

Random Numbers

Based on D. E. Knuth, *The Art of Computer Programming*, Vol. 2: *Seminumerical Algorithms* (3rd ed.), Addison-Wesley

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Random Number Generation – Graduate Course

Chapter 3 Overview

Introduction (§3.1)

The Linear Congruential Method (§3.2.1)

Other Generation Methods (§3.2.2)

Statistical Tests (§3.3)

Generating Other Distributions (§3.4)

What Is a Random Sequence? (§3.5)

Summary & Key Takeaways

What Are Random Numbers? (§3.1)

Knuth's opening observation

"Anyone who considers arithmetical methods of producing random digits is, of course, in a state of sin." — John von Neumann (1951)

The fundamental tension:

- ▶ Computers are **deterministic** — they cannot produce truly random output
- ▶ Yet simulation, cryptography, numerical methods, and games all **need** random numbers
- ▶ Solution: **pseudorandom sequences** — deterministic sequences that *behave* randomly

A cautionary tale (§3.1):

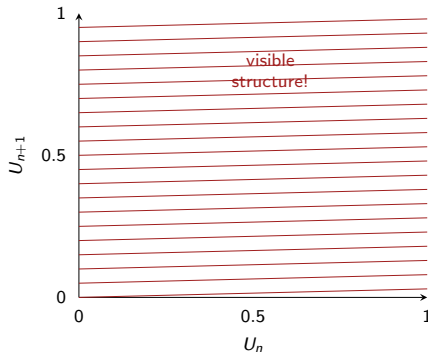
Consider the sequence produced by:

$$X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m$$

with poorly chosen a , c , m . Knuth famously showed that many early generators were *catastrophically* non-random, e.g. IBM's RANDU.

Bad LCG: Visible Lattice Structure

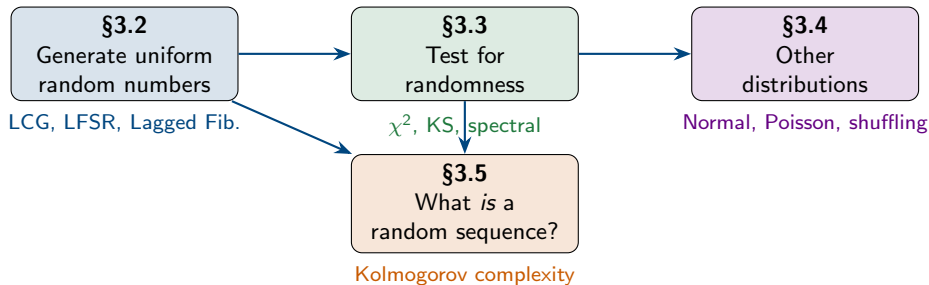
Bad LCG ($a = 65$, $m = 2048$): visible lattice structure



Marsaglia's Theorem (1968)

All s -tuples $(U_n, U_{n+1}, \dots, U_{n+s-1})$ from an LCG lie on at most

The Goals of Chapter 3



Knuth's Philosophy

Do not use a generator you do not understand. **Test** your generator before trusting it, choose parameters **theoretically**, and understand the **limitations** of every method.

The Linear Congruential Generator (LCG)

The recurrence (Lehmer, 1949):

$$X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m$$

Parameter	Role
$m > 0$	modulus
$0 < a < m$	multiplier
$0 \leq c < m$	increment
$0 \leq X_0 < m$	seed

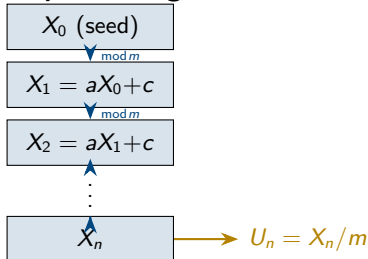
Output: $U_n = X_n/m \in [0, 1)$

Hull-Dobell Theorem (full period)

An LCG has full period m if and only if:

1. $\gcd(c, m) = 1$
2. $a \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for every prime $p \mid m$
3. If $4 \mid m$ then $a \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$

Sequence diagram:



Key property

Maximum period = m .

For $m = 2^{32}$: period $\approx 4 \times 10^9$.

Choosing Good LCG Parameters

Choice of modulus m :

- ▶ $m = 2^e$ (word size): fast mod via truncation
- ▶ $m =$ large Mersenne prime: better theoretical properties
- ▶ $m = 2^{31} - 1 = 2,147,483,647$ is popular

Choice of multiplier a :

- ▶ Must pass the **spectral test** (§3.3.4)
- ▶ Knuth recommends $a \approx 0.01m$ with good spectral values
- ▶ Avoid obvious patterns in binary representation

Potency

The **potency** s of an LCG is the smallest integer such that $(a - 1)^s \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$. Higher potency $\Rightarrow$ better statistical mixing.

