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# On a Periodic Property of Pseudo-Random Sequences 

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The sequence $u_{2}(i=1,2, \cdots)$ formed by taking the principal remainders modulo $n$ of $a^{\prime}$, where $n$ and $a$ are relatively prime positive integers, may be shown to be periodic of period $\delta$, where $\delta$ is the smallest positive integer satisfying

$$
a^{8} \equiv 1(\bmod n)
$$

When $\delta$ is defined in this way, $a$ is said to belong to the exponent $\delta$ modulo $n$.
It has been suggested by Lehmer [7] that, provided $\delta$ is reasonably large, the numbers $u_{i} n^{-1}$ may be used as uniform variates in the range ( $0 \rightarrow 1$ ).

In section 1 we shall give a general method for evaluating $\delta$ and in section 2 the results of some of the well-known tests for randomness performed on digits generated by this multiplicative congruence method when the multiplier $a$ is chosen to be $3^{19}$ in order to give a sequence of maximum period for $n=10^{\circ}$.

## 1. Evaluation of $\delta$

Juncosa [4] has discussed the problem of choosing $a$ so that $\delta$ is a maximum for $n=10^{\circ}$ and Moshman [8] has calculated $\delta$ for $a=7^{4 k+1}$ and $n=10^{\circ}$. Lehmer showed that, when $n=10^{8}+1, \delta$ is a maximum if $a=23$.

The following definitions and theorems I to VI are well known (see, for example, Nagell [9]). Theorems VII, VIII and IX may easily be proved, or references to them may be found in Dickson [2].

In the following discussion, unless otherwise stated, all numbers considered are positive integers.

Definition: Euler's $\phi$-function, $\phi(n)$, is defined as the number of positive integers, including 1 , less than and relatively prime to $n$.

Theorem I: If $n$ has as distinct prime factors only $p_{1}, p_{2}, \cdots, p_{r}$, then

$$
\phi(n)=n\left(1-\frac{1}{p_{1}}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{p_{2}}\right)(\cdots \cdots)\left(1-\frac{1}{p_{r}}\right) .
$$

Theorem II: If a is relatively prime to $n$, then

$$
a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1(\bmod n)
$$

Theorem III: If $a^{x} \equiv 1(\bmod n)$, then $x$ is a multiple of $\delta$.
Corollary: $\delta$ is a divisor of $\phi(n)$.
Definition: If $\delta=\phi(n)$, then $a$ is called a primitive root of $n$.
Theorem IV: Let $n$ be greater than 1, and a be prime to $n$. If a belongs to the exponent $\delta$ modulo $n$ and if the highest common factor of $m$ and $\delta$ equals $\mu$, then $a^{m}$ belongs to the exponent $\frac{\alpha}{\mu}$ modulo $n$.

Theorem V: The number $n$ has primitive roots if and only if $n$ can be expressed in one of the forms 2, $4, p^{s}, 2 p^{s}$, where $p$ is an odd prime.

Theorem VI: If a is a primitive root of the odd prime $p$, and if $a^{p-1}-1$ is not divisible by $p^{2}$, then a is a primitive root of $p^{\prime}$.

Let $\delta(n, a)$ denote the exponent modulo $n$ to which $a$ belongs.
Theorem VII: If $p$ is an odd prime and $a$ is prime to $p$ and if $r$ is such that $p^{r}$ is the largest power of $p$ which divides $a^{\delta(p, a)}-1$, then

$$
\delta\left(p^{*}, a\right)= \begin{cases}p^{a-r} \delta(p, a) & \text { if } s>r \\ \delta(p, a) & \text { if } s \leqq r\end{cases}
$$

Notice that theorem VI is simply a particular case of theorem VII.
Theorem VIII: Let $r$ be greater than 1.
(i) If $a$ is congruent to +1 modulo $2^{r}$ but not $2^{r+1}$, then

$$
\delta\left(2^{s}, a\right)= \begin{cases}2^{s-r} & \text { if } s>r \\ 1 & \text { if } s \leqq r\end{cases}
$$

(ii) If $a$ is congruent to -1 modulo $2^{r}$ but not $2^{r+1}$, then

$$
\delta\left(2^{s}, a\right)= \begin{cases}2^{s-r} & \text { if } s>r \\ 1 & \text { if } s=1 \\ 2 & \text { if } 1<s \leqq r\end{cases}
$$

Theorem IX: If $n=n_{1} \cdot n_{2}$ where $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ are relatively prime, then

$$
\delta(n, a)=1 . c . \mathrm{m} . \quad \text { of } \quad \delta\left(n_{1}, a\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \delta\left(n_{2}, a\right)
$$

Now if $n=2^{s}$ (a convenient choice for a binary machine), theorem VIII gives the period of the sequence immediately.

When $n=10^{s}, \delta$ is a divisor of $4 \cdot 10^{s-1}$, by theorems I and II, and if $s>1$, $10^{8}$ has no primitive roots so that $\delta<4 \cdot 10^{3-1}$.

