

# **Numerical Methods for Astrophysics:**

## **RANDOM NUMBERS**

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# Random numbers. Concept

**Random numbers are ubiquitous in physics/astrophysics:**

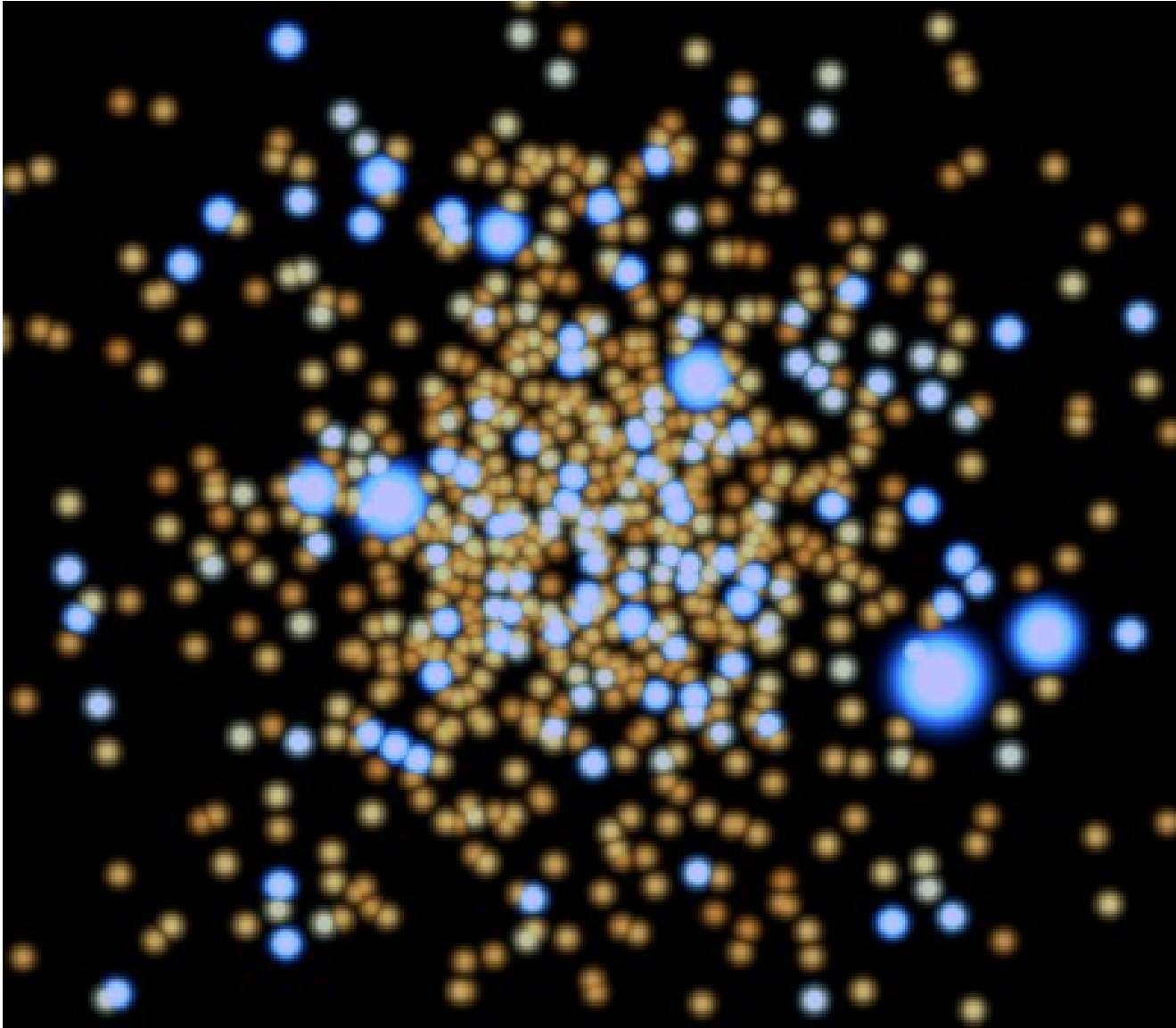
- some (astro)physical process is intrinsically random  
(e.g. exact moment of a radioactive decay is random)
- other (astro)physical quantities are not intrinsically random  
but we might need random numbers to represent them

## **EXAMPLES:**

- \* **produce mock samples of astrophysical data,**  
e.g. magnitudes of stars in a star cluster
- \* **in computational astrophysics, initial conditions of simulations are often generated through random numbers**  
e.g. N-body model of a galaxy or star cluster  
Initial star positions can be generated
  - on a fixed grid (unnatural..)
  - randomly drawing initial positions  
from distribution functions (more natural)

# Random numbers. Concept

Example: initial conditions for a simulation of a star cluster



# Random numbers. Random generators

Is a computer able to generate genuine random numbers?

NO, just PSEUDO-RANDOM numbers, generated with a formula

$$x' = (a x + c) \bmod m$$

**LINEAR CONGRUENTIAL  
RANDOM NUMBER  
GENERATOR**

**$a$ ,  $c$ ,  $m$  = integer constants**

**$x$  = integer variable**

take  $x'$  and plug it back onto the right-hand side of the equation

→ generates a series of numbers

**In python:**

```
#file examples/random/rand_gen.py
N = 100
a = int(1664525)
c=int(1013904223)
m=int(4294967296)
x=1
results = []
for i in range(N):
    x = (a*x+c)%m
    results.append(x)
print(results)
```

# Random numbers. Random generators

$$x' = (a x + c) \bmod m$$

## LINEAR CONGRUENTIAL RANDOM NUMBER GENERATOR

**$a, c, m$  = integer constants  
 $x$  = integer variable**

**If we use the same  $a, c, m$  and the same first  $x$ ,  
we will generate always the same series**

**→ guarantees REPRODUCIBILITY of scientific experiments**

Note that if we generate  $N$  random numbers with  $N > m$   
the  $m+1$  number will be the same as the 1<sup>st</sup> number  
the  $m+2$  number will be the same as the 2<sup>nd</sup> number  
etc etc

**i.e. THE SEQUENCE REPEATS FROM THE BEGINNING**

**→ WARNING: terrible mistake, make sure that  $N < m$**

# Random numbers. Random generators

## Random generators in python:

### \* random package

`random.random()` generates floating point random numbers between 0 and 1

To obtain a random between min and max do

```
a=random.random()
b=a * (max - min) + min
```

`random.randint(min, max)` generates integer random numbers between min and max

### \* numpy.random package

`numpy.random.rand()` generates floating point random numbers between 0 and 1

To obtain a random between min and max do

```
a=numpy.random.rand()
b=a * (max - min) + min
```

See [examples/random/use\\_random.py](#)

See [examples/random/use\\_nprandom.py](#)

# Random numbers. Random seed

**First number of the series (first  $x$  in the linear congruential generator)**

Uniquely determines the entire series

Default is computer clock,  
but better set by hand to ensure reproducibility

with `random.seed`:

```
#examples/random/use_seed.py
from random import random, seed

seed(42) #assign 42 as seed
for i in range(10):
    a=random()
    print(a)
```

# Random numbers. Random seed

**First number of the series (first  $x$  in the linear congruential generator)**

Uniquely determines the entire series

Default is computer clock,  
but better set by hand to ensure reproducibility

with `numpy.random.seed`:

```
#examples/random/use_npseed.py
from numpy.random import random, seed

seed(42) #assign 42 as seed
for i in range(10): #calculate 10 random numbers with a loop
    a=random()
    print(a)

seed(42) #assign 42 as seed
b=random(10) #calculate 10 random numbers
            #with properties of numpy arrays
print(b)
```



# Random numbers. Uniform deviates

Random numbers generated by a random generator are **uniform deviates**: each of them has the same probability to be generated within a given range.