Knuth's recommended parameters

(§3.2.1):

m	a	Source
2^{32}	1,664,525	Knuth
2^{32}	69,069	Marsaglia
$2^{31} - 1$	$7^5 = 16,807$	Lewis et al.
$2^{31} - 1$	630,360,016	Fishman & Moore
2^{48}	25,214,903,917	POSIX drand48

Multiplicative LCG ($c = 0$)

Simpler, but $X_0 \neq 0$ required; full period is impossible. Maximum period $= m/4$ for $m = 2^e$. For prime m : period up to $m - 1$.

Other Uniform Generation Methods (§3.2.2)

1. Lagged Fibonacci Generators:

$$X_n = X_{n-j} \star X_{n-k}, \quad j < k$$

where $\star \in \{+, -, \times, \oplus\}$.

- ▶ Very long periods (up to $\sim 2^k$)
- ▶ Excellent equidistribution in high dimensions
- ▶ Require k words of state

2. Linear Feedback Shift Registers:

$$X_n = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k c_i X_{n-i}, \quad c_i \in \{0, 1\}$$

- ▶ Period up to $2^k - 1$ (primitive polynomial)
- ▶ Extremely fast in hardware
- ▶ Low linear complexity — cryptographically weak

Other Uniform Generation Methods (§3.2.2)

3. Combined Generators:

Combine two or more generators for longer periods and better statistical properties.

L'Ecuyer (1988):

$$Z_n = (X_n - Y_n) \bmod (m_1 - 1)$$

where X_n , Y_n are independent LCGs with different moduli.

4. Mersenne Twister (MT19937):

- ▶ Period: $2^{19937} - 1$
- ▶ 623-dimensionally equidistributed
- ▶ Default in Python, R, MATLAB
- ▶ State: 624 words (≈ 2.5 KB)

Knuth's warning

“Never use a random number generator that you have not subjected to extensive empirical tests.” (§3.2.2)

Generator Comparison

Generator	Recurrence	Period	State	Speed	Notes
LCG	$aX + c \bmod m$	m	1 word	Fast	Simple; weak in high dims
Mult. LCG	$aX \bmod m$	$m/4$	1 word	Fast	No even seeds
Lagged Fib.	$X_{n-j} \star X_{n-k}$	$\sim 2^k$	k words	Fast	Excellent equidist.
LFSR	XOR feedback	$2^k - 1$	k bits	Very fast	Cryptographically weak
MT19937	Twist + tempering	$2^{19937} - 1$	624 w.	Med.	Industry standard
PCG	LCG + permutation	2^{128}	2 words	Fast	Modern; excellent quality
xoshiro256	Shift + rotate	$2^{256} - 1$	4 words	Fast	Current best practice

Choosing a generator

For most simulation work: **MT19937** or **PCG**.

For cryptography: use a **CSPRNG** (e.g., AES-CTR, ChaCha20).

For parallel simulation: choose generators with **multiple streams**.

Period is necessary but not sufficient

A long period does *not* guarantee good statistical quality. Always verify with the spectral test and empirical test batteries (TestU01, PractRand).

Statistical Testing: The Framework (§3.3.1)

The testing problem:

Given a sequence $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n$ supposedly $\text{Uniform}(0, 1)$, does it *behave* randomly?

Chi-Square Test:

$$V = \sum_{s=1}^k \frac{(Y_s - n/k)^2}{n/k} \sim \chi_{k-1}^2$$

Y_s = observed count in cell s . Tests frequency uniformity.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) Test:

$$K_n^+ = \sqrt{n} \sup_x (F_n(x) - F(x))$$

F_n = empirical CDF. Sensitive to deviations anywhere in $[0, 1]$.

p-values

Report the p-value under H_0 .

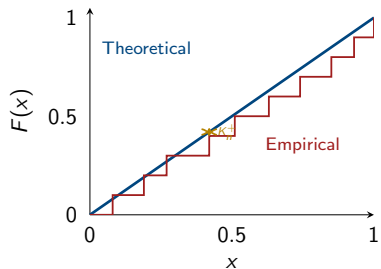
Suspicious: $p < 0.01$ or $p > 0.99$.

Both tails matter for PRNGs!

