[suit] = how many cards of suit  
    for suit in suits:  
        # attention only to count > 1:  
        count = suits.count(suit)  
        if count > 1:  
            counter[suit] = count  
    return counter
```

## Example: Drawing cards from a deck; analyze results (3)

Analysis of how many cards we have of the same suit or the same rank, with some nicely formatted printout (see the book):

```
The hand D4, CQ, H10, DK, CK
  has 1 pairs, 0 3-of-a-kind and
  2+2 cards of the same suit.
The hand D7, D6, SJ, S4, C5
  has 0 pairs, 0 3-of-a-kind and
  2+2 cards of the same suit.
The hand C3, DQ, S3, C9, DJ
  has 1 pairs, 0 3-of-a-kind and
  2+2 cards of the same suit.
The hand H6, H9, C6, D5, S6
  has 0 pairs, 1 3-of-a-kind and
  2 cards of the same suit.
```

# Class implementation of a deck; class Deck

## Class version

We can wrap the previous functions in a class:

- Attribute: the deck
- Methods for shuffling, dealing, putting a card back

## Code:

```
class Deck:
    def __init__(self, shuffle=True):
        ranks = ['A', '2', '3', '4', '5', '6', '7',
                 '8', '9', '10', 'J', 'Q', 'K']
        suits = ['C', 'D', 'H', 'S']
        self.deck = [s+r for s in suits for r in ranks]
        random.shuffle(self.deck)

    def hand(self, n=1):
        """Deal n cards. Return hand as list."""
        hand = [self.deck[i] for i in range(n)]
        del self.deck[:n]

        # alternative:
        # hand = [self.pop(0) for i in range(n)]
        return hand
```

# Class implementation of a deck; alternative

```
class Card:
    def __init__(self, suit, rank):
        self.card = suit + str(rank)

class Hand:
    def __init__(self, list_of_cards):
        self.hand = list_of_cards

class Deck:
    def __init__(self, shuffle=True):
        ranks = ['A', '2', '3', '4', '5', '6', '7',
                  '8', '9', '10', 'J', 'Q', 'K']
        suits = ['C', 'D', 'H', 'S']
        self.deck = [Card(s,r) for s in suits for r in ranks]
        random.shuffle(self.deck)

    def deal(self, n=1):
        hand = Hand([self.deck[i] for i in range(n)])
        del self.deck[:n]
        return hand

    def putback(self, card):
        self.deck.append(card)
```

# Class implementation of a deck; why?

## Warning:

To print a Deck instance, Card and Hand must have `__repr__` methods that return a “pretty print” string (see the book), because `print` on list object applies `__repr__` to print each element.

## Is the class version better than the function version?

Yes! The function version has functions updating a global variable `deck`, as in

```
hand, deck = deal_hand(5, deck)
```

This is often considered bad programming. In the class version we avoid a global variable - the deck is stored and updated inside the class. Errors are less likely to sneak in in the class version.



# Probabilities can be computed by Monte Carlo simulation

What is the probability that a certain event  $A$  happens?

Simulate  $N$  events and count how many times  $M$  the event  $A$  happens. The probability of the event  $A$  is then  $M/N$  (as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ ).

Example:

You throw two dice, one black and one green. What is the probability that the number of eyes on the black is larger than that on the green?

```
import random
import sys
N = int(sys.argv[1])      # no of experiments
M = 0                    # no of successful events
for i in range(N):
    black = random.randint(1, 6)  # throw black
    green = random.randint(1, 6)  # throw green
    if black > green:              # success?
        M += 1
p = float(M)/N
print 'probability:', p
```

## A vectorized version can speed up the simulations

```
import sys
N = int(sys.argv[1])      # no of experiments

import numpy as np
r = np.random.random_integers(1, 6, (2, N))

black = r[0,:]            # eyes for all throws with black
green = r[1,:]            # eyes for all throws with green
success = black > green   # success[i]==True if black[i]>green[i]
M = np.sum(success)       # sum up all successes

p = float(M)/N
print 'probability:', p
```

Run 10+ times faster than scalar code

# The exact probability can be calculated in this (simple) example

All possible combinations of two dice:

```
combinations = [(black, green)
                  for black in range(1, 7)
                  for green in range(1, 7)]
```

How many of the (black, green) pairs that have the property  
black > green?

