Monte Carlo Methods in High Energy Physics

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Lecture 2: Random number generators.

- Random numbers.
- Uniform random number generation.
- Tests of random number generators.
- Non-uniform random number generation.

"there is no such thing as a random number – there are only methods to produce random numbers" John von Neumann

Random numbers

A random number – simply a particular value taken on by a random variable.

→ Sequence of truly random numbers – unpredictable and therefore unreproducible!

Sources of truly random numbers – physical generators:

 * e.g. tossing a coin, a roulette, radioactive decay, thermal noise in electronic devices (particularly "white noise"), cosmic ray arrival times, etc.

• Drawbacks of physical generators:

- * too slow for typical calculational needs;
- * problems with stability particularly generators based on physical processes,

e.g. small change in physical conditions of the source or its environment can cause major changes in probabilistic properties of produced random numbers \rightarrow additional testing and bias-correcting devices needed.

- ▷ Old times: Tables of random numbers not very practical!
- → Today coming back (?) large and cheap storage devices (HDs, CDs, DVDs, etc.). (1995: Marsaglia, CD-ROM 650MB of random numbers: electronic noise ⊕ rap music – "white & black noise")

"Anyone who considers arithmetical methods of producing random digits is, of course, in a state of sin" John von Neumann

Pseudo-random numbers – numbers generated according to a strict mathematical formula (therefore reproducible and not at all random in the mathematical sense) but having the **appearance** of randomness, i.e. their statistical properties are very close to the ones of the truly random numbers (someone who does not know the formula is not supposed to be able to tell that a formula was used rather than a physical process).

Sources od pseudo-random numbers – mathematical generators:
 * good statistical properties of generated numbers,
 * easy to use (simple, fast, convenient, ...).

→ Dominated the Monte Carlo 'world' and made physical generators almost extinct! This is why commonly pseudo-random numbers are called simply random numbers, and mathematical algorithms for their generation are called random number generators (RNG).

• The first mathematical generator: 'mid-square' generator of John von Neumann:

$$\rightarrow \text{Formula:} \quad X_n = \lfloor X_{n-1}^2 \cdot 10^{-m} \rfloor - \lfloor X_{n-1}^2 \cdot 10^{-3m} \rfloor \cdot 10^{2m}$$

where: X_i , m – positive integers, X_0 – a constant, $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$ – truncation to integer.

 \Rightarrow Generates 2*m*-digit sequences of numbers – but short ones and dependent on $X_0!$

1) Set up initial constants: $X_0, X_1, \ldots, X_{k-1}$.

2) If (n-1) numbers have been generated, the number X_n calculate according to:

$$X_n = f(X_{n-1}, X_{n-2}, \dots, X_{n-k}), \ n \ge k.$$

 \triangleright Most often one generates integer numbers or bits (0/1) \Rightarrow they are converted to floating-point numbers of unifom distribution in the range [0, 1), denoted: $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

• A period of RNG:

Sequences of numbers from mathematical generator – periodic sequences.

Let P, ν – integers, a X_0, X_1, \ldots – sequence of random numbers,

P – period of generator (sequence) $\Leftrightarrow \exists_{\nu,P} : X_i = X_{i+jP} (j = 1, 2, ...) \forall_{i \ge \nu}$.

Usually, the period can be obtained theoretically (sometimes this might be difficult!).

▷ Requirements for the period of RNG:

If N – the number of random numbers used in MC calculations, then:

 $N \ll P.$ $\rightarrow \text{ In practice, it is required: } N \lesssim \sqrt{P}.$

Popular today RNG: Mersenne Twister (Matsumoto & Nishimura, 1998): $P \approx 10^{6000}$.

Basic methods of uniform random number generation

1. Linear Congruential Generators:

General formula: $X_n = (a_1 X_{n-1} + a_2 X_{n-2} + \ldots + a_k X_{n-k} + c) \mod m$, where: a_1, \ldots, a_k, c, m - parameters of the generator (fixed integers ≥ 0), $a \mod b$ - denotes the integer modulo operation of a over b. Period: $P \leq m^k - 1$ (maximum period only for appropriately chosen parameters). \triangleright Popular implementations (e.g. in Pascal, C/C++): k = 1: $X_n = (aX_{n-1} + c) \mod m$

Main drawback: "Marsaglia effect" – points lie on regular hyperplanes.

