

# Polynomial pseudo-random number generator via cyclic phase

A. Marchi, A. Liverani, A. Del Giudice \*

*Catholic University of Sacred Heart, Economics and Business Administration department, 7 Necchi St., 20123 Milan, Italy*

Received 12 December 2005; received in revised form 16 September 2008; accepted 12 May 2009

Available online 23 May 2009

## Abstract

Fast and reliable pseudo-random number generator (PRNG) is required for simulation and other applications in scientific computing. In this work, a polynomial PRNG algorithm, based on a linear feedback shift register (LFSR) is presented. LFSR generator of order  $k$  determines a  $2^k - 1$  cyclic sequence period when the associated polynomial is primitive. The main drawback of this generator is the cyclicity of the shifted binary sequence. A non-linear transformation is proposed, which eliminates the underlying cyclicity and maintains both the characteristics of the original generator and the feedback function. The modified generator assures a good *trade off* between fastness and reliability and passes both graphical and statistical tests.

© 2009 IMACS. Published by Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

**Keywords:** Monte carlo simulation; Random number; Pseudo-random number generator shift register

## 1. Introduction

Monte Carlo methods are of great importance in simulation, computational finance, numerical integration and many other fields of research. The statistical quality of PRNG is becoming even more important than that in the past because the actual simulations might require huge random number sequences. Small correlations and other deficiencies in PRNG could easily lead to spurious effect and invalidate the result of the computation [2].

Although applications require random numbers with various distributions (e.g. Poisson, normal, exponential), the algorithms used to generate these random numbers require a good uniform PRNG. A good PRNG must have long period and fast run, should not waste memory, be repeatable and portable (able to reproduce the same sequence in different software hardware environment), and allows efficient jumping ahead in order to obtain multiple streams and sub streams.

Given the computers work in binary arithmetic, a fast uniform PRNG must be defined by few operations on bit strings [7,8], such as shifts, rotations, exclusive-or's (XOR) and bit mask.

A Linear Feedback Shift Register (LFSR) is a uniform PRNG. The number of values that an LFSR cycles through before repeating is its period. LFSRs that are maximum period cycle through  $2^n - 1$  values before repeating, where  $n$  is the width of the register.

To obtain a maximum period LFSR, the choice of the bits used for the XOR mask is critical. The mask bits correspond to the terms of a primitive polynomial modulo 2. LFSR of order  $k$  determines a  $2^k - 1$  cyclic sequence period when

\* Corresponding author Tel.: +39 02 72342912; fax: +39 02 72342670.

E-mail addresses: [angelo.marchi@unicatt.it](mailto:angelo.marchi@unicatt.it) (A. Marchi), [antonio.liverani@unicatt.it](mailto:antonio.liverani@unicatt.it) (A. Liverani), [alfonso.delgiudice@unicatt.it](mailto:alfonso.delgiudice@unicatt.it) (A. Del Giudice).

the associated polynomial is primitive. The main drawback of this generator is the cyclicity of the shifted binary sequence. A non-linear transformation of the original characteristics is proposed, which eliminates the underlying cyclicity and maintains both the characteristics of the generator and the feedback function.

In this paper a LSFR is defined using a 96th degree primitive polynomial. Introducing rows and columns perturbations, different algorithms are created in assembly code. The computations of both the original and the perturbed algorithms allow to compare the trade off between cyclicity and speed of generators. Perturbed LSFRs eliminate cyclicity and require a time generation increase of 28%.

## 2. Mathematical framework

The following polynomials  $f(x)$ :

$$f(x) = f_0 + f_1x + f_2x^2 + \cdots + f_nx^n; \quad f_i \in \mathbb{GF}(p^n) \quad (1)$$

are assigned to a Galois field  $\mathbb{GF}(\circ)$ . If a generic algebra  $A(n)$  is defined in  $\mathbb{GF}(\circ)$  and modular arithmetic modulo  $p$  [12] is used, the algebraic field  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is the ring of quotients modulo the prime  $p$  (at least for the multiplication operator).