```
success = [black > green for black, green in combinations]
M = sum(success)
print 'probability:', float(M)/len(combinations)
```

# How accurate and fast is Monte Carlo simulation?

## Programs:

- `black_gt_green.py`: scalar version
- `black_gt_green_vec.py`: vectorized version
- `black_gt_green_exact.py`: exact version

```
Terminal> python black_gt_green_exact.py  
probability: 0.416666666667
```

```
Terminal> time python black_gt_green.py 10000  
probability: 0.4158
```

```
Terminal> time python black_gt_green.py 1000000  
probability: 0.416516  
real 0m1.725s
```

```
Terminal> time python black_gt_green.py 10000000  
probability: 0.4164688  
real 0m17.649s
```

```
Terminal> time python black_gt_green_vec.py 10000000  
probability: 0.4170253  
real 0m0.816s
```

# Gamification of this example

## Suggested game:

Suppose a game is constructed such that you have to pay 1 euro to throw the two dice. You win 2 euros if there are more eyes on the black than on the green die. Should you play this game?

## Code:

```
import sys
N = int(sys.argv[1])                # no of experiments

import random
start_capital = 10
money = start_capital
for i in range(N):
    money -= 1                      # pay for the game
    black = random.randint(1, 6)    # throw black
    green = random.randint(1, 6)    # throw brown
    if black > green:               # success?
        money += 2                 # get award

net_profit_total = money - start_capital
net_profit_per_game = net_profit_total/float(N)
print 'Net profit per game in the long run:', net_profit_per_game
```

# Should we play the game?

```
Terminaldd> python black_gt_green_game.py 1000000  
Net profit per game in the long run: -0.167804
```

No!

# Vectorization of the game for speeding up the code

```
import sys
N = int(sys.argv[1])      # no of experiments

import numpy as np
r = np.random.random_integers(1, 6, size=(2, N))

money = 10 - N            # capital after N throws
black = r[0,:]            # eyes for all throws with black
green = r[1,:]            # eyes for all throws with green
success = black > green   # success[i] is true if black[i]>green[i]
M = np.sum(success)       # sum up all successes
money += 2*M              # add all awards for winning
print 'Net profit per game in the long run:', (money-10)/float(N)
```

## Example: Drawing balls from a hat

We have 12 balls in a hat: four black, four red, and four blue

```
hat = []  
for color in 'black', 'red', 'blue':  
    for i in range(4):  
        hat.append(color)
```

Choose two balls at random:

```
import random  
index = random.randint(0, len(hat)-1)  # random index  
ball1 = hat[index]; del hat[index]  
index = random.randint(0, len(hat)-1)  # random index  
ball2 = hat[index]; del hat[index]  
  
# or:  
random.shuffle(hat)  # random sequence of balls  
ball1 = hat.pop()  
ball2 = hat.pop()
```



# What is the probability of getting two black balls or more?

```
def new_hat(): # make a new hat with 12 balls
    return [color for color in 'black', 'red', 'blue'
            for i in range(4)]

def draw_ball(hat):
    index = random.randint(0, len(hat)-1)
    color = hat[index]; del hat[index]
    return color, hat # (return hat since it is modified)

# run experiments:
n = input('How many balls are to be drawn? ')
N = input('How many experiments? ')
M = 0 # no of successes

for e in range(N):
    hat = new_hat()
    balls = [] # the n balls we draw
    for i in range(n):
        color, hat = draw_ball(hat)
        balls.append(color)
    if balls.count('black') >= 2: # two black balls or more?
        M += 1
print 'Probability:', float(M)/N
```

# Examples on computing the probabilities

```
Terminal> python balls_in_hat.py  
How many balls are to be drawn? 2  
How many experiments? 10000  
Probability: 0.0914
```

```
Terminal> python balls_in_hat.py  
How many balls are to be drawn? 8  
How many experiments? 10000  
Probability: 0.9346
```

```
Terminal> python balls_in_hat.py  
How many balls are to be drawn? 4  
How many experiments? 10000  
Probability: 0.4033
```

# Guess a number game

## Game:

Let the computer pick a number at random. You guess at the number, and the computer tells if the number is too high or too low.

## Program:

```
import random
number = random.randint(1, 100)    # the computer's secret number
attempts = 0    # no of attempts to guess the number
guess = 0    # user's guess at the number
while guess != number:
    guess = input('Guess a number: ')
    attempts += 1
    if guess == number:
        print 'Correct! You used', attempts, 'attempts!'
        break
    elif guess < number:
        print 'Go higher!'
    else:
        print 'Go lower!'
```

1 Use of random numbers in programs

2 Monte Carlo integration

3 Random walk

# Monte Carlo integration

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$



# There is a strong link between an integral and the average of the integrand

Recall a famous theorem from calculus: Let  $f_m$  be the mean value of  $f(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ . Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = f_m(b - a)$$

Idea: compute  $f_m$  by averaging  $N$  function values. To choose the  $N$  coordinates  $x_0, \dots, x_{N-1}$  we use random numbers in  $[a, b]$ . Then

$$f_m = N^{-1} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f(x_j)$$

This is called Monte Carlo integration.

# Implementation of Monte Carlo integration; scalar version

```
def MCint(f, a, b, n):  
    s = 0  
    for i in range(n):  
        x = random.uniform(a, b)  
        s += f(x)  
    I = (float(b-a)/n)*s  
    return I
```

# Implementation of Monte Carlo integration; vectorized version

```
def MCint_vec(f, a, b, n):  
    x = np.random.uniform(a, b, n)  
    s = np.sum(f(x))  
    I = (float(b-a)/n)*s  
    return I
```

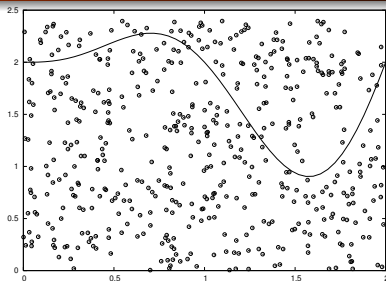
## Remark:

Monte Carlo integration is slow for  $\int f(x)dx$  (slower than the Trapezoidal rule, e.g.), but very efficient for integrating functions of many variables

$$\int f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) dx_1 dx_2 \cdots dx_n$$

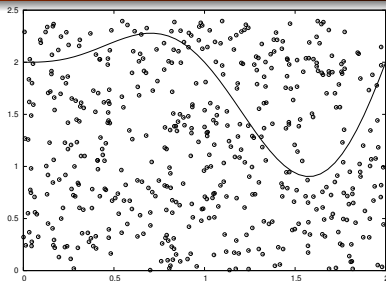


# Dart-inspired Monte Carlo integration



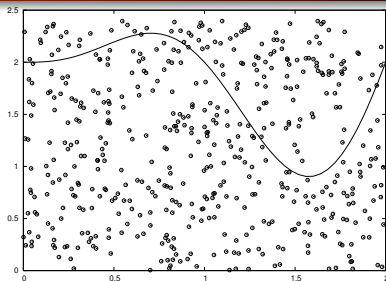
- Choose a box  $B = [x_L, x_H] \times [y_L, y_H]$  with some geometric object  $G$  inside, what is the area of  $G$ ?
- Method: draw  $N$  points at random inside  $B$ , count how many,  $M$ , that fall within  $G$ ,  $G$ 's area is then  $M/N \times \text{area}(B)$
- Special case:  $G$  is the geometry between  $y = f(x)$  and the  $x$  axis for  $x \in [a, b]$ , i.e., the area of  $G$  is  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ , and our method gives  $\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \frac{M}{N}m(b-a)$  if  $B$  is the box  $[a, b] \times [0, m]$

# Dart-inspired Monte Carlo integration



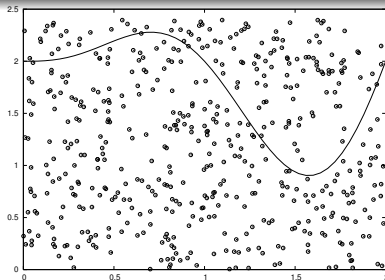
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# The code for the dart-inspired Monte Carlo integration

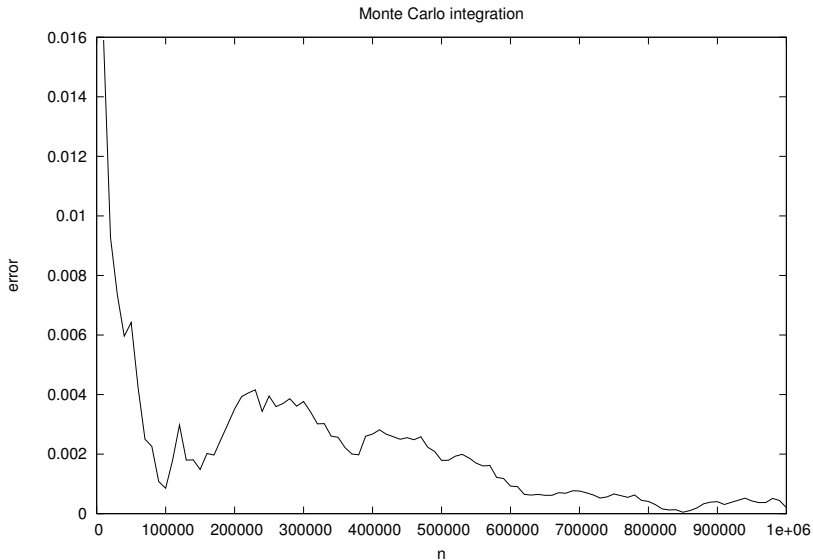
## Scalar code:

```
def MCint_area(f, a, b, n, fmax):  
    below = 0 # counter for no of points below the curve  
    for i in range(n):  
        x = random.uniform(a, b)  
        y = random.uniform(0, fmax)  
        if y <= f(x):  
            below += 1  
    area = below/float(n)*(b-a)*fmax  
    return area
```

## Vectorized code:

```
from numpy import *  
  
def MCint_area_vec(f, a, b, n, fmax):  
    x = np.random.uniform(a, b, n)  
    y = np.random.uniform(0, fmax, n)  
    below = y[y < f(x)].size  
    area = below/float(n)*(b-a)*fmax  
    return area
```

# The development of the error in Monte Carlo integration



1 Use of random numbers in programs

2 Monte Carlo integration

3 Random walk

# Random walk





# Random walk in one space dimension

## Basics of random walk in 1D:

- One particle moves to the left and right with equal probability
- $n$  particles start at  $x = 0$  at time  $t = 0$  - how do the particles get distributed over time?

## Applications:

- molecular motion
- heat transport
- quantum mechanics
- polymer chains
- population genetics
- brain research
- hazard games
- pricing of financial instruments

# Program for 1D random walk

```
from scitools.std import plot
import random

np = 4                                # no of particles
ns = 100                              # no of steps
positions = zeros(np)                 # all particles start at x=0
HEAD = 1; TAIL = 2                     # constants
xmax = sqrt(ns); xmin = -xmax         # extent of plot axis

for step in range(ns):
    for p in range(np):
        coin = random.randint(1,2)    # flip coin
        if coin == HEAD:
            positions[p] += 1          # step to the right
        elif coin == TAIL:
            positions[p] -= 1          # step to the left
    plot(positions, y, 'ko3',
         axis=[xmin, xmax, -0.2, 0.2])
    time.sleep(0.2)                    # pause between moves
```

# Random walk as a difference equation

Let  $x_n$  be the position of one particle at time  $n$ . Updating rule:

$$x_n = x_{n-1} + s$$

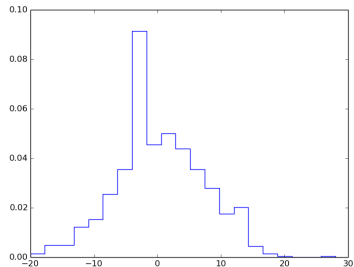
where  $s = 1$  or  $s = -1$ , both with probability  $1/2$ .

# Computing statistics of the random walk

Scientists are not interested in just looking at movies of random walks - they are interested in statistics (mean position, “width” of the cluster of particles, how particles are distributed)

```
mean_pos = mean(positions)
stdev_pos = std(positions)    # "width" of particle cluster

# shape of particle cluster:
from scitools.std import compute_histogram
pos, freq = compute_histogram(positions, nbins=int(xmax),
                              piecewise_constant=True)
plot(pos, freq, 'b-')
```



# Vectorized implementation of 1D random walk

First we draw all moves at all times:

```
moves = numpy.random.random_integers(1, 2, size=np*ns)
moves = 2*moves - 3  # -1, 1 instead of 1, 2
moves.shape = (ns, np)
```

Evolution through time:

```
positions = numpy.zeros(np)
for step in range(ns):
    positions += moves[step, :]

    # can do some statistics:
    print numpy.mean(positions), numpy.std(positions)
```

## Now to more exciting stuff: 2D random walk

Let each particle move north, south, west, or east - each with probability  $1/4$

```
def random_walk_2D(np, ns, plot_step):
    xpositions = numpy.zeros(np)
    ypositions = numpy.zeros(np)
    NORTH = 1; SOUTH = 2; WEST = 3; EAST = 4

    for step in range(ns):
        for i in range(len(xpositions)):
            direction = random.randint(1, 4)
            if direction == NORTH:
                ypositions[i] += 1
            elif direction == SOUTH:
                ypositions[i] -= 1
            elif direction == EAST:
                xpositions[i] += 1
            elif direction == WEST:
                xpositions[i] -= 1
    return xpositions, ypositions
```

# Vectorized implementation of 2D random walk

```
def random_walk_2D(np, ns, plot_step):  
    xpositions = zeros(np)  
    ypositions = zeros(np)  
    moves = numpy.random.random_integers(1, 4, size=ns*np)  
    moves.shape = (ns, np)  
    NORTH = 1;  SOUTH = 2;  WEST = 3;  EAST = 4  
  
    for step in range(ns):  
        this_move = moves[step,:]  
        ypositions += where(this_move == NORTH, 1, 0)  
        ypositions -= where(this_move == SOUTH, 1, 0)  
        xpositions += where(this_move == EAST, 1, 0)  
        xpositions -= where(this_move == WEST, 1, 0)  
    return xpositions, ypositions
```

# Visualization of 2D random walk

- We plot every `plot_step` step
- One plot on the screen + one hardcopy for movie file
- Extent of axis: it can be shown that after  $n_s$  steps, the typical width of the cluster of particles (standard deviation) is of order  $\sqrt{n_s}$ , so we can set min/max axis extent as, e.g.,

```
xyymax = 3*sqrt(ns); xymin = -xyymax
```

Inside for loop over steps:

```
# just plot every plot_step steps:
if (step+1) % plot_step == 0:
    plot(xpositions, ypositions, 'ko',
         axis=[xymin, xyymax, xymin, xyymax],
         title='%d particles after %d steps' % \
              (np, step+1),
         savefig='tmp_%03d.png' % (step+1))
```



# Class implementation of 2D random walk

- Can classes be used to implement a random walk?
- Yes, it sounds natural with class `Particle`, holding the position of a particle as attributes and with a method `move` for moving the particle one step
- Class `Particles` holds a list of `Particle` instances and has a method `move` for moving all particles one step and a method `moves` for moving all particles through all steps
- Additional methods in class `Particles` can plot and compute statistics
- Downside: with class `Particle` the code is scalar - a vectorized version must use arrays inside class `Particles` instead of a list of `Particle` instances
- The implementation is an exercise

# Summary of drawing random numbers (scalar code)

Draw a uniformly distributed random number in  $[0, 1)$ :

```
import random  
r = random.random()
```

Draw a uniformly distributed random number in  $[a, b)$ :

```
r = random.uniform(a, b)
```

Draw a uniformly distributed random integer in  $[a, b]$ :

```
i = random.randint(a, b)
```

# Summary of drawing random numbers (vectorized code)

Draw  $n$  uniformly distributed random numbers in  $[0, 1)$ :

```
import numpy as np  
r = np.random.random(n)
```

Draw  $n$  uniformly distributed random numbers in  $[a, b)$ :

```
r = np.random.uniform(a, b, n)
```

Draw  $n$  uniformly distributed random integers in  $[a, b]$ :