2. Shift-Register Generators:

For bits: $b_n = (a_1b_{n-1} + \ldots + a_kb_{n-k}) \mod 2$, where: $a_1, \ldots, a_k \in \{0, 1\}$ - binary constants. Easy to implement, because: $(a + b) \mod 2 = a \operatorname{xor} b$ $\Rightarrow U_i \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$ according to Tausworthe scheme: $U_i = \sum_{j=1}^{L} 2^{-J}b_{is+j}, s \leq L$. Period: $P \leq 2^k - 1$

Drawback: Do not satisfy modern statistical tests!

▷ Generator of Tezuka (1995): Combination of 3 SR generators, $P \approx 10^{26}$, stat. OK. ▷ Mersenne Twister (Matsumoto & Nishimura): improved shift-register, $P = 2^{19937} - 1$.

3. Lagged Fibonacci Generators:

General formula: $X_n = (X_{n-r} \odot X_{n-s}) \mod m$, $n \ge r, r > s \ge 1$, where the operator: $\odot \in \{+, -, \times, \operatorname{xor}\}$. Period: $P \le (2^r - 1)\frac{m}{2}$ Statistical properties: the best for: \times , the worst for: xor.

- ▷ Popular generator: RANMAR (Marsaglia, Zaman, Tsang): Combination of 2 generators, $P \approx 10^{43}$, very good statistical properties.
- 4. SWB Generators (subtract-with-borrow) Marsaglia & Zaman (1991):

Scheme: $X_n = (X_{n-r} \ominus X_{n-s}) \mod m, \quad n \ge r, r > s \ge 1,$ where: $x \ominus y \mod m = \begin{cases} x - y - c + m & \text{and } c = 1 \text{ when } x - y - c < 0, \\ x - y - c & \text{and } c = 0 \text{ when } x - y - c \ge 0, \end{cases}$ initially: c = 0.

Drawbacks: Do not satisfy some recent statistical tests!

▷ Generator RCARRY (Marsaglia & Zaman, 1991): $P \approx 10^{171}$, simple and fast, but does not satisfy some recent tests.

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5. MWC Generators (multiply-with-carry) – Marsaglia:

Scheme: $X_n = (a_1 X_{n-1} + a_2 X_{n-2} + \ldots + a_r X_{n-r} + c) \mod m$, where: $c = \lfloor (a_1 X_{n-1} + a_2 X_{n-2} + \ldots + a_r X_{n-r})/m \rfloor$ - the so-called carry value (to the next step).

Advantages: Simple, fast, easy to implement, have long periods, very good statistical properties.

▷ Several generators proposed by Marsaglia.

- 6. Non-Linear Generators (since mid 1980s):
 - \triangleright Eichenauer & Lehn: $X_n = (aX_{n-1}^{-1} + b) \mod m$

where: $c^{-1} = \text{integer number}$: $c \cdot c^{-1} \mod m = 1$, m - prime number.

 \triangleright Eichenauer-Hermann: $X_n = [a(n+n_0)+b]^{-1} \mod m$

 \rightarrow The number X_n can be obtained independently of the previous numbers.

 \triangleright L. Blum, M. Blum, Shub: $X_n = X_{n-1}^2 \mod m$; m – product of prime numbers

 \rightarrow Applications in cryptography.

- Advantages: Very good statistical properties (satisfy all known tests).
- Drawbacks: They are a bit slower than linear generators.

• Combinations of generators – usually give better results, but not always!

"Random number generators should not be chosen at random."

Donald Knuth

How to check whether a given generator is good or bad?

A generator is good when it produces sequences of numbers that have properties of truly random numbers. \leftarrow How to check this?

• Traditional approach:

Formulate some properties of the uniform random numbers, i.e. r ∈ U(0, 1), and test if the sequences of numbers from the mathematical generator posses these properties.
→ But one can formulate infinite number of such properties ⇒ infinite number of tests!
▷ In practice, one can only prove that the generator is bad (fails some of the tests), but one cannot prove, that the generator is good (the fact that it has passed *n* tests does not guarantee that it will pass the (*n* + 1)th test, which could actually be our problem at hand!).
Testing of generators → negative selection: Passing some number of tests only increases our confidence to a given generator but does not assert its complete reliability.
▷ A lot of strict tests of various kinds have been formulated to date,

 \rightarrow see e.g. D. Knuth, "The Art of Computer Programming", Vol. 2.