For example, addition of two polynomials in  $\mathbb{GF}(2)$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_3(x)$  modulo  $(x^3 + x + 1)$  is:

$$f_1(x) = x^3 + 1; \quad f_2(x) = x^2 + x \quad (2)$$

$$f(x) = \sum_i f_i(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x) = x + 1 \quad (3)$$

The polynomial in Eq. (3) lies into a  $\mathbb{GF}(2)$  [5]. The multiplication of two polynomials in  $\mathbb{GF}(2)$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_3(x)$  modulo  $(x^3 + x + 1)$  is:

$$f_1(x) = x^3 + 1; \quad f_2(x) = x^2 + x \quad (4)$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \prod_i f_i(x) \pmod{x^3 + x + 1} \\ &= f_1(x) \times f_2(x) \pmod{x^3 + x + 1} \\ &= x^3 \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

The polynomial  $(x^n - 1)$  can be factored into all  $(x^d - 1) \in \mathbb{Q}(x)$  polynomials, where  $\mathbb{Q}(x)$  is the field of quotient polynomials (irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}(x)$ ). The quotient of  $(x^n - 1)$  for all these factors  $d$  (with  $d < n$ ) is called the  $n$ -th cyclotomic polynomial  $\Phi_n$ .

If a number  $n$  is factored into primes  $p_1, \dots, p_d$ , from Euler's  $\Phi$  function Eq. (6) is obtained:

$$\phi(n) = n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_d}\right) \quad (6)$$

For the  $n$ -th cyclotomic polynomial, the notation is:

$$\Phi_n = \prod (x - \xi) \quad (7)$$

and the equation is:

$$x^n - 1 = \prod_{d|n} \Phi_d(x) \quad (8)$$

The  $n$ -th cyclotomic polynomial is obtained by the quotient of the polynomial  $x^n - 1$  divided by all the associated polynomials of degree  $d \in \mathbb{Q}(x)$  [10].

For example, the following polynomials are considered:

$$\Phi_1(x) = x - 1$$

$$\Phi_2(x) = x + 1 \quad (9)$$

$$\Phi_3(x) = x^2 + x + 1$$

The 6-th cyclotomic polynomial can be determined as follows:

$$\Phi_6(x) = \frac{x^6 - 1}{(x - 1)(x + 1)(x^2 + x + 1)} = x^2 - x + 1 \quad (10)$$

If the vector  $u' = (u_{n-1}, u_0, \dots, u_{n-2})$ , obtained by a cyclic shift of the elements, is a cyclic vector in  $C$  for each vector of  $n$  elements  $u = (u_0, \dots, u_{n-2}, u_{n-1}) \in C$ , then the code  $C$  is cyclic [9].

A cyclic code vector can be represented by a state polynomial  $s(x)$  and a generator polynomial  $g(x)$ :

$$u(x) = s(x)g(x) \quad (11)$$

If the generator polynomial  $g(x)$  is  $r < n$ , then a remainder from the division is obtained and the cycle is non-maximum.

The scope is to generate a pseudo-random number (PRN) sequence with maximum period for the generator polynomial used. This requires a primitive polynomial of degree  $n$  [17].

### 3. Linear feedback function

The feedback function in an LFSR has several names: XOR, odd parity, sum modulo 2 [14]. Whatever the name, the function is a feedback on the PRN.

The LFSR is based on the following linear recurrence:

$$x_n = a_1x_{n-1} + a_2x_{n-2} + \dots + a_kx_{n-k} \pmod{2} \quad (12)$$

where  $k > 1$  is the order of the recursion,  $a_k = 1$  and  $a_j \in \{0, 1\} \forall j$ .

We obtain a cyclic recursion with maximum cycle  $2^k - 1$  if the characteristic associated polynomial  $P(z) = -\sum_{i=0}^k a_i z^{k-i}$  (with  $a_0 = -1$ ) is primitive in  $\mathbb{GF}(2)$  [6]. Eq. (13) shows the feedback function which defines the new input for the generator [3,6]:

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \dots + c_{n-1}x^{n-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_i x^i \quad (13)$$

where  $f(x)$  is the feedback function and the coefficients  $c_i \in \mathbb{GF}(2) \forall i$  with  $c_n = 1$  by definition [16].

