## INF 554: Using randomness in algorithms

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The goal of this course is to present a formal definition of randomized algorithms and some easy applications.

# 1.1 An introducing example: Freival's Algorithm

### Decision problem:

- input: A, B and C,  $n \times n$  matrices over an arbitrary ring
- output: decide if  $A \times B = C$

Remarks: since 2011 with an improvement from Virginia Williams, an explicit matrix multiplication has an asymptotic complexity of  $O(n^{2.3727})$ .

#### Freivald's test:

- Choose  $r \in \{0,1\}^n$
- Evaluate u = Cr, v = Br and w = Av
- Return ACCEPT if u = w, else REJECT

This algorithm uses  $O(n^2)$  additions and multiplications on the coefficients.

**Theorem 1.1.** Freivald's algorithm has a one-sided error:

- If AB = C,  $\mathbb{P}(algorithm\ accepts) = 1$
- If  $AB \neq C$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(algorithm\ rejects) \geq \frac{1}{2}$

Remarks: If  $AB \neq C$ , since this algorithm has an one-sided error, by running k independent executions we have  $\mathbb{P}(\text{algorithm accepts after k independent executions}) \leq 1/2^k$ . In practice k = 100 is acceptable. For comparison, cosmic rays induce errors on computer with larger probability. In 1996, a studies by IBM revealed that they induced one error per 256 megabytes of RAM per month, which means a probability of  $1.4 \times 10^{-15}$  per byte per second, which is greater than  $2^{-49}$ . Another comparison on large number, is that  $2^{100}$  is far greater than the age of the universe in second, which is less than  $2^6$ 0 (for now...).

#### **Proof:**

• If AB = C then u = Cr = (AB)r = A(Br) = Av = w thus  $\mathbb{P}(\text{algorithm accepts}) = 1$ .

• If  $AB \neq C$ : Particular case on  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ 

Let  $F = \{r \in \{0,1\}^n : (A*B)r = Cr\} \subseteq 0,1^n$ .  $F \neq \{0,1\}^n$  and F is a subspace of vector space  $\{0,1\}^n$ . Thus using Lagrange's Theorem we have  $|F| \leq \frac{1}{2} |\{0,1\}^n|$ 

Hence  $\mathbb{P}(\text{algorithm accepts}) = \mathbb{P}(r \in F) \leq \frac{|F|}{|0.1^n|} \leq \frac{1}{2}$ 

• If  $AB \neq C$ : general case

Assume there are two indices i and j such that  $(AB)_{ij} \neq C_{ij}$ . Let D = C - AB. Then  $D_{ij} \neq 0, D \neq 0$ . We want to prove  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in \{0,1\}^n}[Dr = 0] \leq \frac{1}{2}$ .

$$(Dr)_i = \sum_k D_{ik} r_k = D_{ij} r_j + f((r_k)_{k \neq j})$$

$$\mathbb{P}\left[Dr=0\right] \leq \mathbb{P}\left[(Dr)_i=0\right]$$

Fix  $r_1, \ldots, r_n$  excepts  $r_j$ . Then  $v = f((r_k)_{k \neq j})$ .

- If  $v = -D_{ij}$ : if  $r_j = 0$  then  $(Dr)_i \neq 0$ , if  $r_j = 1$  then  $(Dr)_i = D_{ij} D_{ij} = 0$ . Conditional probability of  $(Dr)_i = 0$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$ .
- If v=0: if  $r_j=0$  then  $(Dr)_i=0$ , if  $r_j=1$  then  $(Dr)_i=D_{ij}\neq 0$ . Conditional probability of  $(Dr)_i = 0$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$ .
- Otherwise: for  $r_i = 0, 1 (Dr)_i \neq 0$ .

$$\mathbb{P}\left[ (Dr)_i = 0 \right] \le \frac{1}{2}$$

#### Formal basis 1.2

#### 1.2.1Deterministic and randomized algorithms

# Deterministic algorithm

Input: 
$$x \longrightarrow$$
 Algorithm Output

Goal:

- correctly solve the problem on all inputs
- efficiently (wished): linear or polynomial time on input size

## Randomized algorithm

A randomized algorithm, compared to a deterministic algorithm, has an additional input: the random variable r. We suppose that we have access to a source of uniform random bits or integers (which is basically equivalent).