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- \rightarrow E.g. a battery of tests DIEHARD by G. Marsaglia (http://stat.fsu.edu/~geo/diehard.html)
 - helped to eliminate many bad generators, also the physical ones.
- ► In fact, there is no credible reason why recurrence formulae should produce random or even random-looking numbers! → This is really quite amazing!
- 1993: M. Lüscher "Finally, a theory of random number generation" (F. James) Martin Lüscher – theoretical physicist, specializing in lattice field theory.
 Article: hep-lat/9309020, Comput. Phys. Commun. 79 (1994) 100: Operational definition of randomness in the sense required for Monte Carlo calculations, based on chaotic behaviour in classical dynamical systems (theories of Kolmogorov and Arnold) – the use of Lyapunov exponents and Kolmogorov entropy to study chaotic behaviour of numbers produced by a generator.
 - Generator RANLUX: based on the SWB generator RCARRY of Marsaglia & Zaman, supplemented with an algorithm of discarding some sequences of numbers
 - in order to achieve sufficiently good 'chaotic' properties of the generated numbers. Period: $P \approx 10^{171}$.

 \rightarrow No departures from randomness have been found so far!

Non-uniform random number generation

Random numbers of distributions other than uniform are usually obtained from uniformly distributed random numbers by applying some transformation methods.

I. General methods

- 1. Inverse transform method:
 - Let U uniformly distributed random number over (0, 1), i.e. $U \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$,

and F – some continuous and **increasing** cumulative distribution function.

Then the random variable

$$X = F^{-1}(U)$$

is distributed according to the cumulative distribution function F(x).

Proof: $\mathcal{P}[X \le x] = \mathcal{P}[F^{-1}(U) \le x] = \mathcal{P}[U \le F(x)] = F(x).$

► Generalization: If *F* is any **nondecreasing** function, then one should take: $X = \inf\{x : U \le F(x)\}.$

EXAMPLE 1: Exponential distribution $E(0,1) \rightarrow \text{pdf}$: $\rho(x) = e^{-x}, x > 0$. $\Rightarrow \text{cdf}$: $F(x) = \int_0^x e^{-x'} dx' = 1 - e^{-x}$. Let $r \in \mathcal{U}(0,1)$: $r = F(x) = 1 - e^{-x} \Rightarrow x = -\ln(1-r)$, If $r \in \mathcal{U}(0,1)$, then $1 - r \in \mathcal{U}(0,1) \Rightarrow x = -\ln r$.

```
EXAMPLE 2: Discrete distribution: \mathcal{P}[X = k] = p_k, \ k = 0, 1, \ldots; \ \sum_k p_k = 1.
            If r \in \mathcal{U}(0,1), then X = \min\{k : r \leq \sum_{i=0}^{k} p_i\}
\triangleright Algorithm in C/C++:
  int DiscreteGen(double rn, double* p) {
  // Generation of discrete distribution P{X = k} = p[k],
  // rn - random number of uniform distribution over (0,1).
     int k = 1;
     double sum = p[0];
     while (sum < rn) sum += p[k++];
     return k - 1;
```

Limitations of inverse transform method:

- It is usually required that a cumulative distribution function is known analytically and can inverted analytically only a small number of functions satisfy these conditions!
- In principle, one can use numerical integration of pdf or tabulated cdf (histogram) and, instead of analytical, perform numerical inversion of cdf – this is usually slower and less accurate, therefore not so often realized in practice.

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2. Rejection (hit-or-miss) method (von Neumann, 1951):

Let f(x) – our desired probability density function, x can be n-dimensional variable. A. Find a pdf g(x) for which random point generation is simple and fast (in the simplest case g(x) = const) and adjust a constant c > 0 such that: $f(x) \le c q(x), \forall_x$.

B. Generate point X according to g(x) and a random number $U \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$. C. If: $c Ug(X) \leq f(X)$ – accept X, otherwise reject it and go back to step B. \triangleright Alternative way:

Step C. Calculate: $w(X) = \frac{f(X)}{g(X)}$ – event weight; find maximum weight: w_{max} . If: $w(X) \ge Uw_{max}$ – accept event, otherwise reject it and return to step B.

