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Randomness and Simulation

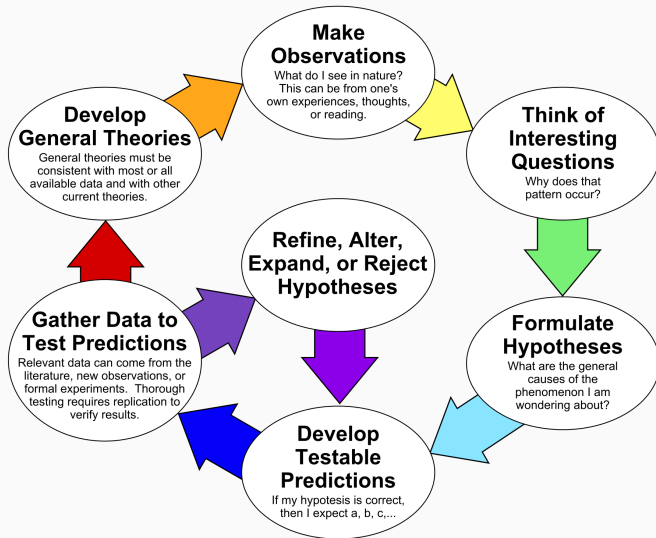
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- randomness
- reproducibility
- designing an experiment

The Scientific Method as an Ongoing Process



errors

- How do I classify my method?
- Goal: determine how the error $|f(x) - p_n(x)|$ behaves relative to n (and f).
- Goal: determine how the cost of computing $p_n(x)$ behave relative to n (and f).
- for $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$ we have

$$p_n = \sum_{k=0}^n x^k = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots$$

- so

$$e_n = |f(x) - p_n(x)|$$

- Is $e_n \sim 1/n^r$?
- Is $e_n \sim 1/\sqrt{n}$?
- Is $e_n \sim 1/n!$?

timing

- `mymethod()` takes x seconds
- How long does it take in general?
- If the data input is of size n , how long should it take?
 - n^2 ?
 - $n!$?
 - 10^n ?

How to measure the impact of n on algorithmic cost?

$\mathcal{O}(\cdot)$

Let $g(n)$ be a function of n . Then define

$$\mathcal{O}(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid \exists c, n_0 > 0 : 0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n), \forall n \geq n_0\}$$

That is, $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ if there is a constant c such that $0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n)$ is satisfied.

- assume non-negative functions (otherwise add $|\cdot|$) to the definitions
- $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ represents an asymptotic upper bound on $f(n)$ up to a constant
- example: $f(n) = 3\sqrt{n} + 2 \log n + 8n + 85n^2 \in \mathcal{O}(n^2)$

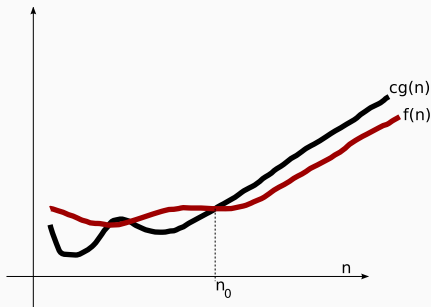
big-o (omicron)

$\mathcal{O}(\cdot)$

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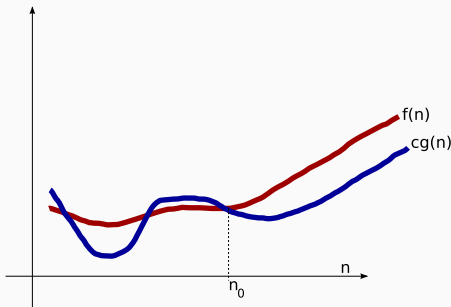
big-omega

$\Omega(\cdot)$

Let $g(n)$ be a function of n . Then define

$$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid \exists c, n_0 > 0 : 0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n), \forall n \geq n_0\}$$

That is, $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ if there is a constant c such that $0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n)$ is satisfied.



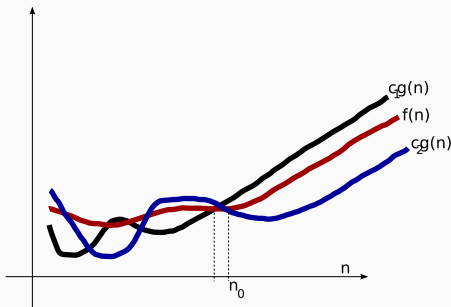
big-theta

$\Theta(\cdot)$

Let $g(n)$ be a function of n . Then define

$$\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid \exists c_1, c_2, n_0 > 0 : 0 \leq c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n), \forall n \geq n_0\}$$

Equivalently, $\Theta(g(n)) = \mathcal{O}(g(n)) \cap \Omega(g(n))$.