In math. words,  
the probability distribution function is constant over the range

probability  
distribution  
function

$$\underbrace{p(x) dx}_{\text{probability to draw a random number between } x \text{ and } x+ dx} = \text{const } dx$$

normalization  
constant

$$\int p(x) dx = 1$$

# Random numbers. Non-uniform deviates

For a general (astro)physical problem, more likely that we need random numbers generated according to a non-constant probability distribution function

e.g. errors of measure follow Gaussian distribution

## To generate non-uniform deviates:

- first generate a set of uniform deviates
- then transform these uniform deviates into non-uniform deviates thanks to the laws of probability

At least two techniques:

- INVERSE RANDOM SAMPLING
- REJECTION METHOD

# Random numbers. Inverse random sampling

**Fundamental transformation law of probabilities:**

$$p(y) dy = q(x) dx$$

Probability  $p(y) dy$  of generating a number between  $y$  and  $y+dy$  equal to probability  $q(x) dx$  of generating a number between  $x$  and  $x+dx$  provided that both  $p(y)$  and  $q(x)$  are properly defined, i.e.

$$\int_{y_{min}}^{y_{max}} p(y) dy = 1 \quad \int_{x_{min}}^{x_{max}} q(x) dx = 1$$

Hence  $y$  and  $x$  are related by a function  $y = y(x)$

**If  $x$  is a uniform deviate between 0 and 1, then  $q(x) = 1$  and**  $\int_0^x dx' = x$

**Thus, for a generic  $p(y)$**   $\int_{y_{min}}^{y(x)} p(y') dy' = \int_0^x dx' = x$

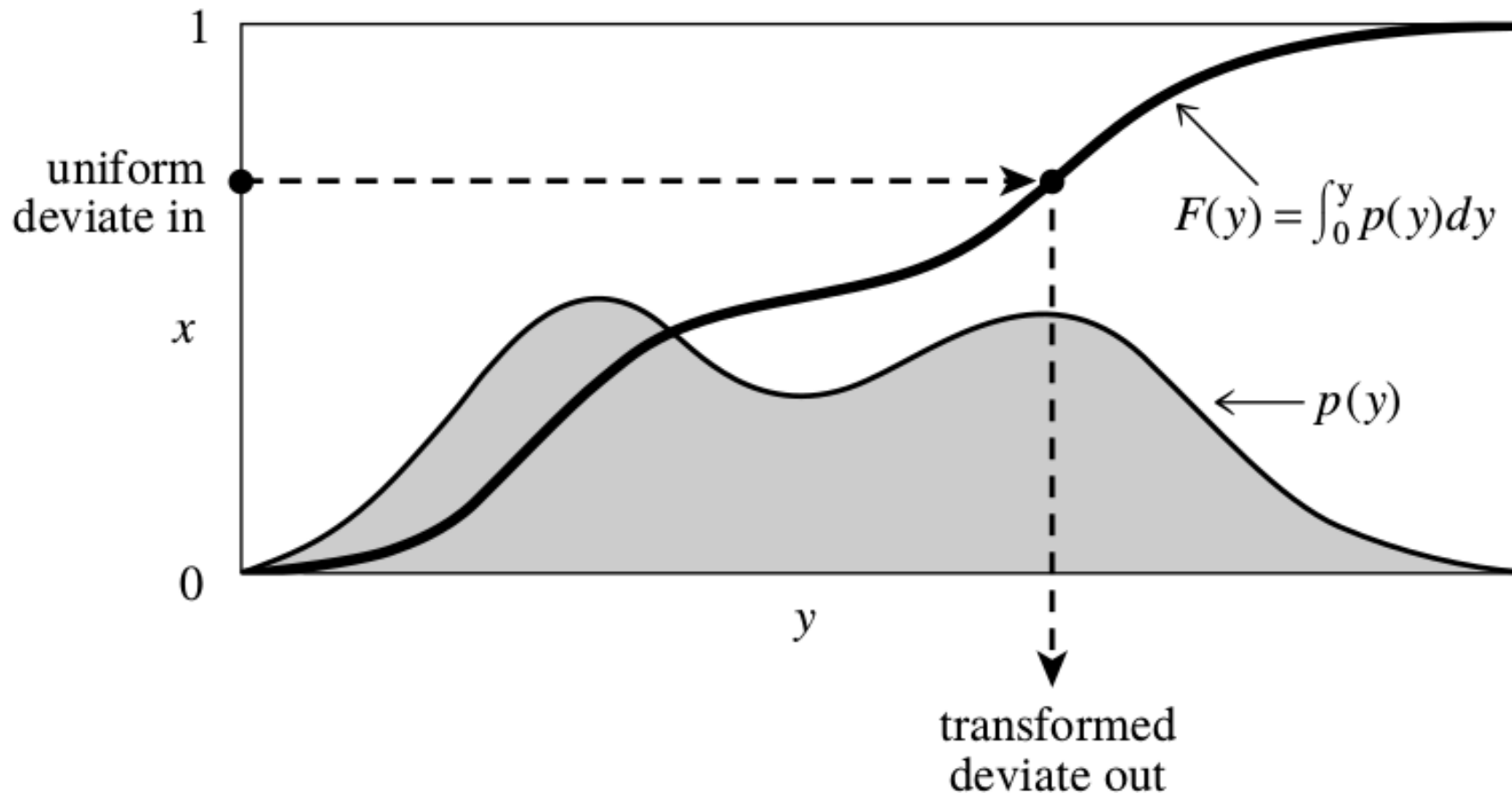
→ it is possible to generate a non-uniform random deviate from a uniform random deviate

Necessary condition to extract  $y$  from  $x$ : that we can solve the left-hand term of the integral and that we can solve  $y(x)$

# Random numbers. Inverse random sampling

Example: 
$$\int_0^{y(x)} 2y' dy' = x$$

→ 
$$y(x) = x^{0.5}$$



# Random numbers. Inverse random sampling

Steps to produce non-uniform deviates with inverse random sampling:

1. Take a probability distribution function  $p(y)$  of the quantity  $y$  you want to sample.

2. Integrate  $p(y)$   $dy$  over the range to obtain the cumulative probability distribution function

$$P(y) = \int_{y_{\min}}^y p(y') dy'$$

3.  $P(y)$  is monotonic and takes values from 0 to 1 by definition of probability.

4. Randomly sample the values  $x = P(y)$  of the cumulative distribution function between 0 and 1 (with a random generator).

