Techniques for Empirical Testing of Parallel Random Number Generators

Paul D. Coddington
Northeast Parallel Architectures Center, Syracuse University
111 College Place, Syracuse, NY 13244, U.S.A.
and
Department of Computer Science, University of Adelaide*
Adelaide, SA 5005, Australia
paulc@cs.adelaide.edu.au

Sung-Hoon Ko
Northeast Parallel Architectures Center, Syracuse University
111 College Place, Syracuse, NY 13244, U.S.A.

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Abstract

Parallel computers are now commonly used for computational science and engineering, and many applications in these areas use random number generators. For some applications, such as large-scale Monte Carlo simulations, it is crucial that the random number generator have good randomness properties. Many programs are available for testing the quality of sequential random number generators, but very little work has been done on testing parallel random number generators. We present some techniques for empirical testing of random number generators on parallel computers, using tests based on computational science applications as examples. In particular, we focus on tests based on parallel algorithms developed for Monte Carlo simulations of the two dimensional Ising model, for which exact results are known. Preliminary results of these tests are presented for several parallel random number generators.

*Current address.

1 Introduction

Parallel computers are now commonly used for computational science and engineering. Many of these applications use parallel implementations of random number generators. Since random numbers are in practice computed using deterministic algorithms, these are more accurately called pseudo-random number generators. In some applications, the quality of the pseudo-random numbers (i.e. how closely they resemble truly random sequences) is not that important. However in many of the applications for which random number generators are most heavily used, such as Monte Carlo simulations [7], the quality of the random number generator is crucial, since an inadequate random number generator can produce incorrect results. This is especially true in large-scale simulations on supercomputers, which consume huge quantities of random numbers, and for which vector or parallel algorithms for random number generation are required.

As noted in several review articles [37, 33, 38, 43, 16], sequential random number generators provided by computer vendors or recommended in computer science texts have often been of poor quality. Even generators that perform well in standard statistical tests for randomness may be unreliable for particular applications, as has been seen many times in the computational science literature, particularly for large-scale Monte Carlo simulations [34, 42, 25, 40, 24]. This has led to the development of a number of "physical" tests based on standard computational science applications, such as Monte Carlo simulation or random walks [24, 14, 45].

The many problems caused in the past by inadequate sequential random number generators are likely to be repeated in a new generation of simulations using parallel computers, unless users are provided with parallel random number generators that have been carefully studied and tested. Few rigorous mathematical results are known about the randomness properties of random number generators, especially for parallel algorithms, so a generator should be subjected to stringent and varied empirical tests before being used.

There has been quite a lot of research on developing algorithms for vector and parallel random number generators (see the reviews by Anderson [1], Brent [9] and Coddington [16]), but very little work has been done on developing and applying methods for testing such generators.

New approaches are necessary to test algorithms for generating random numbers on parallel computers, for example to look for correlations between random number streams on different processors, or to parallelize existing empirical tests, particularly the physical tests that have been so successful at weeding out inadequate generators.

Here we give an overview of methods for empirical testing of parallel random number generators, concentrating on parallel implementations of physical tests such as Monte Carlo simulations. We also present some examples of results of these tests for several different kinds of parallel random number generator. These tests are still being done on many different parallel generators, and more comprehensive results will be presented elsewhere [19].

2 Parallel Random Number Generators

Random number generators use iterative deterministic algorithms for producing a sequence X_i of pseudo-random numbers that approximate a truly random sequence. The main algorithms used for sequential random number generators are:

Linear congruential generators (LCGs), $X_i = (A * X_{i-1} + B) \bmod M$, which we denote by $\mathrm{L}(A, B, M)$.

Lagged Fibonacci generators (LFGs), $X_i = X_{i-P} \odot X_{i-Q}$, which we denote by $\mathrm{F}(P, Q, \odot)$, $P > Q$, where $\odot$ is any binary arithmetic operation, such as addition or multiplication modulo M, or the bitwise exclusive OR function XOR.