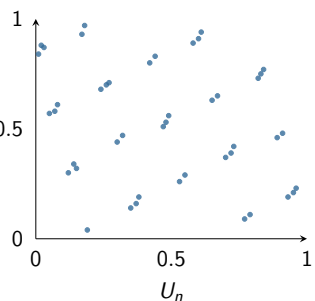
Statistical Testing: The Framework (§3.3.1)

KS Test illustration:

KS Test: Empirical vs. Theoretical CDF



Knuth's Battery of Empirical Tests (§3.3.2)

Test	What it checks	Serial test in 2D (good generator):
Frequency	Uniform distribution of individual values	Well-distributed consecutive pairs 
Serial	Joint distribution of pairs (U_n, U_{n+1})	
Gap	Lengths of gaps between values in $[\alpha, \beta)$	
Poker	Pattern frequencies in groups of 5	
Coupon collector	Waiting time to collect all d values	
Permutation	Ordering patterns in groups of t	
Run	Lengths of ascending/descending runs	
Maximum-of-t	Distribution of $\max(U_1, \dots, U_t)$	
Collision	Birthday paradox collision counts	
Serial corr.	Correlation $\text{corr}(U_n, U_{n+k})$	

The Spectral Test (§3.3.4)

The most powerful theoretical test for LCGs.

Marsaglia's theorem (1968):

The t -tuples $(X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots, X_{n+t-1})/m$ from an LCG fall on at most $(t! m)^{1/t}$ parallel hyperplanes in $[0, 1)^t$.

Figure of merit: max inter-hyperplane gap d_t .

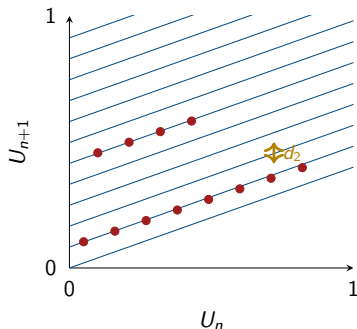
$$\nu_t = \frac{1}{d_t \sqrt{t}} \geq 0.5 \text{ required}$$

Why this matters in practice

For $t = 3$ and a bad LCG with $m = 2^{32}$, all 3-tuples may lie on as few as ~ 1600 planes. Any simulation using 3-tuples will have severe structural bias.

Hyperplane structure in 2D:

LCG pairs lie on parallel hyperplanes



The gap d_2 between adjacent lines measures how “flat” the 2D distribution is.

Theoretical vs. Empirical Tests

Theoretical tests:

- ▶ Analyze the *mathematical structure* of the generator
- ▶ Give **guarantees** for the full period
- ▶ Examples: Hull-Dobell, spectral test, serial correlation formula

Empirical tests:

- ▶ Test *actual output* on a finite sample
- ▶ Can detect failures that theory misses
- ▶ Examples: χ^2 , KS, gap, run, serial

Knuth's verdict

Pass all tests $\nRightarrow$ truly random.

Fail any test $\Rightarrow$ suspect the generator.

Use both theoretical and empirical tests.

Recommended test priority:

Test	Type	Priority
Spectral test	Theoretical	Must
χ^2 frequency	Empirical	Must
Serial test	Empirical	High
Gap test	Empirical	High
Serial correlation	Both	High
Run test	Empirical	Medium
Poker test	Empirical	Medium
Coupon collector	Empirical	Medium
Permutation test	Empirical	Lower

Modern suites

TestU01 (L'Ecuyer & Simard, 2007)

PractRand (Doty-Humphrey, 2011)

NIST STS (cryptographic focus)

Generating Non-Uniform Distributions (§3.4.1)

Method 1 — Inversion (CDF method):

If F is invertible, generate $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ and set

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

- ▶ Exponential: $X = -\ln(U)/\lambda$
- ▶ Geometric: $X = \lfloor \ln U / \ln(1 - p) \rfloor + 1$
- ▶ Exact for any distribution with tractable F^{-1}

Method 2 — Rejection (von Neumann):

To sample from $f(x) \leq c g(x)$:

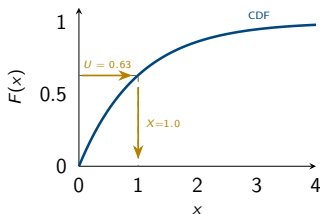
1. Generate $X \sim g$, $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$
2. **Accept** if $U \leq f(X)/(c g(X))$
3. Else reject and repeat

Expected acceptance rate: $1/c$.