5. Invert the function  $P(y)$  to get  $y = P(y)^{-1}$

6. Repeat steps 4 and 5 as many times as you need to get  $y$  for  $N$  random numbers.

## Random numbers. EXERCISE, Salpeter:

**EXERCISE:** use the inverse random sampling to generate the masses of stars in a star cluster

The **Salpeter mass function (Salpeter1955)** is one of the most popular initial mass functions for stars. It is defined as

$$p(m) dm = \text{const } m^{-\alpha} dm$$

where  $\alpha = 2.3$ .

Given a population of young stars (possibly in the zero-age main sequence), the probability to have a star of mass  $m$  in this population is  $p(m) = \text{const } m^{-\alpha}$

*Massive stars are significantly less common than light stars.*

Assuming that the minimum stellar mass is  $m_{\min} = 0.1 \text{ Msun}$  and the maximum stellar mass is  $m_{\max} = 150 \text{ Msun}$ ,

randomly calculate the mass of  $10^6$  stars distributed according to the Salpeter initial mass function by using the inverse random sampling technique.

Plot the resulting population of stellar masses with an histogram.

*Suggestion: First you have to calculate the normalization constant const.*

Salpeter:  $\phi(m) dm = \text{const}^+ m^{-\alpha} dm$

① Find constant

$$\int_{m_{\min}}^{m_{\max}} \phi(m) dm = 1$$

$$1 = \text{const}^+ \int_{m_{\min}}^{m_{\max}} m^{-\alpha} dm = \text{const}^+ \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)} m^{1-\alpha} \Big|_{m_{\min}}^{m_{\max}} =$$

$$= \frac{\text{const}^+}{(1-\alpha)} \left( m_{\max}^{1-\alpha} - m_{\min}^{1-\alpha} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{const}^+ = \frac{1-\alpha}{\left( m_{\max}^{1-\alpha} - m_{\min}^{1-\alpha} \right)}$$

② Calculate cumulative PDF:-

$$X = \text{const} \int_{M_{\min}}^m m^{-\alpha} dm = \text{const} \frac{m^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha} \Big|_{M_{\min}}^m =$$

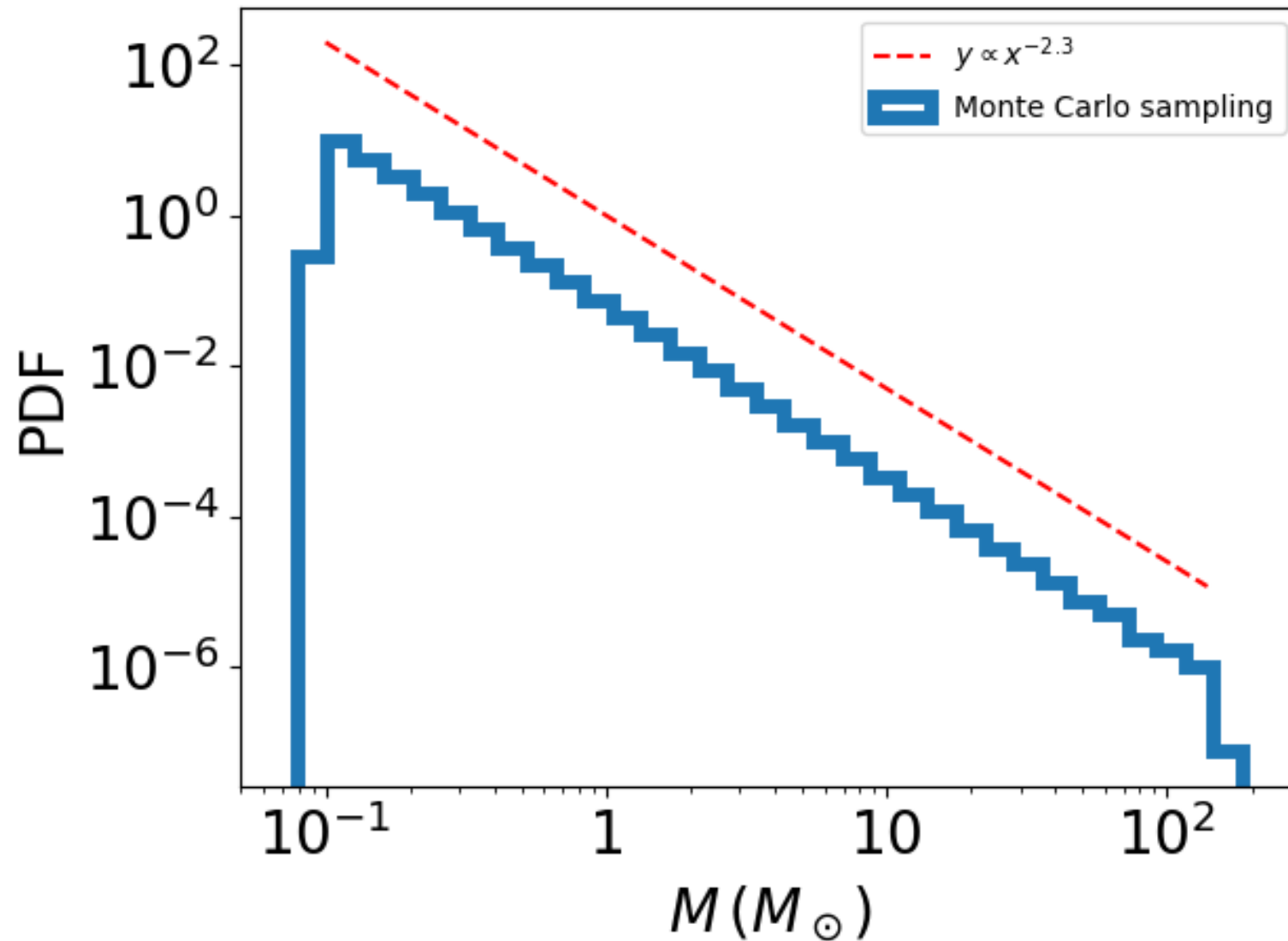
$$= \frac{\text{const}}{1-\alpha} \left( m^{1-\alpha} - M_{\min}^{1-\alpha} \right) = \frac{\left( m^{1-\alpha} - M_{\min}^{1-\alpha} \right)}{\left( M_{\max}^{1-\alpha} - M_{\min}^{1-\alpha} \right)}$$

$$\Rightarrow m^{\frac{1-\alpha}{1-\alpha}} = \left[ \left( m_{\max}^{1-\alpha} - m_{\min}^{1-\alpha} \right) X + M_{\min}^{1-\alpha} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}$$