Shift register generators can usually be defined in terms of LFGs using XOR, however these are of lower quality than equivalent LFGs using addition or multiplication.

Combined generators that combine (usually by addition modulo M) the results of two or more generators, usually two LCGs, two LFGs, or an LCG plus an LFG.

For more information, see one of the many books or review articles on random number generators [37, 33, 38, 43, 16].

The main techniques used for parallelizing random number generators involve distributing the sequences of random numbers produced by a sequential generator among the processors (or abstract processors for data parallel languages) in the following different ways [1, 9, 16]:

Leapfrog – the sequence is partitioned among the P processors in a cyclic fashion, like a deck of cards dealt to card players;

Sequence splitting – the sequence is partitioned among processors in a block fashion, by splitting it into non-overlapping contiguous sections;

Independent sequences – the initial seeds are chosen in such a way as to produce long period disjoint subsequences on each processor.

There are other methods for implementing parallel random number generators, including using a different generator (or the same type of generator but with different parameters) for each processor, but the above methods are the most commonly used.

An obvious requirement for a good parallel random number generator is that the sequential generator on which it is based should have acceptable randomness properties. Unfortunately, many of the widely-used parallel generators fail even this first requirement. Recent physical tests have shown that many generators in common use, particularly shift register generators and lagged Fibonacci generators with a small lag, are inadequate for many applications [24, 14, 45, 16].

Even when a good sequential generator is used, it is not guaranteed that it will produce a good parallel generator [16]. Some generators have periods that may be adequate for current sequential workstations, but not for Teraflop supercomputers. Parallelization, particularly using leapfrog or sequence splitting, may amplify small correlations in the sequential generator. Also, great care needs to be taken in initializing the generators, so that the seeds are not correlated across different processors. It is therefore prudent to subject any parallel random number generator to a battery of empirical tests.

3 Testing Parallel Random Number Generators

Over the years many widely-used methods for generating pseudo-random numbers have been shown to be inadequate, either by theoretical arguments, or empirical tests, or both. In some cases theoretical arguments can show that there are correlations in the sequence of numbers, however in many cases the problems only show up in empirical tests that statistically compare the results produced by the random number generators with results expected from a truly random sequence of numbers. Many standard statistical tests of this kind are available for sequential random number generators [37, 39, 22].

Some of these sequential tests have been applied to parallel generators, by testing the random number streams on each processor, or the combined stream from all processors [10, 1, 20]. This is the usual approach in testing parallel generators. However, very little work has been done on developing tests specifically for parallel random number generators, particularly for physical tests.

3.1 Physical Tests

In addition to standard statistical tests, it is useful to apply physical tests that are related to the various computational science applications for which random numbers are commonly used. As with the statistical tests, these tests generally compare results obtained from using a pseudo-random number generator with known exact results that would occur if the numbers generated were truly random.

Tests of this kind include simulations of exactly solvable systems such as the two dimensional Ising model [35, 31, 24, 14, 45], percolation models [48], and random walks [48, 45]. Vattulainen *et al.* [45] have developed a software package for testing sequential random number generators using a variety of physical tests, including Ising model simulations and random walks. Generators that pass standard statistical tests have often been found to fail these physical tests. It is therefore important to use as wide a variety of these empirical tests as possible.

It should be noted that any application can be used to test random number generators, by simply comparing results obtained with two different generators. Since no amount of testing can ever determine whether a random number generator will work for a particular application, it is always a good idea to run an application program using more than one generator, in order to check the results.

3.2 Ising Model Monte Carlo Tests

We have developed both sequential and parallel programs for testing random number generators using Monte Carlo simulation of the two dimensional Ising model [14, 15]. This simple model has been solved exactly for a finite lattice of grid points [23], so that values of the energy and the specific heat (the variance of the energy) of the system calculated from the Monte Carlo simulation can be compared with the known exact values. An added advantage of this approach is that there are several different Monte Carlo algorithms that can be used to simulate the Ising model, and each of them uses random numbers in a different way.