Now, by theorem IX, $\delta\left(10^{3}, a\right)=1 . c . m$. of $\delta\left(2^{3}, a\right)$ and $\delta\left(5^{a}, a\right)$, and if $5^{r}$ is the largest power of 5 dividing $a^{\delta(5, a)}-1$, and $2^{t}$ is the largest power of 2 dividing ( $a \pm 1$ ), and $s>r, t$, then

$$
\delta\left(10^{s}, a\right)=1 . c . m . \quad \text { of } 2^{s-t} \text { and } 5^{s-r} \delta(5, a)
$$

Since $\delta(5, a)$ is a divisor of 4 , put $\delta(5, a)=2^{\gamma}$ where $\gamma=0,1,2$.

$$
\delta\left(10^{s}, a\right)= \begin{cases}5^{s-r} \cdot 2^{s-t} & \text { if } s-t \geqq \gamma \\ 5^{\Delta r} \cdot 2^{\gamma} & \text { if } s-t<\gamma\end{cases}
$$

If we choose $a=7$, then $\gamma=2$ (since $\delta(5,7)=4$ ) and $r=2$ and $t=3$ so that

$$
\delta\left(10^{*}, 7\right)= \begin{cases}5 \cdot 10^{s-3} & \text { if } s \geqq 5 \\ 100 & \text { if } s=4\end{cases}
$$

and by using theorems VII and VIII for $s \leqq r, t$,

$$
\delta\left(10^{s}, 7\right)=\left\{\begin{aligned}
20 & \text { if } s=3 \\
4 & \text { if } s=1,2
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

Now by theorem IV,

$$
\delta\left(10^{*}, 7^{5}\right)= \begin{cases}4 & \text { if } s=1,2,3 \\ 20 & \text { if } s=4, \\ 10^{5-3} & \text { if } s \geqq 5\end{cases}
$$

which disagrees with Moshman's [8] result. The reason for this is as follows.
Moshman states that if $5^{q}$ is the highest power of 5 dividing $\left(7^{4}\right)^{4 k+1}-1$ then $q$ is given by $q=2+\left[\frac{k}{6}\right]$, where $[t]$ is the greatest integer less than or equal to $t$. This can be seen not to hold for the particular case $k=1$.

The correct expression for $q$ is a particular case of the following theorem.
Theorem X: If the highest power of $p$, an odd prime, dividing $x-1$ is $p^{\xi}$, and the highest dividing $y$ is $p^{\eta}$, where $x, y$ and $\xi$ are positive integers and $\eta$ is a positive integer or zero, then the highest power of $p$ dividing $x^{\nu}-1$ is $p^{\xi+7}$.

Proof: Put $x-1=\alpha p^{\xi}$ and $y=\beta p^{\eta}$, where $\alpha, \beta$ are not divisible by $p$.
Now $x^{y}-1=\left(1+\alpha p^{\xi}\right)^{\beta p^{\eta}}-1=\alpha \beta p^{\xi+\eta}+$ terms of higher order in $p$.
This also holds for $p=2$ if $\xi>1$. Thus $q=2+\eta$ where $5^{\eta}$ is the highest power of 5 dividing $4 k+1$.

Now the maximum value of $\delta\left(10^{A}, a\right)$ is given by

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
5 \cdot 10^{s-2} & \text { if } s \geqq 4 \\
100 & \text { if } s=3, \\
20 & \text { if } s=2, \\
4 & \text { if } s=1 .
\end{array}\right.
$$

For $\delta\left(10^{z}, a\right)$ to attain these values, $a$ must be chosen so that $\delta(5, a)=4$, $r=1$ and $t=2$. That is, $a$ is a primitive root of 5 and such that $a^{4}-1$ is not divisible by $5^{2}$ and neither $a+1$ nor $a-1$ is divisible by 8 . A possible value for $a$ is 3 .

Notice that the period of individual digits may be found by considering appropriate values of $s$. For example the maximum period of the least significant digit is 4 .

If we are interested only in values of $s \geqq 4$ (that is, we discard the least significant digits because of their shorter periods), we can attain the maximum period of $5 \cdot 10^{s-2}$ by choosing $a$ so that $r=1$ and $t=2$ and $\delta(5, a)$ may be 1 or 2. A possible value for $a$ is then 11 .

Also by theorem IV, if $a$ is chosen to give the maximum period then $a^{m}$, where $m$ is relatively prime to 10 , will also give this maximum period.

To start at a different part of the sequence $a^{i}(i=1,2, \cdots)$ we may choose $i$, in some random manner, and the principal remainder modulo $10^{x}$ of $a^{2}$ may be evaluated on a desk calculator. Or we may generate numbers $u_{i}(i=0,1$, $2, \cdots$ ) which are the principal remainders modulo $10^{8}$ of $a^{i} b$ where $b$ is randomly chosen to be relatively prime to 10 . Depending on the value of $b$, we obtain numbers from some part of eight sequences, each having a period of $5 \cdot 10^{\alpha-2}$, which exhaust the $4 \cdot 10^{\alpha-1}$ numbers less than and relatively prime to $10^{\circ}$.