uniform
random number

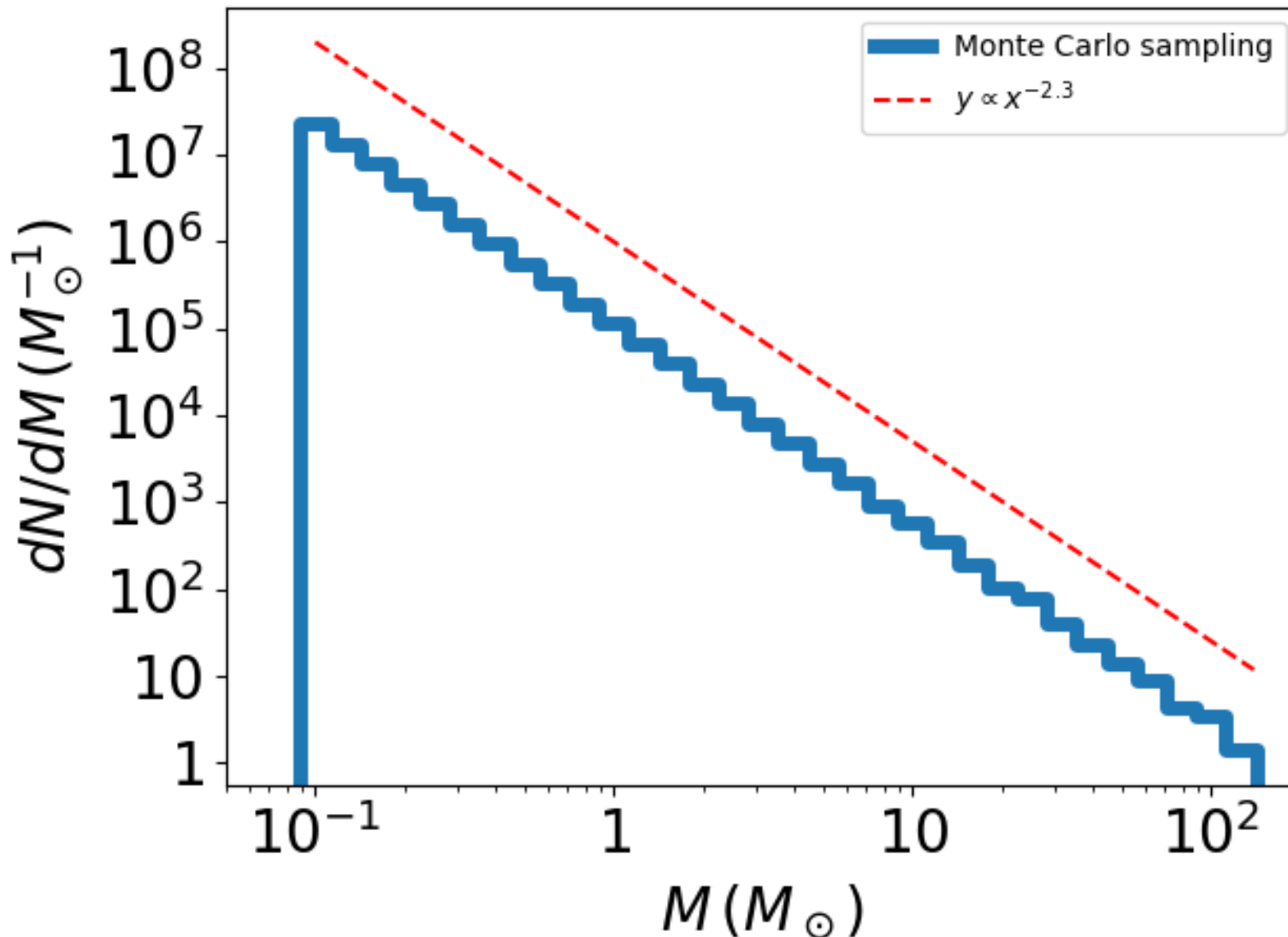


# Random numbers. Inverse random sampling



The y axis looks like this if you use the option “density = True” of plt.hist(), which calculates the PDF

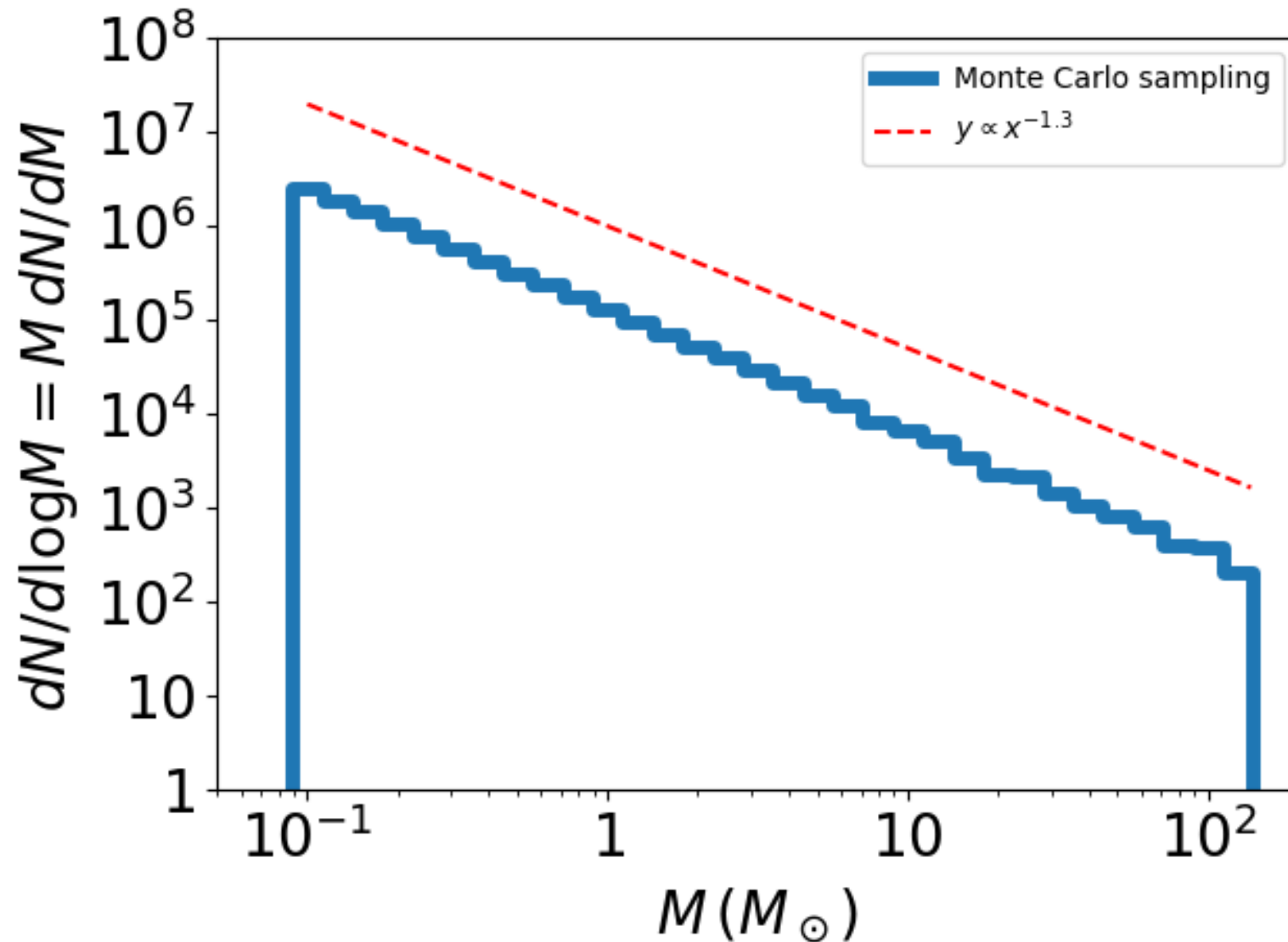
# Random numbers. Inverse random sampling