### 4. Columns perturbation

A shift register [1] is the shift of one or more positions of the elements of the vector  $\vec{a}$ , which is called register. We can have a left or right shift. The shifted elements fall off the end step by step.

In the present work the following conditions are considered: a one position (1 bit) left shift is allowed; the Linear Feedback function determines the new entry in the empty position.

Changing the form of the notation, Eq. (14) is obtained:

$$f(\vec{s}^k) = f(s_0^k, \dots, s_{n-1}^k) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_i s_i^k \quad (14)$$

where  $(s_0^k, \dots, s_{n-1}^k)$  is the initial state vector of length  $n$  at the  $k$ th step and  $c_i \in \mathbb{GF}(2) \forall i$ .

The initial value of the function (which is recursive in  $k$  steps) is the initial state. Parameter  $k$  identifies the next step of PRN generation code. Since  $\mathbb{GF}(2)$  arithmetic is adopted, the length of the initial state vector must be  $n$  to

obtain a maximum period generator. Since the initial state  $\vec{s} = (0, \dots, 0)$  cannot be used, the maximum period  $2^n - 1$  is obtained from a primitive polynomial of degree  $n$  associated to an initial state vector of length  $n$  [15,18].

For a primitive polynomial in  $\mathbb{GF}(2)$ , the associated coefficients  $c_i$  of the function (2) are obtained; the polynomial is considered primitive normal [19].

For example, a primitive polynomial of 3rd degree ( $x^3 + x^2 + 1$ ) is:

$$\begin{aligned} (x^3 + x^2 + 1) &= (c_2x^3 + c_1x^2 + c_0x + 1) \\ &= (1 \cdot x^3 + 1 \cdot x^2 + 0 \cdot x + 1) \\ \Leftrightarrow \vec{c} &= [c_2, c_1, c_0] \\ &= [1, 1, 0] \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

Once the feedback function is determined, the shift register can be defined. The initial state  $\vec{s}^0$  is both the generator's seed and the initial value (the register or vector).

For each step  $k$  starting from an initial vector  $(1, 0, 1)$  with  $\vec{c} = [1, 1, 0]$ , the first number on the left will be dropped out, and, at the same time, the feedback function result will be entered on the last right empty position. The results from Eq. (14) are showed in the following matrix.

It is possible to see the cyclicity associated to the polynomial used to determine the PRN sequence. For  $\vec{c} = [1, 1, 0]$ :

$$\vec{s} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & f(\vec{s}^0) = 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & f(\vec{s}^1) = 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & f(\vec{s}^2) = 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & f(\vec{s}^3) = 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & f(\vec{s}^4) = 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & f(\vec{s}^5) = 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & f(\vec{s}^6) = 1 \end{bmatrix} ; \text{decimal vector associated} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ 7 \\ 6 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (16)$$

The columns are cyclical mutual shifts. For example, the second column is obtained by 3 positions shift from the first; the third is obtained by 1 position shift from the second. Fig. 1(a) represents the binary matrix associated to the PRNG.

Diagonal bands represent the one position shift columns; the vertical band up on the left points out the initial state; the vertical band down on the right points out the complementary of the initial state  $\mathbb{GF}(2)$ . For the generic primitive polynomial (normal) of degree  $n$  the vertical bands are of length  $n$ . Starting from the  $n$ -th position, the same shift is adopted for each polynomial function and each state. For example, a 4-th degree primitive polynomial ( $x^4 + x + 1$ ), the associated coefficients  $c_i$ ,  $[c_3, c_2, c_1, c_0] = [1, 0, 0, 1]$  and initial state:  $\vec{s} = (s_3, s_2, s_1, s_0) = (0, 0, 0, 1)$  are considered. Fig. 1 (b) represents the columns.

The examples displayed in Fig. 1 can be generalized. This band configuration can be obtained for all the polynomials of degree  $n$ . The columns have two main properties: each column is a shift of the preceding (and vice versa); the columns are linearly independent vectors [19].