We have implemented the three most widely used methods: the Metropolis algorithm [7] which updates a single site of the lattice at a time; the Swendsen-Wang (SW) algorithm [44] which forms clusters of sites to be updated collectively; and the Wolff algorithm [46] which updates a single cluster of sites. The SW and Wolff cluster update algorithms are extremely efficient and allow very precise Monte Carlo simulations of the Ising model, easily reducing statistical errors to better than one part in 10^4 on small lattices. This precision provides us with a very effective practical test of the randomness of a pseudo-random number generator, and in particular its suitability for Monte Carlo simulation.

The simulations are usually done at the critical point (or phase transition) of the model [7].

We have implemented the parallel Monte Carlo Ising model programs using both message passing and data parallel languages. The message passing programs were written in C and Fortran, with versions using Express [27], CMMD [12], and MPI [29]. The data parallel programs were written in CM Fortran [11], MP Fortran [41], and High Performance Fortran (HPF) [36].

The Metropolis algorithm is regular and local and can therefore be easily and efficiently parallelized using message passing or data parallel languages. A standard block domain decomposition and red/black updating scheme is used [28, 30].

The main computational task in the SW algorithm is identifying and labeling the clusters of connected sites, which is equivalent to the problem of connected component labeling of an undirected graph [8, 32]. Since the SW clusters may be highly irregular (fractal, in fact) and highly non-local (they can span the lattice), this is a difficult problem to parallelize efficiently. The message passing version of the SW program uses the local label propagation or self-labeling algorithm [17, 4, 26] to do the component labeling, which is reasonably efficient on message passing (MIMD) machines, as long as the lattice size is fairly large. This program has been used for high precision Monte Carlo studies of Ising and Potts spin models [18, 5]. The data parallel (SIMD) program uses a different algorithm to label the clusters [2], and as expected for this kind of irregular, non-local problem, it is much less efficient.

We have also developed message passing and data parallel implementations of the Wolff algorithm [3]. In this case the main computational task is to compute the expansion of the edge of the single cluster, which can be done reasonably efficiently if a cyclic data distribution is used. Again, the message passing implementation is much more efficient than the data parallel implementation. For this reason, we have not done any testing using the data parallel Wolff algorithm on SIMD machines such as the Connection Machine or Maspar. However, we have implemented an HPF version

of this program, allowing us to run the test on a single processor (since HPF programs give the same result on any number of processors), which is much more efficient.

3.3 Using Replicated Sequential Test Programs

The usual approach to testing parallel random number generators has been to use standard sequential tests on the random number streams on each processor, or the combined stream from all processors [10, 1, 20].

The simplest type of empirical test is to use the pseudo-random number generator to compute a result and a statistical error for that result, and then compare it with the known exact value which would occur for a truly random sequence. For physical tests such as Monte Carlo, the result is usually a mean value (such as the average energy for the Ising model), and the error in the mean is easily computed using standard techniques [7, 14]. It is also useful to measure the variance of the result (for the Ising model, this is the specific heat), since in some cases the correlations in the generator may be such that the mean is correct, but the variance is not, particularly for parallel generators [21].

To check the quality of the random number generator, we simply compute the deviation $\Delta = (\overline{x} - \langle x \rangle)/\sigma$ between the computed (sample) mean value $\overline{x}$ and the known exact value (or expectation value) $\langle x \rangle$, as a multiple of the error in the mean σ. In the usual way, we can figure out the probability of obtaining a particular value of the deviation, for example, $|\Delta| > 3.3$ should occur with probability 0.001 [6], so we should be suspicious of a generator that produces such a large deviation from the exact value.