If you do not use `density = True` but you want a logarithmic y-axis, you need to divide the values on the y axis by  $M$ , because

$$d \log M = dM/M \rightarrow dN/dM = M^{-1} dN/d \log M$$

# Random numbers. Inverse random sampling



If you do not divide the y axis values by  $M$ , you get a slope as -1.3

# Random numbers. Gaussian distribution with Box-Muller

**Gaussian distribution:**  $p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$

**Cumulative probability distribution:**  $P(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^x \exp\left(\frac{-x'^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dx'$   
**cannot be inverted**

**However, take the product of 2 Gaussians**

$$\begin{aligned} p(x)dx p(y)dy &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dx dy \end{aligned}$$

**Let's use the transformation into polar coordinates:**  $x^2 + y^2 \rightarrow r^2$   
 $dx dy \rightarrow r dr d\theta$

**and convert the product of two Gaussians in polar coordinates**

$$\begin{aligned} p(r, \theta) dr d\theta &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) r dr d\theta \\ &= \frac{r}{\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dr \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \end{aligned}$$

# Random numbers. Gaussian distribution with Box-Muller

From the previous equation we can perfectly separate the terms in  $r$  and the terms in  $\theta$  :

$$p(r) dr = \frac{r}{\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dr$$
$$p(\theta) d\theta = \frac{1}{2\pi} d\theta$$

These two separate functions can easily be integrated and inverted

$$P(r) = \int_0^r \frac{r'}{\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{r'^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dr' = 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \longrightarrow r = \sqrt{-2\sigma^2 \ln(1 - P(r))}$$
$$P(\theta) = \int_0^\theta \frac{1}{2\pi} d\theta' = \frac{\theta}{2\pi} \qquad \theta = 2\pi P(\theta)$$

We now use the inverse sampling method to generate two uniform random numbers  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  based on the previous equation

$$r = \sqrt{-2\sigma^2 \ln(1 - z_1)}$$
$$\theta = 2\pi z_2$$

## Random numbers. Gaussian distribution with Box-Muller

Finally, we derive  $x$  and  $y$  by using the transformation to polar coords

$$x = r \cos(\theta)$$

$$y = r \sin(\theta)$$

each of them distributed according to a Gaussian centered in zero with standard deviation  $\sigma$

- We can use one of the two numbers and store the other one for the future.
- If we want a Gaussian with a different mean value, we can simply shift the random numbers by the desired value.

# Random numbers. Gaussian distribution with python

At least two functions in python to generate Gaussians:

**`numpy.random.normal(loc=0.0, scale=2.0)`**

where `loc` is the mean and `scale` the standard deviation

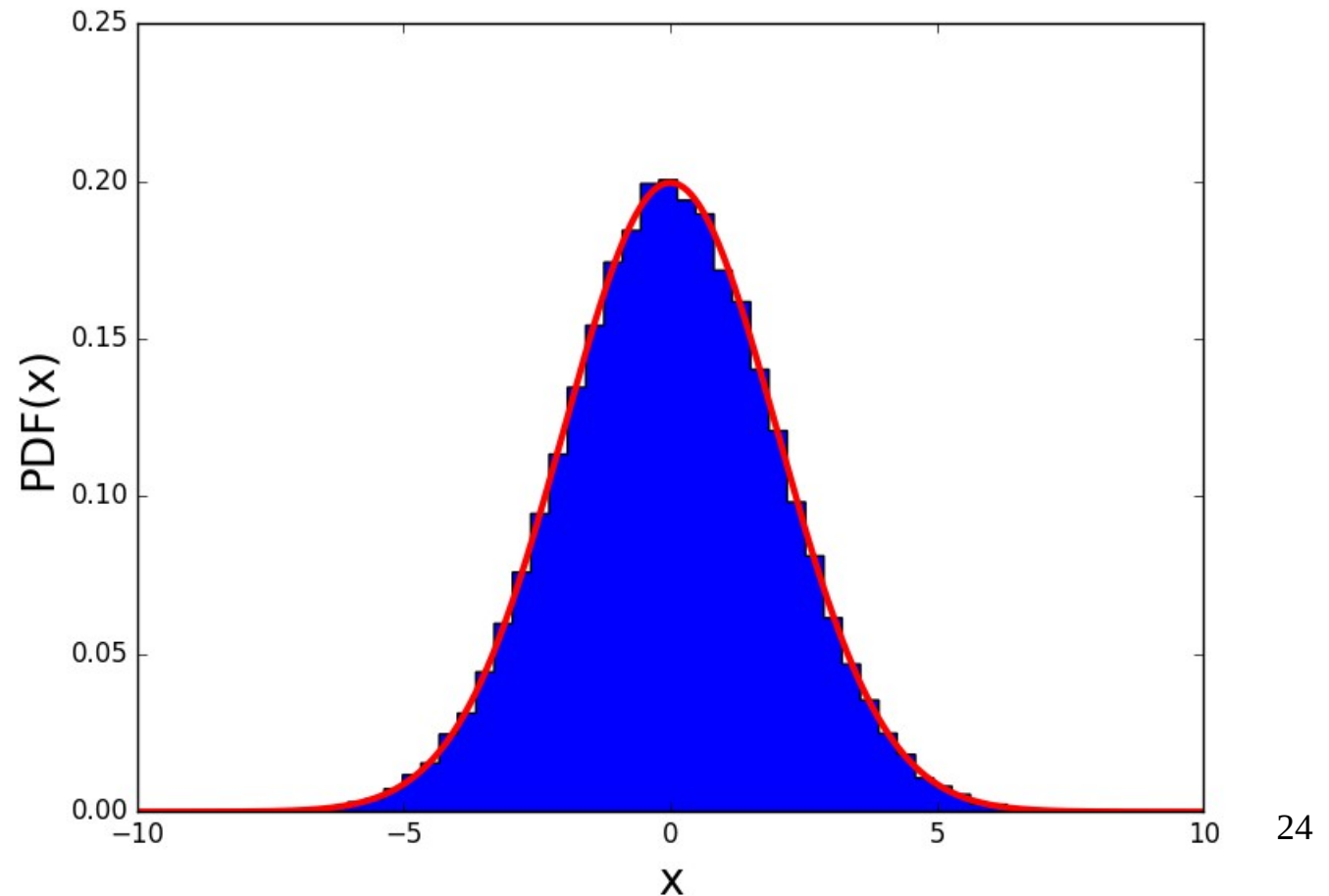
**`random.gauss(0.0, 2.0)`**

where first argument is the mean and  
second argument is the standard deviation

## Random numbers. Exercise, Gaussian with Box-Mueller

### EXERCISE:

Write a script to generate  $N = 10^5$  Gaussian deviates with the Box-Mueller method. Assume  $\sigma = 2$  and that the Gaussian is centered on zero. The result should look like Figure 31.





# Random numbers. Rejection method

What can we do when the cumulative distribution function cannot be inverted (easily)? REJECTION SAMPLING APPROACH.