The second property is very interesting: since the columns are linearly independent, it is possible to change their position in the matrix. If the columns are exchanged, the same numbers are produced in different positions. Exchanging columns implies that it is possible to obtain a perturbed sequence from the original sequence. Since the columns are independent, column permutations are adopted. All the possible matrix permutations define a perturbation on the original sequence. The associated permutations of an  $n$  element series are  $n!$ .

If the example of Fig. 1(a) is considered, all possible initial state are  $2^n - 1 = 7$ . Two series are obtained: the first starts from  $\vec{s}^0 = (1, 0, 1)$  and the second from  $\vec{s}^0 = (0, 1, 1)$ . The second series is a shift of the first. All possible permutations of the  $\vec{s}^0$  matrix columns are computed. The possible permutations are:  $[1, 2, 3]$ ;  $[1, 3, 2]$ ;  $[2, 1, 3]$ ;  $[2, 3, 1]$ ;  $[3, 1, 2]$ ;  $[3, 2, 1]$  (Figs. 2 and 3).

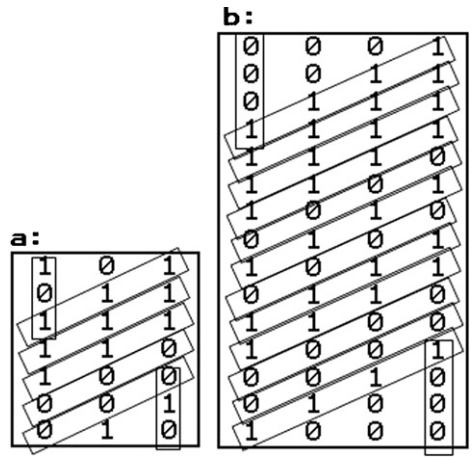


Fig. 1. Cyclical binary matrix for polynomials (a)  $x^3 + x^2 + 1$  and (b)  $x^4 + x + 1$ .

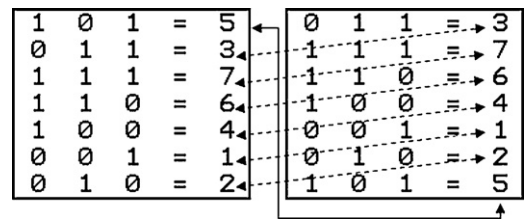


Fig. 2. Output associated to states  $s^0, s^{-1}$ .

From a monic (normal) primitive polynomial it is possible to obtain  $n!$  PRN perturbed series as results of simple permutations of the binary matrix. Considering a binary mode, LFSR is cyclic by construction. A permutation on the binary matrix columns cannot eliminate the cyclicity (see [Appendix A](#)).

Unfortunately residual cycles persist [4,11]; it is necessary to add another permutation tool on the binary matrix rows.

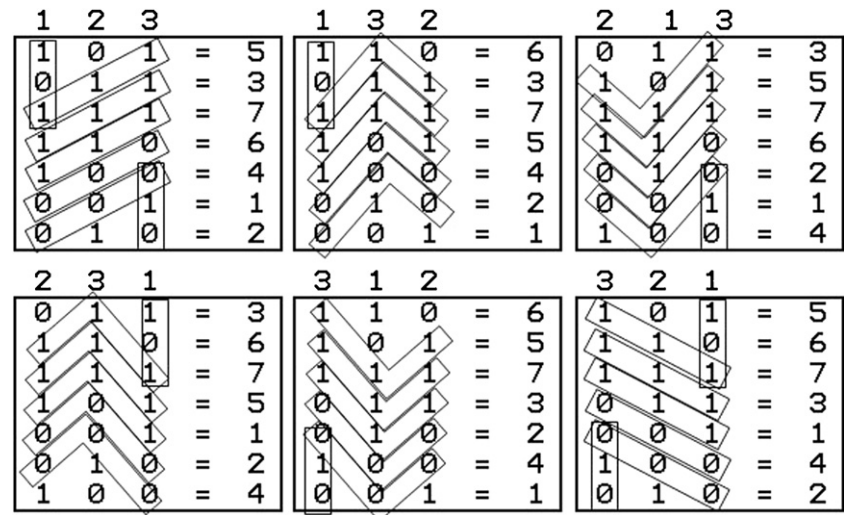


Fig. 3. Cyclical matrix referred to all permutations on  $s^0$ .