```
i = np.random.randint(a, b+1, n)  
i = np.random.random_integers(a, b, n)
```

# Summary of probability computations

- Probability: perform  $N$  experiments, count  $M$  successes, then success has probability  $M/N$  ( $N$  must be large)
- Monte Carlo simulation: let a program do  $N$  experiments and count  $M$  (simple method for probability problems)

## Example: investment with random interest rate

Recall difference equation for the development of an investment  $x_0$  with annual interest rate  $p$ :

$$x_n = x_{n-1} + \frac{p}{100} x_{n-1}, \quad \text{given } x_0$$

But:

- In reality,  $p$  is uncertain in the future
- Let us model this uncertainty by letting  $p$  be random

Assume the interest is added every month:

$$x_n = x_{n-1} + \frac{p}{100 \cdot 12} x_{n-1}$$

where  $n$  counts months

# The model for changing the interest rate

$p$  changes from one month to the next by  $\gamma$ :

$$p_n = p_{n-1} + \gamma$$

where  $\gamma$  is random

- With probability  $1/M$ ,  $\gamma \neq 0$   
(i.e., the annual interest rate changes on average every  $M$  months)
- If  $\gamma \neq 0$ ,  $\gamma = \pm m$ , each with probability  $1/2$
- It does not make sense to have  $p_n < 1$  or  $p_n > 15$

# The complete mathematical model

$$x_n = x_{n-1} + \frac{p_{n-1}}{12 \cdot 100} x_{n-1}, \quad i = 1, \dots, N$$

$$r_1 = \text{random number in } 1, \dots, M$$

$$r_2 = \text{random number in } 1, 2$$

$$\gamma = \begin{cases} m, & \text{if } r_1 = 1 \text{ and } r_2 = 1, \\ -m, & \text{if } r_1 = 1 \text{ and } r_2 = 2, \\ 0, & \text{if } r_1 \neq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$p_n = p_{n-1} + \begin{cases} \gamma, & \text{if } p_n + \gamma \in [1, 15], \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

A particular realization  $x_n, p_n, n = 0, 1, \dots, N$ , is called a *path* (through time) or a realization. We are interested in the statistics of many paths.

Note: this is almost a random walk for the interest rate

Remark:

The development of  $p$  is like a random walk, but the "particle" moves at each time level with probability  $1/M$  (not 1 - always - as in a normal random walk).



# Simulating the investment development; one path

```
def simulate_one_path(N, x0, p0, M, m):
    x = zeros(N+1)
    p = zeros(N+1)
    index_set = range(0, N+1)

    x[0] = x0
    p[0] = p0

    for n in index_set[1:]:
        x[n] = x[n-1] + p[n-1]/(100.0*12)*x[n-1]

        # update interest rate p:
        r = random.randint(1, M)
        if r == 1:
            # adjust gamma:
            r = random.randint(1, 2)
            gamma = m if r == 1 else -m
        else:
            gamma = 0
        pn = p[n-1] + gamma
        p[n] = pn if 1 <= pn <= 15 else p[n-1]
    return x, p
```

# Simulating the investment development; $N$ paths

Compute  $N$  paths (investment developments  $x_n$ ) and their mean path (mean development)