1. Take a probability distribution function  $p(x)$  of the quantity  $x$  you want to sample. But  $p(x)$  is difficult/impossible to integrate!
2. Take a second function  $f(x)$ , with  $f(x) > p(x)$  everywhere, that can be easily integrated, to obtain the cumulative distribution function

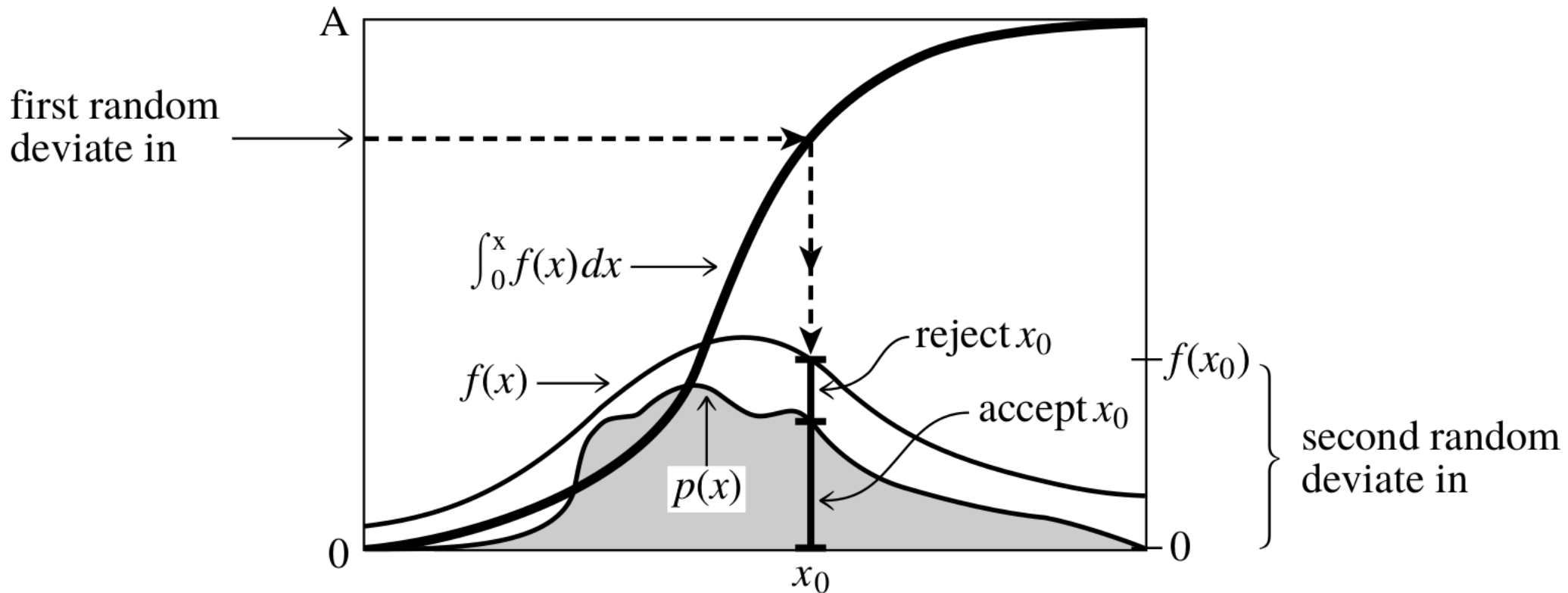
$$g(x) = \int_{x_{\min}}^x f(x') dx'$$

Note that  $g(x)$  is NOT a well defined probability.

3. Randomly sample  $y = g(x)$  between min and max value.
4. Invert  $g(x)$  to obtain  $x$ .  $x$  is distributed according to  $f(x)$ .
5. Generate a second random number  $m$  uniform between 0 and  $f(x)$ . Reject  $x$  if  $m > p(x)$  and accept  $x$  if  $m \leq p(x)$ .
6. Repeat 3, 4 and 5 as many times as you need to get  $x$  for  $N$  particles.

# Random numbers. Rejection method

Better understood with a figure:



# Random numbers. Exercise, Gaussian Rejection

## EXERCISE:

Generate  $10^4$  points distributed according to a Gaussian (with  $\sigma = 2$  and centered around zero) with the rejection method, by using the distribution function  $f(x) = 1$ , uniform between  $min = -50$  and  $max = +50$ . The result should look like Figure 33.

*Suggestion: once again, note that  $f(x)$  is not a well defined probability distribution function – and it cannot be, because  $f(x) > p(x)$  everywhere, where  $p(x)$  is a well defined probability function (the Gaussian PDF in this case). Hence  $y(x) = \int_{x_{\min}}^x f(x) dx$  is a uniform random number but does not necessarily lie in the interval between 0 and 1. You must first calculate*

$$y_{\max} = \int_{x_{\min}}^{x_{\max}} f(x) dx \quad (90)$$

*Hence, you should draw an uniform random number  $y \in [0, y_{\max}]$ .*

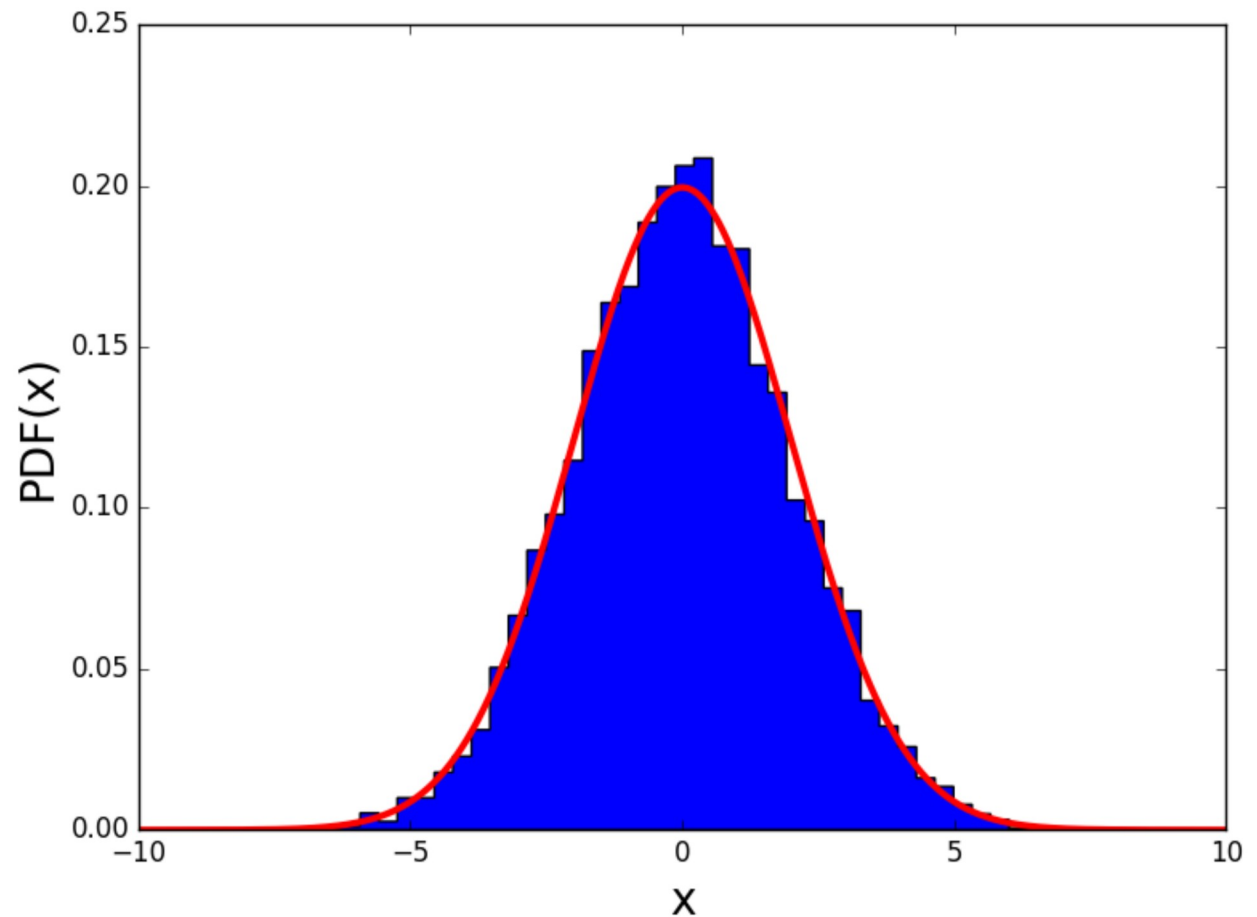
# Random numbers. Exercise, Gaussian Rejection