A better test is to do multiple independent runs of the test program, each of which uses different initial values to seed the random number generator. This allows some checking that the quality of the result is independent of the seed values, and that subsequences produced by different seeds are uncorrelated. In this case, we can test the deviation from the exact result for each run, as well as for the average over all runs. We can treat the results for each of these N runs as independent data points, so it is very easy to compute an error in the mean for the N combined results (as long as N is large enough to give a reliable error estimate).

In addition, this method provides an additional check for possible discrepancies in the statistical fluctuations expected between the results for each run, by computing the chi-squared per degree of freedom

$$\chi^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(x_i - \langle x \rangle)^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

for the N data points x_i compared to the expected value $\langle x \rangle$ [6]. If the chi-squared value is too large, then on average the values are too far away from the expected result, whereas if the chi-squared is too small, then the results are correlated in some way. $\chi^2 > 2.0$ or $\chi^2 < 0.34$ should occur with probability less than 0.001 for a truly random generator [6]. In previous work on physical tests of sequential random number generators [14], we used this approach with $N = 25$ independent runs. In some cases, the generators passed the simple test of the deviation from the expected value, but failed the chi-squared test.

This kind of chi-squared test can also be used to check for correlations between the random number streams on different processors for a parallel random number generator, by replicating the sequential test across multiple processors. This involves a simple parallelization of the sequential test program, so that an independent run with a separate I/O stream is performed on each processor, and a parallel random number generator is used.

For parallel generators that use independent sequences, the only difference between this parallel test and the use of multiple copies of the sequential generator in the sequential tests is in how the generators on each processor are initialized, however the initialization is crucial for generators of this kind, so this is still a useful test.

We have implemented these replicated sequential tests using the three different Ising model algorithms described in section 3.1. We are also working on a similar implementation of the physical

tests of Vattulainen *et al.* [45]. These tests should be particularly useful for studying the effects of different initializations of parallel generators. This work is still in the early stages, so we cannot present useful results as yet.

3.4 Using Parallel Test Programs

Another approach to testing parallel random number generators is to use parallel versions of the test programs. This may be more effective at finding subtle correlations between random number streams on different processors.

In this case the tests are run and the results analyzed in the same way that the sequential version of the test is run for a sequential generator on a sequential computer. For a physical test such as Monte Carlo simulation of the Ising model, N independent tests are run on a parallel computer with different initial seeds for each test, and the values of the deviation Δ and the chi-squared per degree of freedom χ^2 are computed. We have chosen $N = 25$ for our initial tests. This is perhaps a little small for really accurate estimates of χ^2, and for exploring the effect of different seed values. There is a trade-off here, since increasing N will increase the computational time to do the tests, which is already quite substantial.

For data parallel generators and test programs (e.g. in HPF), the results are independent of the number of physical processors used, so each test could actually be run on a single processor. This may not be the case for message passing (MIMD-style) implementations, so the number of processors used can be an additional test parameter, as well as the problem size (or the number of abstract processors).

As outlined in section 3.1, we have implemented parallel versions of Ising model tests using three different Monte Carlo algorithms. It would also be possible to parallelize other physical tests, such as percolation models.

4 Some Results

We have tested several parallel random number generators using the fully parallel test programs described in section 3.3. This work is still in progress, so only preliminary results are given here. Other parallel random number generators will be tested, and a more comprehensive presentation, comparison and discussion of results will be given in the future [19].

The parallel random number generators were tested using a variety of parallel computers, including Thinking Machines CM-2 and CM-5, Maspar MP-100, Intel iPSC/860, nCUBE/2, IBM SP-2, and DEC Alpha and Sun workstation clusters. The message passing programs were run on 16 processors, except for runs on a 32-processor CM-5. The results of the data parallel programs are dependent on the number of abstract processors, or data elements (the lattice size for this application), rather than the number of physical processors used.

The following parallel random number generators have been tested:

1. `CMF_RANDOM`, a parallel cellular automata generator used on the Connection Machine [11, 47].