Definition

The Algebraic Index of Convergence α is the largest number for which

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| n^\alpha < \infty$$

where a_n are the coefficients in the sequence. Alternatively, α is the algebraic index if

$$a_n \sim \mathcal{O}(1/n^\alpha)$$

exponential convergence (j. p. boyd)

Definition

If the algebraic index α is unbounded (i.e. a_n decrease faster than $1/n^\alpha$ for any finite α), then the sequence converges exponentially (a.k.a. spectrally).

Alternatively, the sequence converges exponentially if for constants q and β

$$a_n \sim \mathcal{O}(e^{-qn^\beta})$$

where β is the exponential index of convergence and

$$\beta = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log |\log(|a_n|)|}{\log(n)}$$

rates of exponential convergence (j. p. boyd)

Definition

A sequence a_n has supergeometric, geometric, or subgeometric if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \log(|a_n|)/n = \begin{cases} \infty, & \text{supergeometric} \\ \text{constant}, & \text{geometric} \\ 0, & \text{subgeometric} \end{cases}$$

or, alternatively,

$$a_n \sim \mathcal{O}(e^{-(n/j) \log(n)}) : \text{supergeometric}$$

$$a_n \sim \mathcal{O}(e^{-qn}) : \text{geometric}$$

$$\beta < 1 : \text{subgeometric}$$

asymptotic rate of geometric convergence (j. p. boyd)

definition

If a sequence a_n has geometric convergence ($\beta = 1$) so that

$$a_n \sim \mathcal{O}(e^{-n\mu})$$

then the asymptotic rate of geometric convergence is μ . Alternatively,

$$\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{-\log |a_n|/n\}$$

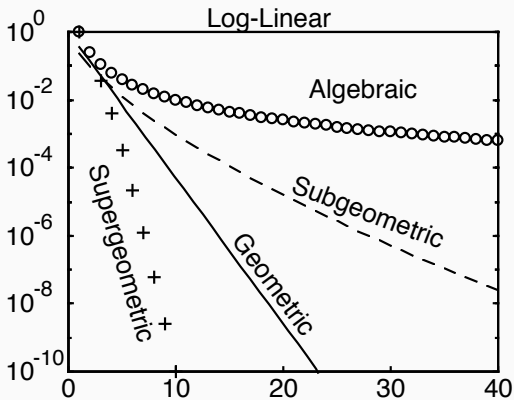


Figure 2.5: $\log |a_n|$ versus n for four rates of convergence. Circles: algebraic convergence, such as $a_n \sim 1/n^2$. Dashed: subgeometric convergence, such as $a_n \sim \exp(-1.5 n^{2/3})$. Solid: geometric convergence, such as $\exp(-\mu n)$ for any positive μ . Pluses: supergeometric, such as $a_n \sim \exp(-n \log(n))$ or faster decay.

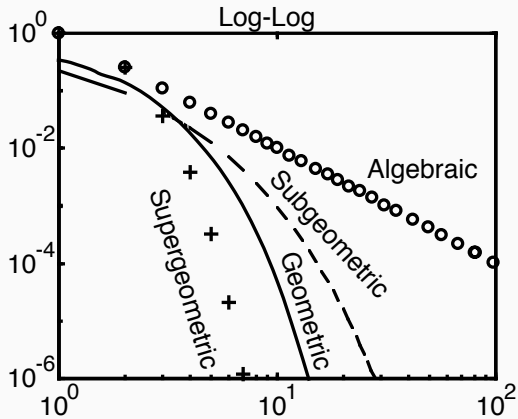


Figure 2.6: Same as previous figure except that the graph is log-log: the degree of the spectral coefficient n is now plotted on a logarithmic scale, too.

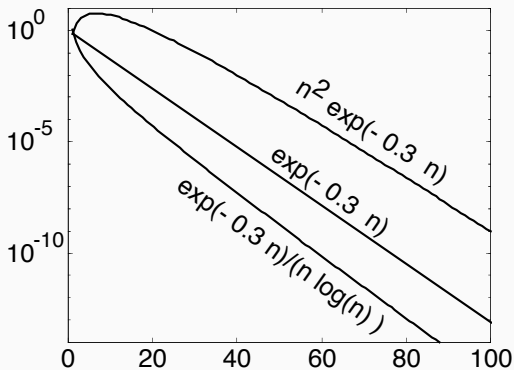


Figure 2.8: Spectral coefficients for three geometrically converging series. Although the three sets of coefficients differ through algebraic coefficients — the top curve is larger by n^2 than the middle curve, which in turn is larger by a factor of $n \log(n)$ than the bottom curve — the *exponential* dependence on n is the same for all. Consequently, all three sets of coefficients asymptote to parallel lines on this log-linear plot.

randomness

- Randomness \approx unpredictability
- One view: a sequence is random if it has no shorter description
- Physical processes, such as flipping a coin or tossing dice, are deterministic with enough information about the governing equations and initial conditions.
- But even for deterministic systems, sensitivity to the initial conditions can render the behavior practically unpredictable.
- we need random simulation methods

<http://www.xkcd.com/221/>

```
int getRandomNumber()  
{  
    return 4; // chosen by fair dice roll.  
             // guaranteed to be random.  
}
```

randomness is easy, right?