#### Remarks:

- Behaviour depends on both x and r.
- ullet Once r is fixed, the algorithm is deterministic.
- We do not know yet how to generate random numbers with computers, we have only access to pseudo-random generators.

Input: 
$$x \longrightarrow Algorithm \longrightarrow Output$$

Random bits / integers:  $r$ 

Goal: find a randomized algo such that on all inputs x and given a time T:

- Monte Carlo algorithms:
  - $-\mathbb{P}[A(x,r) \text{ is correct}] \geq \frac{2}{3}$
  - $\forall r$  execution time of  $A(x,r) \leq T$
- Las Vegas algorithms:
  - $\forall r, A(x,r)$  is correct
  - $\mathbb{E}_r(\text{execution time of } A(x,r)) \leq T$

# 1.2.2 Monte-Carlo algorithms

#### One-sided error

**Definition 1.2.** A Monte-Carlo algorithm is said to have an one-sided error if it verify one of the following:

- It is always correct when returning ACCEPT (true-biased)
- It is always correct when returning REJECT (false-biased)

**Example:** matrix product (true-biased one-sided error algorithm)

- If AB = C then  $\mathbb{P}(Algorithm \text{ on } (A, B, C) \text{ accepts}) = 1$
- Else  $\mathbb{P}(Algorithm on (A, B, C) reject) \geq \frac{1}{2}$

### Success probability amplification

Since  $\mathbb{P}[A(x,r) \text{ is correct}] \geq \frac{2}{3}$ , you can amplify the probability of a correct answer by doing k independent executions of the algorithm and returning the most answered output.

# 1.3 Reminder on probabilities

## 1.3.1 Definitions

• Discrete random variable X (finite) from  $\Omega$  (finite)

Example: random bit B on  $\Omega = \{0, 1\}$ 

- Stochastic process:  $(X_t)_{t\in T}$  with  $T\in \mathbb{N}$
- Halting time  $\tau$  such as  $\tau = t$  depends only from  $X_1, ..., X_t$

Example:  $\tau$ : time to get a 0 from a random bit stream,  $\mathbb{E}(\tau) = 2$ 

$$- \mathbb{P}[\tau = 1] = 1/2$$

$$- \mathbb{P}[\tau = 2] = 1/4$$

$$-\mathbb{P}[\tau=k]=1/2^k$$

$$-\mathbb{E}(\tau) = \sum_{k} k \mathbb{P}[\tau = k] = 2$$

## 1.3.2 Bernoulli

**Theorem 1.3.** If  $\mathbb{P}[B_t = 0] = p$ , then  $\mathbb{E}(\tau) = 1/p$ 

# Application

Let  $\Omega = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , X a discrete random value from  $\omega$ ,  $X_1, ..., X_t$  a stochastic process Let  $\tau$  be the smallest t such as  $\{X_1, ..., X_t\} = \Omega$ 

Then  $\mathbb{E}(\tau) \approx nlog(n)$ 

#### Proof

 $au = \sum_{i=1}^n au_i$  with  $au_i$  time to get a new value knowing we already have i-1 different values. Then  $\mathbb{P}( au_i) = \frac{n-i+1}{n}$  and using the theorem we have  $\mathbb{E}( au_i) = \frac{n}{n-i+1}$  Hence  $\mathbb{E}( au) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}( au_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{n}{n-i+1} \approx nlog(n)$ 

# 1.3.3 Markov inequality

**Theorem 1.4.**  $X \geq 0$  a discrete random variable,  $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X)$ . Then  $\forall a > 0, \mathbb{P}(X > a\mu) \leq \frac{1}{a}$ 

## 1.3.4 Chernoff bound

**Theorem 1.5.**  $X_1, ..., X_n$  independent random variables from  $\{0, 1\}$  such as  $\forall i, \mathbb{P}[X_i = 1] = \mu_i = \mathbb{E}(X_i)$ . Let  $X = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_i$  and  $\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum \mu_i = \mathbb{E}(X)$ Then  $\forall \delta > 0, \mathbb{P}[|X - \mu| \ge \delta \mu] \le 2^{-\mu \delta^2 n/3}$ 

# 1.4 Application: Primality testing

Decision problem:

- input: an integer  $N \ge 2$
- $\bullet$  output: decide if N is prime

N is  $n = log_2(N)$  long. The sieve of Eratosthenes gives a result in  $\sqrt{N}$  steps which is too long  $(O(2^{n/2}))$  operations).