2. `CMSSL FAST_RNG`, the lagged Fibonacci generator $F(17, 5, +)$ used in the Connection Machine Scientific Software Library (CMSSL), with the lag recommended in the CMSSL user guide [13], initialized using the `CMF_RANDOM` generator.

3. `CMSSL VP_RNG`, which is the same as `FAST_RNG`, but the LFG is replicated over each virtual (or abstract) processor, rather than each physical processor.

4. `P_RANDOM`, a parallel version of the standard Unix and C lagged Fibonacci generator `random`, replicated over abstract processors. We tested both the original (`P_RANDOM #1`) and the more recent (`P_RANDOM #2`) versions implemented by Maspar [41], which differ in how the seeds are initialized.

5. `PRAND`, the standard 32-bit C and Unix linear congruential generator `RAND`, L(1103515245,12345,$2^{31}-1$), parallelized over physical processors using a leapfrog technique [28].

6. `F(1279,1063,+)`, a lagged Fibonacci generator parallelized using independent sequences, by initializing the seeds on each processor using `PRAND`.

We have used the same techniques for generating and analyzing the data as were used in previous work on Monte Carlo testing of sequential random number generators [14]. For each random number generator, 25 independent simulation runs with different initial seeds were performed for each different test (Metropolis, SW, and Wolff). Each simulation was at least 10^5 Monte Carlo sweeps of a 128×128 lattice at the critical point of the 2-d Ising model. The quantity of random numbers generated for all 25 simulation runs was of order 10^{11} in total for each different test. In some cases we have also tested the generators using alternate lattice sizes (64×64 and 256×256), which can probe for correlations at different scales. The results for the parallel tests are shown in Table 1 for the data parallel (SIMD) results and Table 2 for the message passing (MIMD) results.

One point to note from the results is that good initialization (or seeding) of parallel random number generators is crucial to their performance, particularly for parallel lagged Fibonacci generators, where many seeds need to be assigned on each processor. The original version of `P_RANDOM` for the Maspar had very naive initialization, and the generator was extremely poor. A change to the initialization routines greatly improved the performance, but still not enough for it to pass all the tests.

In some cases, such as `CMF_RANDOM`, the generator only fails the test for certain lattice sizes, passing the Metropolis test for 128^2 but failing for 64^2 and 256^2, so it is useful to try a variety of problem sizes (or abstract processors) in the tests.

If the results are only slightly outside the desired range, as with the χ^2 value for the Metropolis test of `F(1279,1063,+)`, this may be a function of the limited number of tests ($N = 25$). In this case, increasing the number of tests, or increasing the number of iterations for each test, reduced the χ^2 to an acceptable value. For future testing, we will increase the number of tests to at least ($N = 30$).

We might have expected that `PRAND` would fail the tests, since the period of this generator is less than the number of random numbers used in the test. However it is interesting to note that it only fails for the Metropolis test, which tends to be better at picking up correlations in linear congruential generators. Tests on parallel 48-bit LCGs will be done in the near future. The Metropolis test appears to be tougher than the Wolff or SW tests for all the parallel generators tested, which is not the case for Monte Carlo tests of sequential generators [14].

5 Conclusions

Since faster computers and better algorithms are rapidly improving the precision of Monte Carlo and other stochastic simulations in computational science, it is important to continue to search for better parallel random number generators with very long periods, and in particular to make more precise and varied tests of the randomness properties of these generators.

Although a lot of research has been done on developing improved parallel random number generators, little has been done on developing stringent empirical tests for such generators, particularly physical tests based on computational science applications. These have proven to be very useful in identifying problems in sequential random number generators, and parallel versions of physical tests are likely to be equally useful in testing parallel random number generators.

