



Chapter 7 Randomization

Algorithm Theory WS 2018/19

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Randomized Algorithm:

 An algorithm that uses (or can use) random coin flips in order to make decisions

We will see: randomization can be a powerful tool to

- Make algorithms faster
- Make algorithms simpler
- Make the analysis simpler
 - Sometimes it's also the opposite...
- Allow to solve problems (efficiently) that cannot be solved (efficiently) without randomization
 - True in some computational models (e.g., for distributed algorithms)
 - Not clear in the standard sequential model

Contention Resolution



A simple starter example (from distributed computing)

- Allows to introduce important concepts
- ... and to repeat some basic probability theory

Setting: (usdes)

- *n* processes, 1 resource
 (e.g., <u>communication channel</u>, shared database, ...)
- There are time slots 1,2,3, ...
- In each time slot, only one <u>client</u> can access the resource
- All clients need to regularly access the resource
- If client *i* tries to access the resource in slot *t*:
 - Successful iff no other client tries to access the resource in slot t

Algorithm



Algorithm Ideas:

- Accessing the resource deterministically seems hard
 - need to make sure that processes access the resource at different times
 - or at least: often only a single process tries to access the resource
- Randomized solution:

In each time slot, each process tries with probability p.

Analysis:

- How large should *p* be?
- How long does it take until some process *i* succeeds?
- How long does it take until all processes succeed?
- What are the probabilistic guarantees?

Analysis



Events:

• $\mathcal{A}_{\underline{x},\underline{t}}$: process \underline{x} tries to access the resource in time slot \underline{t} – Complementary event: $\overline{\mathcal{A}_{x,t}}$

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}_{x,t}) = p, \qquad \mathbb{P}(\overline{\mathcal{A}_{x,t}}) = 1 - p$$

 $S_{x,t}$: process x is successful in time slot t $S_{x,t} = \mathcal{A}_{x,t} \cap \left(\bigcap_{y \neq x} \overline{\mathcal{A}_{y,t}} \right) \stackrel{\mathcal{A}_{x,t}}{=} \stackrel{\mathcal{A}_{y,t}}{\stackrel{\mathcal{A}_{y,t}}{=}}$ are independent choose p s.t. $\mathbb{P}(S_{x,t})$ is maximized $P = \frac{1}{n}$ **Success probability** (for process *x*):

$$\mathbb{P}(S_{x,t}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}_{x,t}) \cdot \prod_{y \neq x} \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}_{y,t}) = \mathbb{P} \cdot (1-p)^{n-1}$$

Fixing p



•
$$\mathbb{P}(S_{x,t}) = p(1-p)^{n-1}$$
 is maximized for
 $p = \frac{1}{n} \implies \mathbb{P}(S_{x,t}) = \frac{1}{n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n-1}$.

• Asymptotics:

For
$$n \ge 2$$
: $\frac{1}{4} \le \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^n < \frac{1}{e} < \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n-1} \le \frac{1}{2}$

• Success probability:

$$\frac{1}{en} < \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{S}_{x,t}) \leq \frac{1}{2n}$$

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Time Until First Success $q = \Pr(S_{x,t}) = \frac{1}{n} (1 - \frac{1}{n})^{n-1}$



Random Variable T_{χ} :

- $T_x = t$ if proc. x is successful in slot t for the first time
- Distribution:

$$P(T_{x}=1)=q, P(T_{x}=2)=(1-q)\cdot q, P(T_{x}=t)=(1-q)^{t-1}\cdot q$$

• T_x is geometrically distributed with parameter

$$\underline{q} = \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{S}_{x,t}) = \frac{1}{n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n-1} > \frac{1}{en}$$

• **Expected time** until first success:

$$\mathbb{E}[T_x] = \frac{1}{q} < \underbrace{en}_{\text{Eabian Kubn}}$$

Time Until First Success

Failure Event $\mathcal{F}_{x,t}$: Process x does not succeed in time slots $\underline{1, \dots, t}$ $\mathcal{F}_{x,t} = \bigcap_{F=1}^{t} S_{x,F}$