# 1.4.1 Fermat's little theorem approach

Fermat's little theorem

**Theorem 1.6.**  $p \geq 2$  prime number  $\Rightarrow \forall a \in [1, p-1], a^{p-1} = 1[p]$ 

### Tentative algorithm

Primality test algorithm:

- Input:  $N \ge 2$
- Select a random  $a \in [1, N-1]$
- If  $a \wedge N \neq 1$  then reject (in this case N is not prime, because  $(a \wedge N)|N)$
- Compute  $a^{N-1}$  with rapid exponentiation:  $a^{2r} = (a^r)^2$ ,  $a^{2r+1} = a(a^r)^2$
- Accept if  $a^{N-1} = 1[N]$ , otherwise reject

Remarks:

- Running time is  $O(\log N)$ .
- $\bullet\,$  If N is prime then the algorithm accepts N with probability 1.

#### Algorithm's proof

**Lemma 1.7.** Assume there is  $1 \le a < N$  such that  $a \wedge N = 1$  and  $a^{N-1} \ne 1[N]$ . Then  $\underset{1 \le a < N}{\mathbb{P}}[a^{N-1} = 1[N] | a \wedge N = 1] \le \frac{1}{2}$ 

**Proof:** Let  $G = \{b \in \{1, ..., N-1\} | GCD(b, N) = 1\}$ . G is an abelian group for the operation (X mod N). Let  $F = \{b \in G | b^{N-1} = 1[N]\}$ .  $F \neq G$  and F is a subgroup hence  $|F| \leq 1/2|G|$  (Lagrange's Theorem)

**Corollary 1.8.** Assume there is  $1 \le a < N$  such that  $a \land N = 1$  and  $a^{N-1} \ne 1[N]$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(\text{algorithm accepts } N) \le \frac{1}{2}$ 

**Proof:** Take N non prime such that there is  $1 \le a < N$  such that  $a \land N = 1$  and  $a^{N-1} \ne 1$  [N]

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbb{P}(algorithm\ accepts\ N) &=& \mathbb{P}(a \wedge N = 1\ and\ a^{N-1} = 1\ [N]) \\ &=& \underbrace{\mathbb{P}(a^{N-1} = 1\ [N]\ | a \wedge N = 1)}_{\leq \frac{1}{2}} \times \underbrace{\mathbb{P}(a \wedge N = 1)}_{\leq 1} \\ &\leq& \frac{1}{2} \end{array}$$

#### Carmichael number

**Definition 1.9.** An non-prime integer N is a Carmichael number if all  $1 \le a < N$  such that  $a \land N = 1$  satisfy  $a^{N-1} \ne 1[N]$ .

The smallest Carmichael number is  $561 = 3 \times 11 \times 17$ . There are 255 Carmichael number  $\leq 100000000$ 

#### 1.4.2 Miller-Rabin test

**Lemma 1.10.** If p is prime then the only solution of  $x^2 = 1[p]$  are  $\pm 1 \mod p$ .

## Algorithm

- Input:  $N \geq 2$
- If N=2, ACCEPT. Otherwise if 2|N, REJECT.
- Take  $a \in [2, N-1]$  uniformly at random.
- If  $a \wedge N \neq 1$ , REJECT
- Let  $N-1=2^t u$   $(t \geq 1 \text{ since } N \text{ is odd})$ . Compute  $b=a^u$ . Let  $i \leq t$  be the smallest integer such that  $b^{2^i}=1$ .

- If i does not exist, REJECT (since  $b^{2^t} \neq 1[N]$ , Fermat's test fails)
- If i = 0 or  $b^{2^{i-1}} = -1$ , ACCEPT
- Otherwise, REJECT

Remark: Running time is  $O(\log N)$ .