Generating Non-Uniform Distributions (§3.4.1)

Inversion for the Exponential:

Inversion: $U \mapsto -\ln U$



Method 3 — Box-Muller (Normal):

$$Z_1 = \sqrt{-2 \ln U_1} \cos(2\pi U_2) \sim N(0, 1)$$

$$Z_2 = \sqrt{-2 \ln U_1} \sin(2\pi U_2) \sim N(0, 1)$$

Both Z_1, Z_2 independent.

Random Sampling and Shuffling (§3.4.2)

Problem 1 — Random Sampling without Replacement:

Select n items from N (Algorithm S, Knuth §3.4.2):

1. $t \leftarrow 0, m \leftarrow 0$
2. Generate $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$
3. If $(N - t)U \geq n - m$: skip item $t + 1$
4. Else: select item $t + 1, m \leftarrow m + 1$
5. $t \leftarrow t + 1$; stop if $m = n$, else go to 2

Exactly uniform over all $\binom{N}{n}$ subsets.

Problem 2 — Random Permutation (Shuffle):

Fisher-Yates / Knuth Shuffle

For $j = n$ down to 2:

$$k \leftarrow \lfloor U \cdot j \rfloor + 1$$

$$\text{swap } A[k] \leftrightarrow A[j]$$

Each of the $n!$ permutations is equally likely.

Random Sampling and Shuffling (§3.4.2) (Cont.)

Shuffle example ($n = 5$):

Initial

A	B	C	D	E
---	---	---	---	---

Step

A	B	C	E	D
---	---	---	---	---

Step

A	C	B	E	D
---	---	---	---	---

Continue until $j = 2 \dots$

Common mistake

Using $k \leftarrow \lfloor U \cdot n \rfloor + 1$ (range $1..n$) instead of $1..j$ gives a **biased** shuffle!

Generating Common Distributions — Summary Table

Distribution	Method	Formula / Key Step	Notes
Uniform(a, b)	Scale	$a + (b - a)U$	Exact
Exponential(λ)	Inversion	$-\ln(U)/\lambda$	Exact
Normal(0, 1)	Box-Muller	$\sqrt{-2 \ln U_1} \cos(2\pi U_2)$	Exact, needs trig
Normal(0, 1)	Polar	$\sqrt{-2 \ln S/S} (V_1, V_2)$	No trig; faster
Gamma($\alpha, 1$)	Marsaglia-Tsang	$d(1 + cZ)^3, Z \sim N(0, 1)$	$\alpha \geq 1$
Poisson(μ)	Waiting time	Count until $\prod U_i < e^{-\mu}$	Small μ
Poisson(μ)	Normal approx.	$\lfloor \mu + \sqrt{\mu}Z + 0.5 \rfloor$	Large μ
Binomial(n, p)	Sum	$\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}[U_i < p]$	Small n
Geometric(p)	Inversion	$\lfloor \ln U / \ln(1 - p) \rfloor + 1$	Exact
Discrete (general)	Alias method	Precompute table, $O(1)$ sample	Walker (1977)

The alias method

Generates any discrete distribution over k outcomes in $O(1)$ per sample after $O(k)$ preprocessing. Uses a **probability table** and an **alias table**.

Knuth's rule

Always generate from the **exact** distribution when possible. Approximations save time but may invalidate simulation results.

The Philosophy of Randomness (§3.5)

Three conceptions of randomness:

1. Frequency / Statistical (von Mises, 1919):

- ▶ A sequence is random if it passes all statistical tests restricted to *admissible* selection rules (Church, 1940)
- ▶ Problem: infinitely many possible tests

2. Algorithmic / Kolmogorov (1965):

A string s of length n is random if

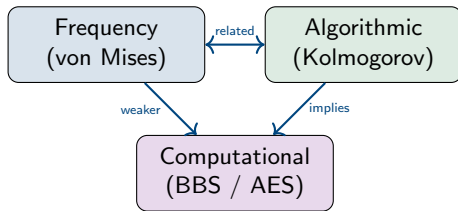
$$K(s) \approx n \text{ bits}$$

where $K(s)$ = length of its shortest description.

Problem: K is uncomputable (Turing, 1936).

3. Computational / Cryptographic:

A sequence is pseudorandom if no **polynomial-time** algorithm can distinguish it from truly random output.



The Philosophy of Randomness (§3.5) (Cont.)

Knuth's conclusion (§3.5)

“A random sequence is a vague notion embodying the idea of a sequence in which each term is unpredictable to the observer.”

Practical implication

No finite sequence can be *proven* random. We can only accumulate **evidence** of randomness through testing.