Whenever weighted events are acceptable one can skip a rejection loop (as well as generation of auxiliary random number U); in such a case each point (event) X is accompanied with the weight w(X).

Limitations of the rejection method:

- Zeros of the function g(x) are dangerous if at the same time $f(x) \neq 0!$
- Spikes of f(x) can degrade efficiency if they are not well approximated by g(x)!







3. Composition (superposition) method (Butler, 1956):

* CONTINUOUS COMPOSITION

Let X – a random variable of the probability density function f(x):

$$f(x) = \int g_y(x)h(y)dy,$$

where: $g_y(x)$ – some pdf depending on the parameter y; h(y) – some other pdf. <u>Generation scheme:</u>

- A. Generate Y according to the pdf $\ h(y).$
- B. For a given value Y, generate X according to the pdf $g_Y(x)$.

EXAMPLE:
$$f(x) = n \int_{1}^{+\infty} y^{-n} e^{-xy} dy, \quad x, \, y > 0, \, n \ge 1.$$

Let's define the functions: $g_y(x) = ye^{-xy}$ and $h(y) = ny^{-(n+1)}$.

- A. Random numbers Y of the pdf h(y) can be generated using the inverse transform method: $Y = (1 U)^{-1/n}$, where $U \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.
- B. Random numbers X of the pdf $g_y(x)$ can be generated as for the exponetial distribution $E(0, \frac{1}{y})$: $X = -\frac{1}{Y} \ln V$, where $V \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

* **DISCRETE COMPOSITION**

Let:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i g_i(x),$$

where: p_i – density of some discrete distribution, i.e. $p_i \ge 0$, $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i = 1$; $g_i(x)$ – some continuous pdfs.

Generation scheme:

- A. Generate a number i according to the density p_i , e.g. using the inverse transform.
- B. For a given value i, generate X according to the pdf $g_i(x)$.

This technique is also called a branching method.

EXAMPLE: Polynomial probability density functions

Let:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i x^i, \quad 0 \le x \le 1, \ c_i \ge 0; \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_i}{i+1} = 1.$$

A. Generate the index $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ according to the pdf $p_i = \frac{c_i}{i+1}$.

B. For a given value *i* generate X according to the pdf $(i + 1)x^i$, e.g. using the inverse transform method: $X = U^{1/(i+1)}$, where $U \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

4. Combination of composition and rejection (Butcher, 1960):

Let X – a random variable of the probability density function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_n f_n(x), \qquad p_n \ge 0, \ \sum_{i=n}^{\infty} p_n = 1,$$

where: $f_n(x)$ – some *n*-dependent pdfs.

For each f_n find a pdf $g_n(x)$ and a constant $c_n (c_n > 0)$, such that: $f_n(x) \le c_n g_n(x) \ \forall_x.$

Generation scheme:

- A. Generate a number n according to the distribution $\mathcal{P}[n=i] = p_i$.
- B. For a given value n, generate X according to the pdf $g_n(x)$.
- C. Generate $U \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

D. If: $c_n Ug_n(X) \leq f_n(X)$ – accept X, otherwise reject it and return to step A. > Alternative way:

Step D. Calculate: $w_n(X) = \frac{f_n(X)}{g_n(X)}$ – event weight; find maximum weight: w_n^{max} . If: $w_n(X) \ge U w_n^{max}$ – accept event, otherwise reject it and return to step A. Note: Here we need the maximum weight for each branch n independently. Their values can be estimated analytically or numerically (e.g. by histogramming the weights in a trial MC run).

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Branching algorithms

The simple branching method:

 $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} p_i g_i(x)$



Combination of branching and rejection:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} p_i f_i(x)$$



II. Random number generators for basic distributions

1. Gaussian (normal) distribution ${\cal N}(0,1)$

pdf:
$$\rho(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

- a) The method based on the Central Limit Theorem, see Lecture 1.
- \rightarrow **Drawback:** Lack of inifinite tails of Gaussian distribution!
- b) Inverse transform method:
- > The cumulative function of one-dimensional Gaussian distribution cannot be expressed in terms of elementary functions!
- ► Go to 2 dimensions:

pdf:
$$\varrho(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2}}$$

and make transformation to polar coordinates, then invert the cumulative function:

$$x = \sqrt{-2\ln r_1} \cos(2\pi r_2), \qquad y = \sqrt{-2\ln r_1} \sin(2\pi r_2)$$

where $r_1, r_2 \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.