Table 1  
First hexadecimal digit in a 20 bit register.

Case <b>FF</b>	BIN	HEX
REGISTERCHARGED	[1111 1001 1101 0010 1010]	F 9 D 2 A
SHIFT LEFT1BIT	1111 0011 1010 0101 0101]	F 3 A 5 5
Case <b>FE</b>	BIN	HEX
REGISTERCHARGED	1111 0011 1101 0010 1010]	F 3 D 2 A
SHIFT LEFT1BIT	[1110 0111 1010 0101 0101]	E 7 A 5 5

## 5. Rows perturbation

The cycle on the binary series modifies the decimal and hexadecimal series too. Passing from binary to hexadecimal series an interesting property is noted. In a not permutated shift register each new number is obtained by shifting one bit left from the preceding binary string. Each hexadecimal digit is made up by 4 bits, yet each following number is only one bit shifted.

If all couples of the first digits from hexadecimal number series are considered, some of these couples cannot exist. The occurrence probability of an hexadecimal couple is  $256^{-1}$ .

For example, the consecutive couple **F0** (two hexadecimal digit) cannot exist (**F** := [1 1 1 1] and **0** := [0 0 0 0]). In fact, if the next number is obtained by one binary position shift of the preceding, starting from the number **F** := [1 1 1 1] the first hexadecimal digit of the next number has two possible states:

**F** := [1 1 1 1] if queued bit is 1

**E** := [1 1 1 0] if queued bit is 0

In this condition, the possible couples are **FF** or **FE**. For example in a 20 bit register<sup>1</sup> the first hexadecimal digit could be reported as in Table 1.

The row and column permutations together can solve this problem. The row permutation is obtained using **T'**, the transposed matrix of **T** in (17), a 64 cyclic distance matrix with distances length 8; the distances are computed with respect to the generator dimension. While **T** and **T'** identifies memory allocations order, **T'** is a closed cyclical perturbation on print locations.

$$\mathbf{T}_{(8 \times 8)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 & \dots & 15 & 16 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 49 & 50 & \dots & 55 & 56 \\ 57 & 58 & \dots & 63 & 64 \end{pmatrix} \quad (17)$$

Once the counter value reaches 64, the matrix is complete and all the numbers are cyclically distributed. The pseudo-random numbers are reported in independent closed cycles of length 64. This cyclic matrix is used in the generator presented in this paper.

Smaller cyclic matrices can be derived, for example a 16 dimension matrix with distances length 4.

Using **T'** the first generated number 1 is printed in the location number 1, while the second is printed in location number 9 and so on.

The cycle allows the binary shift to work for 8 digits and the cyclic print allows to outdistance the generated numbers so that each number is completely independent. No additional computing is required to the generated numbers.

<sup>1</sup> In this example the scope is to show the limits shifting 1 bit left in a register, independently of the new bit input in the queue of the register.

Table 2  
Register rotation (columns perturbation).

Register	Part of register	Rotation	Bits involved
1	DWORD	⌚	20
1	lower WORD	⌚	15
1	lower BYTE	⌚	4
2	DWORD	⌚	12
2	lower WORD	⌚	8
2	lower BYTE	⌚	3
3	DWORD	⌚	18
3	lower WORD	⌚	5
3	lower BYTE	⌚	7

Table 3  
Generation run time.

Generator	Numbers	Time (s)
Classic	35,000,000	1.054688
Perturbed	25,000,000	1.062500

This operation is executed in assembly code with minimum time consuming because of the direct allocation of the numbers in predefined positions.

## 6. The generators

Three dynamic libraries (in DLL format) are created in order to generate a Linear Feedback Shift Register using 686 assembly code on a Pentium 4 PC-Desktop. A 96th degree polynomial ( $x^{96} + x^{49} + x^{47} + x^2 + 1$ ) is used.