Kolmogorov Complexity and Linear Complexity

Kolmogorov complexity examples:

- ▶ $s = \underbrace{00 \dots 0}_n$: $K(s) \approx \log_2 n$ (very compressible)
- ▶ $s = \text{digits of } \pi$: $K(s) = O(1)$ (short program)
- ▶ $s = \text{truly random bits}$: $K(s) \approx n$ (incompressible)

Martin-Löf's theorem (1966)

A sequence is random (in the strongest sense) iff it passes *all* computable statistical tests, which holds iff $K(s_1 \cdots s_n) \geq n - c$ for all n (some constant c).

Kolmogorov Complexity and Linear Complexity (Cont.)

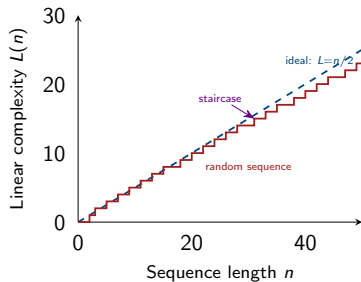
Linear complexity:

$L(n)$ = length of shortest LFSR producing $s_1 \cdots s_n$.

A good PRNG should have $L(n) \approx n/2$ (Berlekamp-Massey).

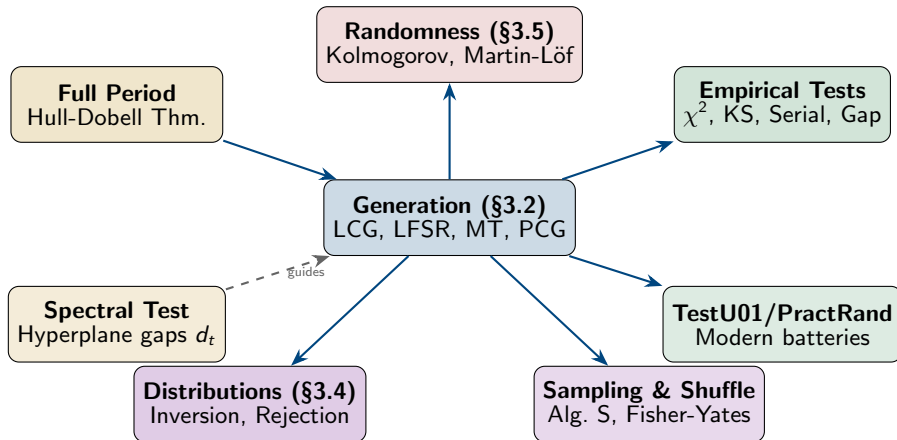
Linear complexity profile:

Linear Complexity Profile



Steps of size ≈ 1 indicate good randomness. Large jumps indicate exploitable structure.

Chapter 3 Concept Map



Key Results and Formulas

LCG recurrence:

$$X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m$$

Full period $\Leftrightarrow$ Hull-Dobell conditions.

Marsaglia's theorem:

t -tuples lie on $\leq (t! m)^{1/t}$ hyperplanes.

Spectral figure of merit:

$$\nu_t = \frac{1}{d_t \sqrt{t}} \geq 0.5 \text{ required}$$

Chi-square statistic:

$$V = \sum_{s=1}^k \frac{(Y_s - n/k)^2}{n/k} \sim \chi_{k-1}^2$$

Box-Muller transform:

$$Z_{1,2} = \sqrt{-2 \ln U_1} \begin{pmatrix} \cos(2\pi U_2) \\ \sin(2\pi U_2) \end{pmatrix} \sim N(0, 1)$$

Fisher-Yates shuffle:

For $j = n$ down to 2:

swap $A[j] \leftrightarrow A[\lfloor jU \rfloor + 1]$

Kolmogorov complexity:

$$K(s) \approx n \Leftrightarrow s \text{ is "random"}$$

Knuth's golden rule

"Random numbers should not be generated with a method chosen at random."

— Donald Knuth (§3.1)

Discussion Questions

1. The Hull-Dobell theorem guarantees full period for an LCG. Does full period imply good statistical quality? Give an example of a full-period LCG that fails the spectral test.
2. The spectral test measures the maximum gap between parallel hyperplanes containing t -tuples from an LCG. Why does this matter practically? What goes wrong in a simulation if d_t is large?
3. Knuth recommends testing for both *suspiciously small* ($p < 0.01$) and *suspiciously large* ($p > 0.99$) p-values. Why would a p-value too close to 1 be a red flag for a PRNG?
4. Compare the Box-Muller transform and the polar method for generating Normal random variables. What are the trade-offs in cost, accuracy, and implementation complexity?
5. Kolmogorov complexity gives a clean definition of a random sequence, yet it is uncomputable. What does this tell us about the fundamental limits of statistical testing?

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Questions?

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