```
def simulate_n_paths(n, N, L, p0, M, m):  
    xm = zeros(N+1)  
    pm = zeros(N+1)  
    for i in range(n):  
        x, p = simulate_one_path(N, L, p0, M, m)  
        # accumulate paths:  
        xm += x  
        pm += p  
    # compute average:  
    xm /= float(n)  
    pm /= float(n)  
    return xm, pm
```

Can also compute the standard deviation path (“width” of the  $N$  paths), see the book for details

Here is a list of variables that constitute the input:

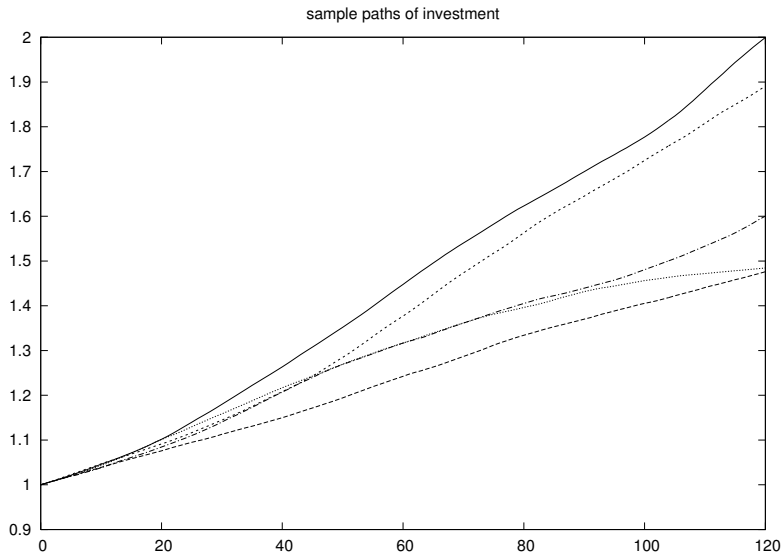
```
x0 = 1           # initial investment
p0 = 5           # initial interest rate
N = 10*12        # number of months
M = 3            # p changes (on average) every M months
n = 1000         # number of simulations
m = 0.5          # adjustment of p
```

We may add some graphics in the program:

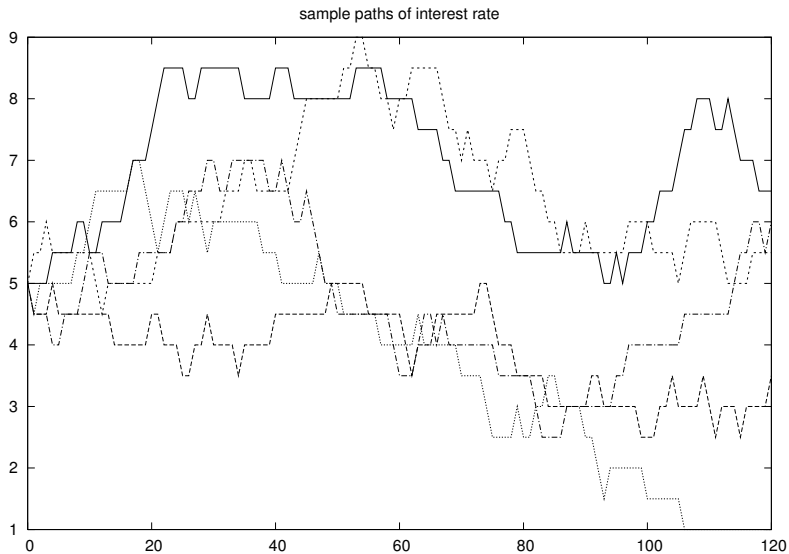
- plot some realizations of  $x_n$  and  $p_n$
- plot the mean  $x_n$  with plus/minus one standard deviation
- plot the mean  $p_n$  with plus/minus one standard deviation

See the book for graphics details (good example on updating several different plots simultaneously in a simulation)

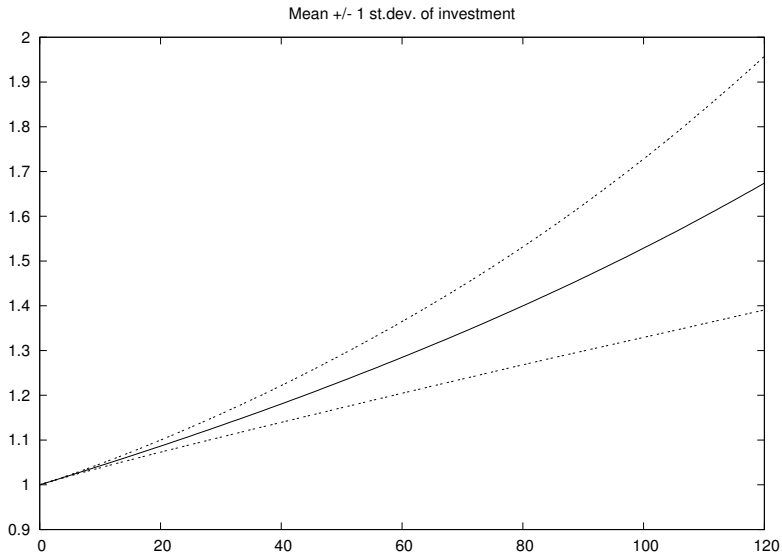
# Some realizations of the investment



# Some realizations of the interest rate



# The mean and uncertainty of the investment over time



# The mean and uncertainty of the interest rate over time