The polynomial is primitive and allows a  $2^{96} - 1$  generation period [13]. The generators are:

1. “LFSR\_96” *Classic generator*: one bit left shift generator.
2. “LFSR\_96\_C” *Columns perturbation generator*: the program executes a bitwise bit rotation inside the registers in order to perturb the generated binary strings columns at each generation. This is an extremely fast way, but it is possible to build different perturbation methods.
3. “LFSR\_96\_CR” *Rows and columns perturbation generator*: rows permutation is executed together with the columns permutation. The algorithm generates numbers at determined cyclic distances.

The row perturbations do not require computations but only a different print allocation. The generated number is transferred into DLL code; run time depends by the code.

Table 2 reports the register’s rotations applied to generators “LFSR\_96\_C” and “LFSR\_96\_CR”, where:  $\circlearrowleft$  := rotate left;  $\circlearrowright$  := rotate right.

Table 3 shows the pure generation timing summary.

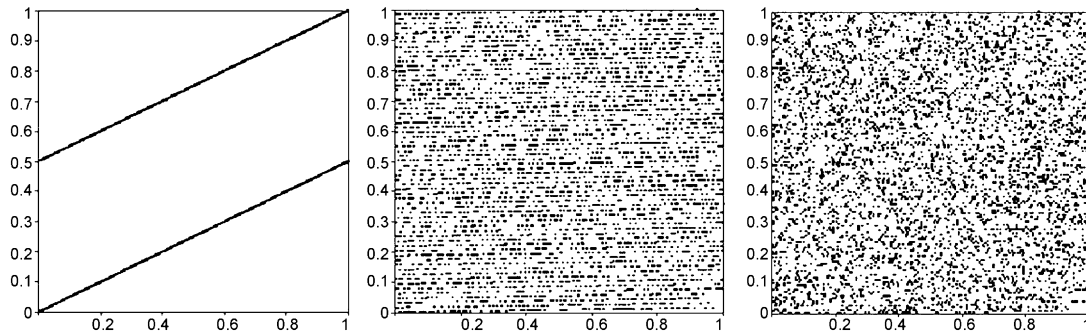
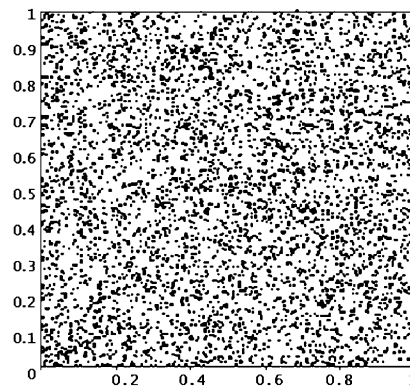
Classic generation use a classic LSFR without permutations while perturbed generation use a LSFR with rows and columns perturbation. The perturbed generator slows generation time (+28%). Time values reported in Table 3 are just the times for the pseudo-random number generation.

## 7. Graphical and statistical tests on generator “LFSR\_96\_CR”

We use 2D lattices to report on the output of generators.

In Fig. 4 the three lattice are made for distance length respectively of  $d = 1$ ;  $d = 6$ ;  $d = 7$ ; using the *Classical Generator* “LFSR\_96”. The plot shows uniform distribution only at seven distance length.

<sup>2</sup> Every routine associated to generators use three registers of 32 bits for computing every number of  $2^{96} - 1$  generation.

Fig. 4. “LFSR\_96” generation for  $d = 1$ ;  $d = 6$ ;  $d = 7$ .Fig. 5. “LFSR\_96\_CR” generation for  $1 \leq d \leq 7$ .Table 4  
Scores criteria of statistical tests.

Score	Legend	V
S	Pass test	$0.1 < V < 0.95$
A1	Warning	$0.05 \leq V \leq 0.1$
A2	Warning	$0.95 \leq V \leq 0.99$
F	Fail test	$V > 0.99 \wedge V < 0.05$

In Fig. 5 all the 2D lattice, for distances from  $d = 1$  to  $d = 7$  are the same, using *Rows and columns perturbation generator* “LFSR\_96\_CR”: we obtain soon uniform distribution on  $d = 1$ , which is maintained in forward distances  $d = 2, \dots, 7$ .