## EXERCISE:

Generate  $10^4$  points distributed according to a Gaussian (with  $\sigma = 2$  and centered around zero) with the rejection method, by using the distribution function  $f(x) = 1$ , uniform between  $min = -50$  and  $max = +50$ . The result should look like Figure 33.

*Suggestion: once again, no distribution function – and where  $p(x)$  is a well defined case). Hence  $y(x) = \int_{x_{min}}^x f(x)$  necessarily lie in the interval*

*Hence, you should draw an*



# Random numbers. Maxwellian from Gaussian

It can be shown that a Maxwellian curve  $p(v) dv = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{v^2}{\sigma^3} \exp\left(\frac{-v^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dv$

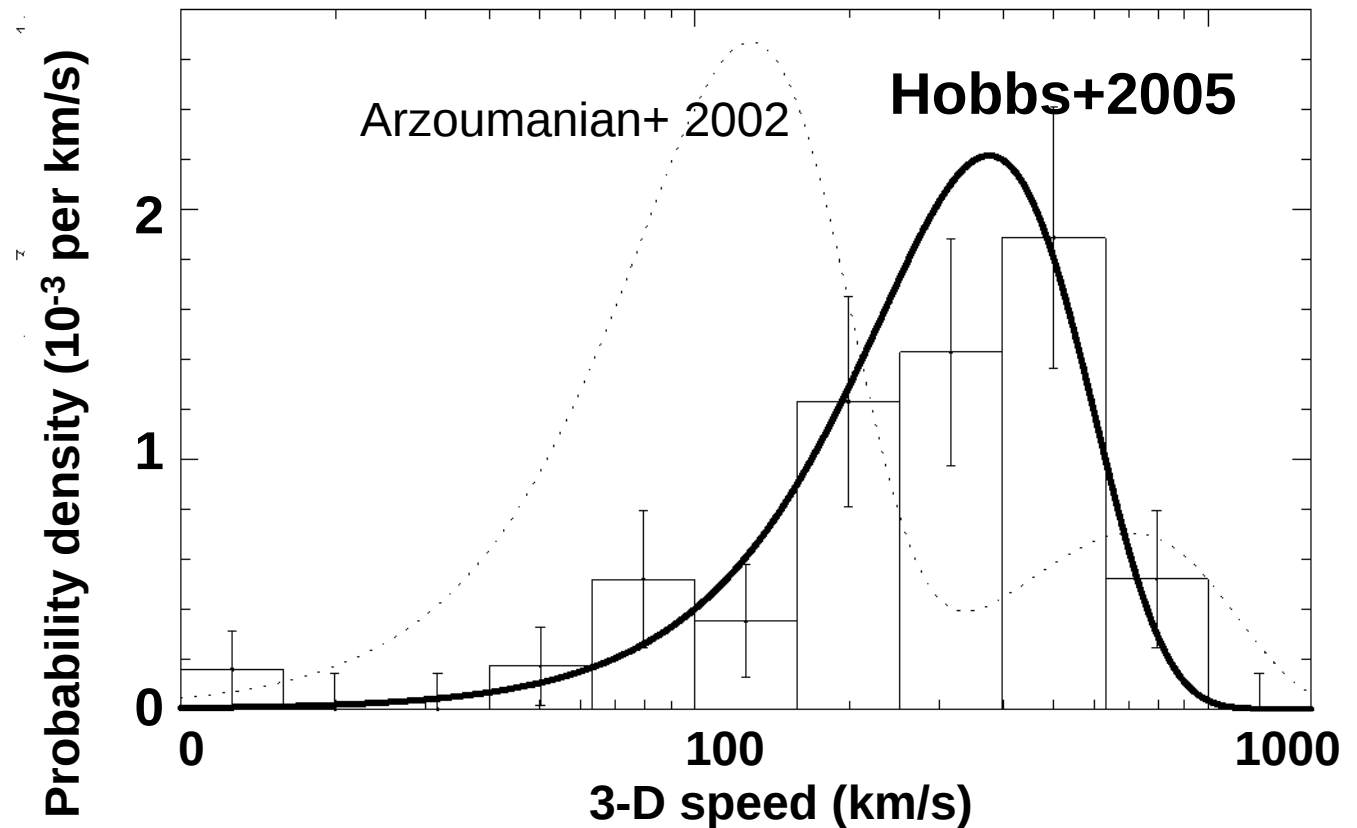
can be randomly sampled as  $v = \sqrt{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)}$

where  $x, y, z$  are Gaussian deviates centered around zero

A Maxwellian curve is a good representation for:

1. NATAL KICKS OF PULSARS

2. MOTIONS OF STARS IN A RELAXED AND VIRIALIZED SYSTEM

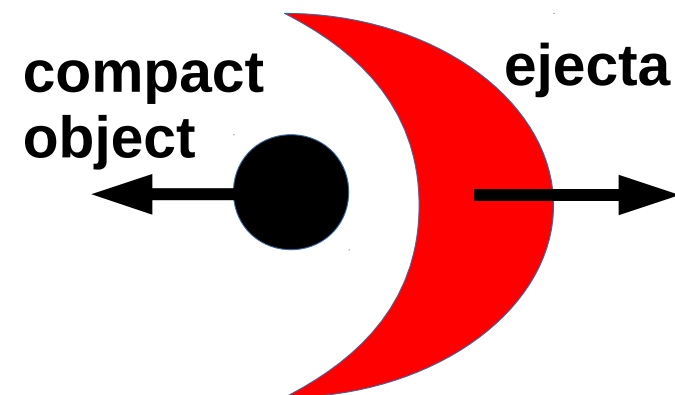


# Random numbers. Maxwellian from Gaussian

## EXERCISE:

Write a script to generate  $N = 10^5$  random numbers following a Maxwellian distribution with  $\sigma = 265 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . According to Hobbs et al. [2005], this is the distribution of natal kicks of neutron stars.