If $d_{2}$ is the $i$ th digit of the number $a^{\tau} \cdot b$, and the period of the number $\sum_{i=1}^{m} d_{2} 10^{i-1}$ (that is, the number consisting of the first $m$ digits of $a^{r} \cdot b$ ) is denoted by $\delta$, then provided $m \geqq \gamma+t$ (where $\gamma$ and $t$ are as defined in above) the period of the number $\sum_{i=1}^{m+n} d_{2} 10^{i-1}$ is $10^{n} \cdot \delta$ when $n \geqq 1$.

Hence each one of the $10^{n}$ possible values of $\sum_{i=m+1}^{m+n} d_{i} 10^{i-1}$ must occur with all $\delta$ possible values of $\sum_{i=1}^{m} d_{i} 10^{i-1}$. This means that when using

$$
10^{-(m+n)} \sum_{i=m+1}^{m+n} d_{1} 10^{2-1}
$$

as a random number we know that all possible numbers occur with equal frequencies in a complete period.

## 2. Tests for Randomness

24,000 pseudo-random numbers were generated using a multiplier, a, equal to $3^{19}$ and taking $s$ equal to 20 . For the first $4,000, b$ was chosen to be 1 and for succeeding groups of $4,000, b$ was chosen each time to be a random 20 -digit number (using the Rand tables [9]). From each group of 1,00020 -digit numbers, 10 sequences of 1,000 digits were obtained, each sequence corresponding to a particular digit position from the 10 most significant.

These sequences were subjected to the frequency, serial and gap tests as described by Kendall and Babington-Smith [5]. The serial test was modified in the following way as suggested by Good [3].

Let $n$, be the number of digits equal to $i$ and $\bar{n}_{t}$, be the number of ( $i j$ ) sequences in a random cyclic sequence of length $N$.

Let

$$
\psi_{1}^{2}=\sum_{i=0}^{9} \frac{\left(n_{i}-N \cdot 10^{-1}\right)^{2}}{N \cdot 10^{-1}}
$$

and

$$
\bar{\psi}_{2}^{2}=\sum_{(i,)} \frac{\left(\bar{n}_{i j}-N \cdot 10^{-2}\right)^{2}}{N \cdot 10^{-2}}
$$

where ( $i j$ ) runs through its $10^{2}$ possible values.
Now $\psi_{1}{ }^{2}$ has asymptotically a $\chi_{9}{ }^{2}$ distribution (a chi-squared distribution with 9 degrees of freedom) and $\bar{\psi}_{2}^{2}$ has been considered to have asymptotically a $\chi_{90}^{2}$ distribution. However, Good [3] has shown that the expected value of $\bar{\psi}_{2}{ }^{2}$ is 99 and that it is reasonable to expect that $\nabla \bar{\psi}_{2}{ }^{2}=\bar{\psi}_{2}{ }^{2}-\bar{\psi}_{1}{ }^{2}$ has asymptotically a $\chi_{90}^{2}$ distribution. Billingsley [1] has found the asymptotic distribution of $\bar{\psi}_{2}^{2}$ and we have shown (in work to be published) that, in fact, $\nabla \bar{\psi}_{2}{ }^{2}$ has asymptotically a $\chi_{90}^{2}$ distribution. We have used $\nabla \bar{\psi}_{2}{ }^{2}$ for the test statistic of the serial test.

To test whether the numbers $u_{i} 10^{-20}$ might be used as uniform variates, the frequencies with which these numbers fell in the classes $r \cdot 10^{-2}$ to $(r+1) \cdot 10^{-2}$ where $r=0,1, \cdots, 99$ were found and a goodness-of-fit test was carried out for each 1,000 numbers.

The results of these tests were as follows.

Frequency test. Of the 240 values of $\psi_{1}{ }^{2}$, seven were found to be greater than 16.919, the 5 per cent critical value of a $\chi_{9}{ }^{2}$ distribution.

Serial test. Of the 240 values of $\nabla \bar{\psi}_{2}^{\prime}$, nine were found to be greater than 113.14 , the 5 per cent critical value of a $\chi_{90}^{2}$ distribution (using the Wilson and Hilferty approximation [6]).

A $\chi_{11}^{2}$ test, used to examine the goodness of fit of the $\nabla \bar{\psi}_{2}{ }^{2}$ values obtained to a $\chi_{90}^{2}$ distribution, yielded a value of 12.315 .

Gap test. The numbers of gaps between zeros of sizes 0 to 99 were found. Some of these 100 classes were paoled so that the expected frequency in each class should be at least 1 . The $240 \chi_{29}^{2}$ goodness-of-fit tests then yielded nine values greater than the 5 per cent critical value of 42.577 .

Uniform test. The $24 \chi_{99}^{2}$ goodness-of-fit tests yielded two values greater than the 5 per cent critical value of 123.22 .

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