We have described two different types of tests for parallel random number generators – replicated sequential tests and fully parallel tests. We have created parallel implementations using both these approaches for three physical tests, corresponding to three different Monte Carlo algorithms for simulating the 2D Ising model. The fully parallel tests have been applied to several parallel random number generators. Many of the generators failed these tests, indicating that thorough testing of generators is very important, and that physical tests can be very powerful in this regard. For

		Energy		Specific Heat	
Generator	Lattice	SW	Metrop	SW	Metrop
CMF_RANDOM	64×64	-0.96	**-10.68**	0.60	**5.07**
		0.83	**8.75**	0.74	**2.72**
	128×128	1.03	-0.24	0.42	-1.61
		1.20	0.92	1.11	1.49
	256×256	–	**-7.13**	–	1.23
		–	**4.93**	–	**2.41**
CMSSL VP_RNG	64×64	1.28	0.02	0.02	1.24
		1.83	1.02	1.65	1.00
	128×128	-0.17	0.72	2.57	-2.08
		1.37	1.24	1.25	1.83
P_RANDOM #1	128×128	–	**53.04**	–	**-10.34**
		–	**201.83**	–	**17.24**
P_RANDOM #2	128×128	–	1.90	–	-2.55
		–	**3.14**	–	**4.44**
	256×256	–	-0.20	–	-1.64
		–	**4.47**	–	**7.74**

Table 1: Results of Monte Carlo simulations of the 2-d Ising model using different data parallel random number generators on SIMD parallel computers. The first line for each generator shows the deviation of the Monte Carlo results from the exact values, as a multiple of the error in the mean. The second line shows the χ^2 per degree of freedom. A dash means the test has not been done. Numbers in bold type indicate results which would occur with a statistical probability of less than 0.001 for true random sequences.

		Energy			Specific Heat		
Generator	Lattice	SW	Wolff	Metrop	SW	Wolff	Metrop
CMSSL FAST_RNG	64×64	0.06	-0.99	**-7.33**	-0.30	0.34	1.93
		0.79	1.27	**5.82**	1.19	1.64	1.16
	128×128	**-5.82**	-0.21	-1.97	-1.46	0.99	-0.30
		1.95	0.17	1.00	-1.46	1.23	0.52
F(1279,1063,+)	64×64	0.03	0.09	-1.30	1.72	-0.63	0.56
		1.05	0.93	0.36	0.83	1.22	0.89
	128×128	1.02	-0.35	0.96	1.05	0.60	0.63
		1.48	0.93	**2.35**	0.69	1.24	1.27
PRAND	64×64	-0.27	0.66	**6.97**	1.13	-0.23	**-4.88**
		1.07	1.26	**5.28**	1.09	1.57	**5.17**
	128×128	-1.88	–	**221.6**	-0.07	–	**-55.21**
		0.79	–	**10350**	0.85	–	**629.6**

Table 2: As for Table 1, but for message passing implementations of parallel random number generators on MIMD parallel computers.

example, the Connection Machine generators `CMF_RANDOM` and `FAST_RNG` have passed many standard statistical tests, but failed the Ising model Monte Carlo tests.

The quality of a parallel random number generator can be heavily dependent on the initialization of the generator. We plan to study this further in the future, particularly using the replicated sequential tests.

One lesson from these results is not to trust random number generators provided by computer vendors. In the past, many inadequate generators have been provided or recommended for sequential computers [37, 43], and a similar problem is occurring with generators for parallel and vector machines. This can cause problems for parallel applications in computational science and engineering, particularly large-scale Monte Carlo simulations.

Problems in random number generators may not show up in empirical tests until large quantities of random numbers are used. Statistical tests of commonly-used generators that were done many years ago on outdated sequential computers using perhaps a few million random numbers are likely to be irrelevant when a parallel version of the generator is used for large-scale Monte Carlo simulations on modern-day supercomputers, which may use more than 10^{12} random numbers. Empirical tests should be periodically repeated using faster computers and larger quantities of random numbers, which better reflect the conditions to which they are subjected in current computational science applications.

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