 $\Rightarrow \text{General Gaussian distribution } N(\mu, \sigma) \text{:} \quad x' = \mu + \sigma x.$

2. Exponential distribution $E(\theta, \lambda)$ pdf: $\rho(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\frac{x-\theta}{\lambda}}$, $x \ge \theta$. \blacktriangleright Transformation: $x \to x' = \frac{x-\theta}{\lambda} \Rightarrow E(\theta, \lambda) \to E(0, 1)$: $\rho(x') = e^{-x'}$, $x' \ge 0$. \triangleright Inverse transform method: $x' = -\ln r$, $r \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$. 3. Cauchy (Breit-Wigner) distribution $C(\theta, \lambda)$ pdf: $\rho(x) = \frac{\lambda}{\pi} \frac{1}{(x-\theta)^2 + \lambda^2}$, $-\infty < x < +\infty$. \triangleright Transformation: $x \to x' = \frac{x-\theta}{\lambda} \Rightarrow C(\theta, \lambda) \to C(0, 1)$: $\rho(x') = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+x'^2}$.

▷ Inverse transform method: $x' = \tan(\pi[r - \frac{1}{2}]), r \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1).$

4. Power-law distributions

pdfs: $\rho_1(x) = nx^{n-1}$, $\rho_2(x) = n(1-x)^{n-1}$, $0 \le x \le 1$, n = 1, 2, ...a) Inverse transform method: $x = r^{1/n}$, $r \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$. b) Let: $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n \in \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$ – independent random numbers. $x = \max\{r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n\}$ – is distributed according to $\rho_1(x)$, $x = \min\{r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n\}$ – is distributed according to $\rho_2(x)$.

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```
5. Binomial distribution b(n, p)
   pdf: \mathcal{P}[X=m] = \binom{n}{m} p^m (1-p)^{n-m}, \quad 0 
  Algoritm 1: Rejection method (like 'hit-or-miss' for the Buffon's needle problem)
    long BinomialGen1(long n, double p) {
      double r; long m = 0;
      for (long i = 0; i < n; i++){</pre>
        r = RNG(); // random number generation
         if (r <= p) m++; }
      return m;
    / / Drawback: Many random numbers needed!
  Algoritm 2: Only one random number needed!
    long BinomialGen2(long n, double p, double r) {
    // r - random number of uniform distribution over (0,1)
      long m = 0;
      for (long i = 0; i < n; i++)</pre>
         if (r <= p) { m++; r /= p;}
         else r = (1 - r)/(1 - p);
      return m;
    I / Drawback: More floating-point operations!
```

6. Poisson distribution $P(\mu)$

pdf:
$$\mathcal{P}[X=k] = \frac{\mu^k}{k!} e^{-\mu}$$
, $k = 0, 1, ...; \quad E(k) = V(k) = \mu$.

Algoritm 1: Popular in HEP applications

```
int PoissonGen1(double mu) {
    int k = -1;
    double r, s = 1.0, q = exp(-mu);
    while (s > q) { r = RNG(); s *= r; k++; }
    return k;
```

} // Many random numbers needed, but can be used e.g. to conctruct particles 4-momenta

Algoritm 2: Inverse transform method

```
int PoissonGen2(double mu, double r) {
// r - random number of uniform distribution over (0,1)
int k = 0;
double q = exp(-mu), s = q, p = q;
while (r > s) { k++; p *= mu/k; s += p; }
return k;
}// Only one random number needed, but more floating-point operations!
```

Summary

- Monte Carlo calculations are based on random numbers.
- There are three types of random numbers: truly random numbers (from physical generators), pseudo-random numbers (from mathematical generators) and quasi-random numbers (special correlated sequences of numbers, used only for integration give faster convergence than the standard MC integration).
- In real-life Monte Carlo calculations **pseudo-random** numbers are used most often.
- Use only well tested random number generators! The popular RNGs are: RANMAR, RANLUX, Mersenne Twister. Do not trust generators provided with compilers, operating system, programming-language libraries, etc.
- Having an uniform random number generator and using basic MC generation techniques one can construct a random number generator for almost any distribution.
- The art of Monte Carlo calculations is to use appropriate combinations of various generation methods in order to construct an efficient MC algorithm being solution to a given problem.