*Note: every compact object which forms from a supernova is thought to receive a kick at birth. The main reason is that linear momentum is conserved during a supernova and asymmetries in the ejecta (or in neutrino losses) push the compact object to move in the opposite direction with respect to the bulk of the ejecta.*



# Random numbers. Exercise “Star cluster”

Let's build an N-body model for a star cluster with  $N = 10^3$  stars, where

- Stellar masses are drawn from a **Salpeter** mass function
- positions are randomly drawn from a **Plummer** sphere density distribution
- velocities are randomly drawn from a **Maxwellian** curve

For simplicity, let us assume that:

- the mass of a star does not depend on star's position inside the cluster (equivalent to no initial mass segregation);
- the velocity of a star does not depend on star's position inside the cluster;
- the distribution of stellar positions and velocities are isotropic.
- the cluster is in virial equilibrium (virial ratio  $2 K/|W| = 1$ )

**First step:** draw the stellar masses from the Salpeter initial mass function (IMF), as in the previous exercise.

As you can simply verify, drawing  $10^3$  stars is equivalent to a mass of  $\sim 300 - 500 M_{\text{sun}}$  (a part from stochastic fluctuations), because the average stellar mass is  $\sim 0.3 - 0.5 M_{\text{sun}}$ .

Save the exact value of the total mass in  $M$ .

# Random numbers. Exercise “Star cluster”

**Second step:** draw the stellar positions from a Plummer sphere

The Plummer sphere is a density distribution function expressed as

$$\rho(r) = \frac{3 M}{4 \pi a^3} \left( 1 + \frac{r^2}{a^2} \right)^{-5/2}$$

where  $\rho$  is the mass density,  $a$  is a typical scale-length,  $r$  is the radial coordinate (in spherical coordinates) and  $M$  is the total mass of the sphere (for  $M$  use the total mass that you generated with the Salpeter distribution).

**Let us assume  $a = 1$  pc.**

The Plummer sphere is the simplest distribution function mimicking the radial distribution of stars in a star cluster.

**Third step:** draw stellar velocities from a Maxwellian distribution

$$f(v) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{v^2 \exp[-v^2/(2\sigma^2)]}{\sigma^3}$$

assume  $\sigma = 0.5 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  is the one-dimensional root-mean-square velocity of the Maxwellian curve. **Then velocities will be rescaled to enforce virial equilibrium**



# Random numbers. Exercise “Star cluster”

## Additional suggestions:

\* Plummer is a density distribution, while we need the mass distribution assuming the cluster is isotropic, hence:

$$dm = \rho dV = \rho(r) r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi dr$$

where I have used the definition of the volume element in spherical coordinates

$$dV = r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi dr$$

The good news of assuming spatial isotropy is that the angular coordinates are independent from each other and from the radial coordinate

→ we can draw  $r$ ,  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  as three independent random numbers, from three different distributions.

Let's start with  $\phi$ , which is the simplest one.

The cumulative probability distribution of  $\phi$  is  $P(\phi) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\phi d\phi' = \frac{\phi}{2\pi}$

Thus, we can draw a uniform random number  $P(\phi)$  from 0 to 1 and then estimate  $\phi$  as  $\phi = 2\pi P(\phi)$

## Random numbers. Exercise “Star cluster”

Now, let's calculate  $\theta$ . The cumulative probability distribution of  $\theta$  is

$$P(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\theta \sin \theta' d\theta' = \frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos \theta)$$

Thus, I can draw a uniform random number  $P(\theta)$  between 0 and 1 and then I can extract  $\theta$  from  $P(\theta)$  by simply inverting the above equation:

$$\theta = \arccos [1 - 2 P(\theta)]$$

To extract  $r$  is a bit more complicated. The cumulative distribution function of mass is

$$\begin{aligned} M(r) &= \int_V \rho dV = \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_0^\pi \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^r \rho(r) r^2 dr, \\ &= 4\pi \int_0^r \frac{3M}{4\pi a^3} \left(1 + \frac{r^2}{a^2}\right)^{-5/2} r^2 dr = M \left(\frac{r}{a}\right)^3 \left(1 + \frac{r^2}{a^2}\right)^{-3/2} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the probability cumulative distribution function is  $P(r) = \left(\frac{r}{a}\right)^3 \left(1 + \frac{r^2}{a^2}\right)^{-3/2}$

After few math. steps, we find that equation can be inverted. We can draw a uniform random number  $P(r)$  from 0 and 1 and then obtain

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{a^2}{P(r)^{-2/3} - 1}}$$

## Random numbers. Exercise “Star cluster”

Finally, we randomly draw  $10^3$  values for  $r$ ,  $\theta$  and  $\phi$ .

It might be easier to plot our points in Cartesian coordinates, thus we simply make the conversion:

$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi$$

$$y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi$$

$$z = r \cos \theta$$

Note that all direct N-body codes I am aware of work in Cartesian coordinates.

Now, we must assign a **velocity** to each of the  $10^3$  particles.

Since we assumed that stellar velocities do not depend on positions, we do not need to worry about stellar position in the cluster (in real-life clusters we should).

Moreover, since we assumed that velocities are isotropic, we can do the same as we did for positions and generate the modulus of velocity  $v$ , and the angles  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  independently of each other.

For  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  we do exactly as for the positions.

## Random numbers. Exercise “Star cluster”

To generate  $v$  (modulus of the velocity), you can use the script you developed for the exercise on the **Box-Muller method** and extend it to generate Maxwellian deviates,

because it can be shown that 
$$v_{\text{Maxwellian}} = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2}$$

where  $v_x$ ,  $v_y$  and  $v_z$  are random deviates distributed according to a **Gaussian PDF** (with mean = 0 and with the same sigma)

Finally, once we have generated  $10^3$  new values for  $v$ ,  $\theta$  and  $\phi$ , we can convert to Cartesian coordinates by using the following transformation

$$v_x = v \sin \theta \cos \phi$$

$$v_y = v \sin \theta \sin \phi$$

$$v_z = v \cos \theta$$

Note that these values of  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  must not be the same as the ones for positions (otherwise you generate a bias): just sample the new numbers from scratch.

Note that assuming a Maxwellian velocity distribution is not self-consistent with the choice of the Plummer, because the Plummer has its own energy distribution. Anyway, the Maxwellian makes the problem much easier to solve.

# Random numbers. Exercise “Star cluster”

## VIRIAL EQUILIBRIUM:

After you have generated the velocities, calculate KINETIC AND POTENTIAL ENERGY

Then estimate the VIRIAL RATIO  $Q_{vir} := 2 K / |W|$

If  $Q_{vir} \neq 1.0$ , the system is not in virial equilibrium

The fastest way to obtain a cluster in virial equilibrium is to divide all the components of the velocity by  $Q_{vir}^{0.5}$

$$v_{x,i} = v_{x,i} / \sqrt{Q_{vir}}$$

$$v_{y,i} = v_{y,i} / \sqrt{Q_{vir}}$$

$$v_{z,i} = v_{z,i} / \sqrt{Q_{vir}}$$

# Random numbers. Exercise “Star cluster”

Result for a cluster with  $10^4$  stars and with  $\alpha = 1$  pc