The “LFSR\_96\_CR” generator passed the most important statistical tests [5].

In Fig. 6 are reported the tests made on the decimal series obtained by the generator,<sup>3</sup> for different sample length; any box display the output of test respectively: serial, coupon collector, gap, frequency, Kolmogorov–Smirnov, run.

Any test return a specific output score in relation to the statistic  $V$  associated to the distribution; Table 4 shows the scores criteria.

Serial, collector, gap and frequency tests are made on sub-sequences obtained considering parts of the decimal digits composing the numbers: consecutive single digits, couples, triples. K–S and run test are made on the full float number by construction of the test. The generator seems to have a good behavior on short series ( $n \leq 10,000$ ) and long series ( $40,000 \leq n \leq 50,000$ ), failing in a very few times.

<sup>3</sup> The sequences  $s_i \in [0, 1]$ : generation output numbers are standardized (are considered 15 digit floating-point numbers).



GENERATOR CRITERIA				SCORE PER DIGIT													
TEST	CONS. DIGIT	SAMPLE	SERIAL NUMBERS	D01	D02	D03	D04	D05	D06	D07	D08	D09	D10	D11	D12	D13	D14
SERIAL	1	10,000	PAIR	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
SERIAL	1	50,000	PAIR	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
SERIAL	1	10,000	TRIPLES	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
SERIAL	1	50,000	TRIPLES	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
SERIAL	2	10,000	PAIR	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$							
SERIAL	2	50,000	PAIR	F	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	A1							

GENERATOR CRITERIA				SCORE PER DIGIT													
TEST	CONS. DIGIT	SAMPLE	SET	D01	D02	D03	D04	D05	D06	D07	D08	D09	D10	D11	D12	D13	D14
COLLECTOR	1	10,000	10	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
COLLECTOR	1	10,000	10	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
COLLECTOR	1	10,000	10	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
COLLECTOR	1	50,000	10	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
COLLECTOR	1	50,000	10	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
COLLECTOR	1	50,000	10	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$

GENERATOR CRITERIA				SCORE PER DIGIT													
TEST	CONS. DIGIT	SAMPLE	ALFA; BETA	D01	D02	D03	D04	D05	D06	D07	D08	D09	D10	D11	D12	D13	D14
GAP	1	10,000	00; 05	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	A2	\$	A1	\$	\$	A1	\$	\$	\$
GAP	1	10,000	05; 10	\$	\$	\$	A2	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
GAP	1	10,000	02; 07	\$	\$	F	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
GAP	1	50,000	00; 05	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	A2	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
GAP	1	50,000	05; 10	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
GAP	1	50,000	02; 07	A1	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	A1	\$	\$	\$	\$

GENERATOR CRITERIA				SCORE PER DIGIT													
TEST	CONS. DIGIT	SAMPLE	FREQUENCY	D01	D02	D03	D04	D05	D06	D07	D08	D09	D10	D11	D12	D13	D14
FREQUENCY	2	10,000	100	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$							
FREQUENCY	2	10,000	100	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$							
FREQUENCY	4	10,000	100	\$	\$	\$											
FREQUENCY	2	50,000	100	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$							
FREQUENCY	2	50,000	100	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$							
FREQUENCY	4	50,000	100	\$	\$	\$											

GENERATOR CRITERIA									SCORE	
TEST	DIGIT	SAMPLE	FREQUENCY	K PLUS	K MINUS	FUNCTION	LAMBDA	GAMMA R	K PLUS	K MINUS
K-S	ALL	10,000	100	0.81	0.41	UNIFORM			\$	\$
K-S	ALL	10,000	100	2.62	0.23	EXP	4		F	\$
K-S	ALL	10,000	100	0.30	0.24	GAMMA	4	5	\$	\$
K-S	ALL	50,000	100	1.01	0.58	UNIFORM			\$	\$
K-S	ALL	50,000	100	1.90	0.08	EXP	4		F	A2
K-S	ALL	50,000	100	0.24	0.44	GAMMA	4	5	\$	\$