- In May, 2008, Debian announced a vulnerability with OpenSSL: the OpenSSL pseudo-random number generator
 - the seeding process was compromised (2 years)
 - only 32,767 possible keys
 - seeding based on process ID (this is not entropy!)
 - all SSL and SSH keys from 9/2006 - 5/2008 regenerated
 - all certificates recertified
- Cryptographically secure pseudorandom number generator (CSPRNG) are necessary for some apps
- Other apps rely less on true randomness

repeatability

- With unpredictability, true randomness is not repeatable
- ...but lack of repeatability makes testing/debugging difficult
- So we want repeatability, but also independence of the trials

```
1 >>>> np.random.seed(1234)
```

pseudorandom numbers

Computer algorithms for random number generations are deterministic

- ...but may have long periodicity (a long time until an apparent pattern emerges)
- These sequences are labeled *pseudorandom*
- Pseudorandom sequences are predictable and reproducible (this is mostly good)

random number generators

Properties of a good random number generator:

Random pattern: passes statistical tests of randomness

Long period: long time before repeating

Efficiency: executes rapidly and with low storage

Repeatability: same sequence is generated using same initial states

Portability: same sequences are generated on different architectures

random number generators

- Early attempts relied on complexity to ensure randomness
- “midsquare” method: square each member of a sequence and take the middle portion of the results as the next member of the sequence
- ...simple methods with a statistical basis are preferable

linear congruential generators

- Congruential random number generators are of the form:

$$x_k = (ax_{k-1} + c) \pmod{M}$$

where a and c are integers given as input.

- x_0 is called the *seed*
- Integer M is the largest integer representable (e.g. $2^{31} - 1$)
- Quality depends on a and c . The period will be at most M .

Example

Let $a = 13$, $c = 0$, $m = 31$, and $x_0 = 1$.

$$1, 13, 14, 27, 10, 6, \dots$$

This is a permutation of integers from $1, \dots, 30$, so the period is $m - 1$.

- IBM used Scientific Subroutine Package (SSP) in the 1960's the mainframes.
- Their random generator, `rnd` used $a = 65539$, $c = 0$, and $m = 2^{31}$.
- arithmetic mod 2^{31} is done quickly with 32 bit words.
- multiplication can be done quickly with $a = 2^{16} + 3$ with a shift and short add.
- Notice (mod m):

$$x_{k+2} = 6x_{k+1} - 9x_k$$

...strong correlation among three successive integers

- Matlab used $a = 7^5$, $c = 0$, and $m = 2^{31} - 1$ for a while
- period is $m - 1$.
- this is no longer sufficient

what's used?

Two popular methods:

1. Method of Marsaglia (period $\approx 2^{1430}$).

```
1 Initialize  $x_0, \dots, x_3$  and  $c$  to random values given a seed
2
3 Let  $s = 2111111111x_{n-4} + 1492x_{n-3}1776x_{n-2} + 5115x_{n-1} + c$ 
4
5 Compute  $x_n = s \bmod 2^{32}$ 
6
7  $c = \text{floor}(s/2^{32})$ 
```

2. `rand()` in Unix uses $a = 1103515245$, $c = 12345$, $m = 2^{31}$.

Even the Marsaglia method produces points in $n - D$ on only a small number of hyperplanes.

linear congruential generators

- sensitive to a and c
- be careful with supplied random functions on your system
- period is M
- standard division is necessary if generating floating points in $[0, 1)$.

- produce floating-point random numbers directly using differences, sums, or products.
- Typical subtractive generator:

$$x_k = x_{k-17} - x_5$$

with “lags” of 17 and 5.

- Lags must be chosen very carefully
- negative results need fixing
- more storage needed than congruential generators
- no division needed
- very very good statistical properties
- long periods since repetition does not imply a period

sampling over intervals

If we need a uniform distribution over $[a, b)$, then we modify x_k on $[0, 1)$ by

$$(b - a)x_k + a$$

non-uniform distributions

- sampling nonuniform distributions is much more difficult
- if the cumulative distribution function is invertible, then we can generate the non-uniform sample from the uniform:

$$f(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}, \quad t > 0$$

thus

$$y_k = -\log(1 - x_k)/\lambda$$

where x_k is uniform in $[0, 1)$.

- ...not so easy in general

quasi-random sequences

- For some applications, reasonable uniform coverage of the sample is more important than the “randomness”
- True random samples often exhibit clumping
- Perfectly uniform samples uses a uniform grid, but does not scale well at high dimensions
- quasi-random sequences attempt randomness while maintaining coverage

quasi-random sequences

- quasi random sequences are not random, but give random appearance
- by design, the points avoid each other, resulting in no clumping