

# 4

## Randomness and Simulation

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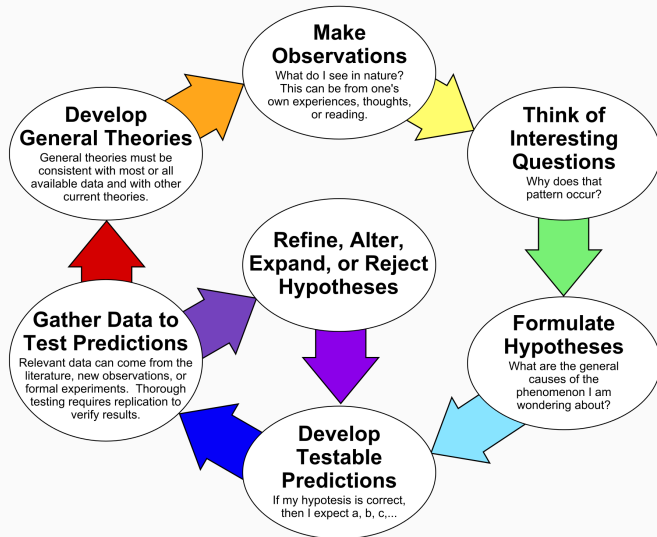
L. Olson

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Department of Computer Science  
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

- randomness
- reproducibility
- designing an experiment

## The Scientific Method as an Ongoing Process



# accuracy

- 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:  $f(n) = 3\sqrt{n} + 2 \log n + 8n + 85n^2 \in \mathcal{O}(n^2)$

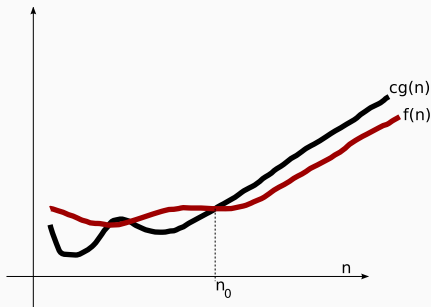
# big-o (omicron)

$\mathcal{O}(\cdot)$

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.



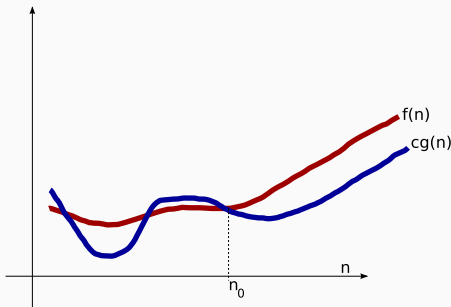
# big-omega

$\Omega(\cdot)$

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.





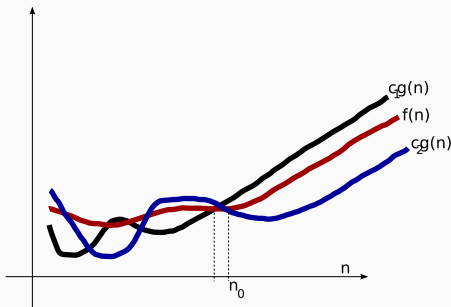
# big-theta

$\Theta(\cdot)$

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



# 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