GENERATOR CRITERIA					SCORE
TEST	DIGIT	SAMPLE	OSCILLATION	RUNS	
RUN	ALL	30,000	11.527	UP	\$
RUN	ALL	30,000	14.806	DOWN	A1
RUN	ALL	40,000	16.088	UP	A1
RUN	ALL	40,000	11.085	DOWN	\$

Fig. 6. Serial, collector, gap, frequency, K-S, run tests for "LFSR\_96\_CR".

Fig. A.1. Hexadecimal and binary pattern for “LFSR\_96”, “LFSR\_96\_C”, “LFSR\_96\_CR”.

The binary pattern became better with columns perturbation (applied in “LFSR\_96\_C”), and much better with columns and rows perturbations together (applied in “LFSR\_96\_CR”).

## References

- [1] S.L. Anderson, Random number generators on vector supercomputers and other advanced architectures, *SIAM Review* 32 (2) (1990) 221–251.
- [2] A.M. Ferrenberg, D.P. Landau, Y.J. Wong, Monte Carlo simulations: hidden errors from good random number generators, *Physical Review Letters* 69 (1992) 3382–3384.
- [3] J.E. Gentle, *Random Number Generation and Monte Carlo Methods*, Springer, New York, 1998.
- [4] P. Hellekalek, Good random number generators are (not so) easy to find, *Mathematics and Computers in Simulations* 46 (1998) 485–505.
- [5] E.D. Knuth, *The Art of Computer Programming: Seminumerical Algorithms*, in: Addison-Wesley, Series in Computer Science and Information Processing, Addison-Wesley Readings, 1981.
- [6] P. L'Ecuyer, F. Panneton, A new class of linear feedback shift register generators, in: *Proceedings of the 2000 Winter Simulation Conference*, Departement d'Informatique et de recherche Operationelle, Universit de Montreal, 2001.
- [7] M. Matsumoto, Y. Kurita, Twister GFSR generators II, *ACM Transactions on Modelling and Computer Simulation* 4 (1994) 254–266.
- [8] M. Matsumoto, T. Nishimura, Mersenne Twister: a 623 dimensionally equidistributed uniform pseudo-random number generator, *ACM Transactions on Modelling and Computer Simulation* 8 (1998) 3–30.
- [9] W. Micheal, Arithmetic in a finite field, *Mathematics of Computation* 35 (152) (1980) 1353–1359.
- [10] J.S. Milne, 2003. Fields and Galois theory, <http://www.jmilne.org/math/>.
- [11] H. Niederreiter, C.P. Schnorr, Local randomness in polynomial random number and random function generators, *SIAM Journal Computation* 22 (4) (1993) 684–694.
- [12] J.J. Rotman, *Galois theory*, Springer, New York, 1990.
- [13] W. Stahnke, Primitive binary polynomials, *Mathematics of Computation* 27 (24) (1973) 977–980.
- [14] R.C. Tausworthe, Random numbers generated by linear recurrence modulo two, *Mathematics of Computation* 19 (1965) 201–209.
- [15] S. Tezuka, On optimal GFSR pseudo-random number generator, *Mathematics of Computation* 50 (182) (1988) 531–533.
- [16] S. Tezuka, The  $K$ -dimensional distribution of combined GFSR sequences, *Mathematics of Computation* 62 (206) (1994) 809–817.
- [17] J.H. Van Linth, F.J. MacWilliams, M.J.A. Sloane, On pseudo-random arrays, *SIAM Journal on Applied Mathematics* 36 (1) (1979) 62–72.
- [18] D. Wang, A. Compagner, On the use of reducible polynomials as random number generators, *Mathematics of Computation* 60 (201) (1993) 363–374.
- [19] M. Willett, Characteristic  $m$  sequences, *Mathematics of Computation* 30 (134) (1976) 306–311.