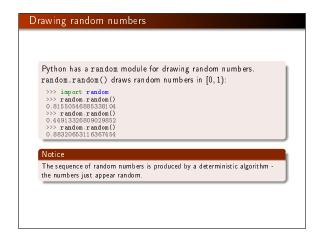
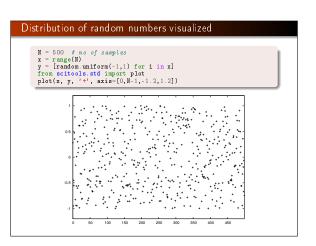


# Random numbers are used to simulate uncertain events Deterministic problems Some problems in science and technology are described by "exact" mathematics, leading to "precise" results Example: throwing a ball up in the air $(y(t) = v_0 t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2)$ Stochastic problems Some problems appear physically uncertain Examples: rolling a die, molecular motion, games Use random numbers to mimic the uncertainty of the experiment.



```
    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
```



### 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 = rand om .rand om () # one no between 0 and 1 r = random.random(size=10000) # array with 10000 numbers r = random.uniform(-1, 10) # one no between r = random.uniform(-1, 10, size=10000) # array # one no between -1 and 10 • 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

```
• 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
```

```
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:
        N += 1
    print 'Got six '/d times out of '//d' '/ (M, N)
    print 'Probability:', float(N)/N

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

```
import sys, numpy as np
N = int(sys.argv[1])
eyes = np.random.randint(1, 7, N)
success = eyes = 6
six = np.sum(success)  # treats True as 1, False as 0
print 'Got six 'Mi t times out of 'M2' '% (six, N)
print 'Probability:', float(N)/N

Impoartant!
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(22)
>>> ['N.21' N. random.random() for i in range(7)]
['0.96', '0.95', '0.06', '0.08', '0.43', '0.43', '0.67']
>>> ['N.21' N. 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
>>> ['N.21' N. random.random() for i in range(7)]
['0.96', '0.95', '0.06', '0.08', '0.43', '0.74', '0.67']

By default, the seed is based on the current time
```

```
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'
```

### 

# 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

```
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(players)

Resulting output:

[['D4', 'CQ', 'H1O', 'DK', 'CK'],
    ['D7', 'D6', 'S3', 'C9', 'D5'],
    ['23', 'DQ', 'S3', 'C9', 'D5'],
    ['33', 'CQ', '33', 'C9', 'D5'],
    ['46', 'H9', 'C6', 'D5', 'S6']]
```

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

def same_rank(hand, n_of_a_kind):
    ranks = [card[i:] 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
```

```
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, SJ, C9, DJ
has 1 pairs, 0 3-of-a-kind and
2+2 cards of the same suit.
The hand C3, DQ, SJ, 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.
```

## 

```
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 → ∞).

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

```
import sys
N = int(sys.argv[i])  # 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[i,:]  # eyes for all throws with green
success = black > green  # success(i]==True if black[i]>green[i]
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)
```

# 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: 0.416516 Terminal> time python black\_gt\_green.py 1000000 probability: 0.416516 Terminal> time python black\_gt\_green.py 10000000 probability: 0.416516 Terminal> time python black\_gt\_green.py 10000000 probability: 0.416688 Terminal> time python black\_gt\_green.py 10000000 probability: 0.4170253 Terminal> time python black\_gt\_green\_vec.py 10000000 probability: 0.4170253 Terminal> time python black\_gt\_green\_vec.py 10000000 probability: 0.4170253 Terminal> time python black\_gt\_green\_vec.py 100000000 probability: 0.4170253 Terminal> time python black\_gt\_green\_vec.py 100000000 probability: 0.4170253

```
Terminaldd> python black_gt_green_game.py 1000000
Net profit per game in the long run: -0.167804
No!
```

```
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(0)
ball2 = hat.pop(0)
```

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

```
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? ')
N = 0  # no of successes

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

# Examples on computing the probabilities Terminal> python balls\_in\_hat.py How many balls are to be drawn' 2

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 balls are to be drawn? 4
How many experiments? 10000
Probability: 0.4033

### Guess a number game

### Gam e:

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:

### 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  $x_0, \ldots, x_{N-1}$  we use random numbers in [a, b]. Then

$$f_m = N^{-1} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f(x_i)$$

This is called Monte Carlo integration.

### Implementation of Monte Carlo integration; scalar version

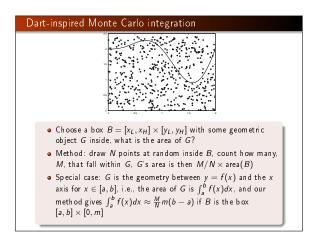
```
def MCint(f, a, b, n):
    s = 0
    for i in range(n):
        x = random.uniform(a, b)
        s += f(x)
    I = (float(b-a)/n)*s
    return I
```

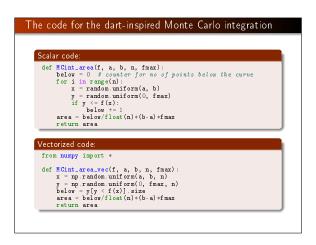
# Implementation of Monte Carlo integration; vectorized version

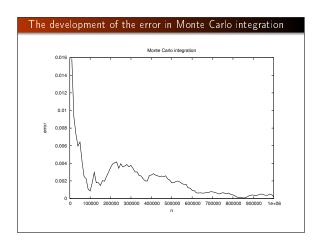
```
def MCint_vec(f, a, b, n):
    x = np.random.uniform(a, b, n)
    s = np.sum(f(x))
    I = (float(b-a)/n)*s
    return I
```

### 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  $\int f(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)dx_1dx_2\cdots dx_n$ 









```
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
```

### Random walk as a difference equation

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

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

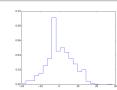
where s = 1 or s = -1, both with probability 1/2.

## 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
f shape of particle cluster:
from scitools.std import compute_histogram
pos, freq = compute_histogram(positions, nbins=int(xmax),
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
```

### 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 == EAST, 1, 0)
    roturn xpositions, ypositions
```

### Visualization of 2D random walk

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

### 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

- $\bullet$  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 xn with annual interest rate p:

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

```
 \begin{aligned} x_n &= x_{n-1} + \frac{p_{n-1}}{12 \cdot 100} x_{n-1}, & i &= 1, \dots, N \\ r_1 &= \mathsf{random\ number\ in\ } 1, \dots, M \\ r_2 &= \mathsf{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  $x_n, p_n, \ n=0,1,\ldots,N$ , 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  $\rho$  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</pre>
```

### Simulating the investment development; N paths

```
Compute N paths (investment developments x<sub>n</sub>) and their mean path (mean development)

def simulate_n_paths(n, N, L, p0, M, m):
    x = 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
```

### Input and graphics

```
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 N months

n = 1000  # number of simulations

n = 0.5  # adjustment of p
```

We may add some graphics in the program:

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