• The events $S_{x,t}$ are independent for different t:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{F}_{x,t}) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{r=1}^{t} \overline{S_{x,r}}\right) = \prod_{r=1}^{t} \mathbb{P}(\overline{S_{x,r}}) = \left(1 - \mathbb{P}(\underline{S_{x,r}})\right)^{t}$$

$$\forall_{x \in \mathbb{R}} : \underline{I + x \in e^{x}}$$

• We know that $\mathbb{P}(S_{x,r}) > \frac{1}{e^{n}}$:
$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{F}_{x,t}) < \left(1 - \frac{1}{e^{n}}\right)^{t} < e^{-t/e^{n}}$$

$$\mathbf{F}_{abian Kuhn}$$

Time Until First Success



No success by time $t: \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{F}_{x,t}) < \underline{e^{-t/en}}$ $t = [en]: \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{F}_{x,t}) < \frac{1}{e}$

 $C^{clun} = (e^{lun})^{c} = n^{c}$

C can only affect the hidden coust

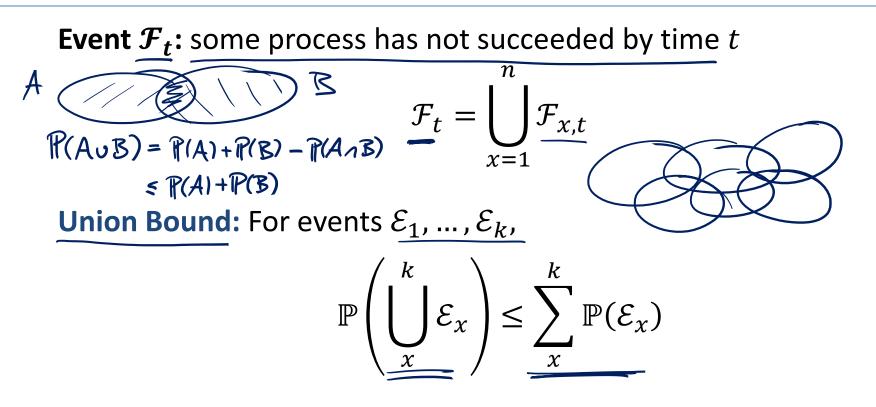
• Generally if $t = \Theta(n)$: constant success probability

$$t \ge en \cdot c \cdot \ln n: \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{F}_{x,t}) < \frac{1}{e^{c \cdot \ln n}} = \frac{1}{n^c}$$

- For success probability $1 \frac{1}{n^c}$, we need $\underline{t} = \Theta(n \log n)$.
- We say that x succeeds with high probability in $O(n \log n)$ time.

Time Until All Processes Succeed





Probability that not all processes have succeeded by time t:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{F}_{t}) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{x=1}^{n} \mathcal{F}_{x,t}\right) \leq \sum_{x=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{F}_{x,t}) < \underbrace{n \cdot e^{-t/en}}_{\text{has be for small}}$$
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10

Time Until All Processes Succeed



Claim: With high probability, all processes succeed in the first $O(n \log n)$ time slots.

Proof:

• $\frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{F}_t) < n \cdot e^{-t/en}}{\operatorname{Set} t = [en \cdot (c+1) \ln n]}$ • $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{F}_t) < n \cdot e^{-(c+1) \ln n} = n \cdot \frac{1}{n^{c+1}} = \frac{1}{n^c}$ $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{F}_t) > 1 - \frac{1}{n^c}$

Remark: $\Theta(n \log n)$ time slots are necessary for all processes to succeed with reasonable probability

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Primality Testing

Problem: Given a natural number $n \ge 2$, is n a prime number?

Simple primality test:

$$n = a \cdot b$$

- 1. **if** *n* is even **then**
- 2. return (n = 2)
- 3. for $i \coloneqq 1$ to $\lfloor \sqrt{n}/2 \rfloor$ do
- 4. **if** 2i + 1 divides *n* **then**
- 5. return false
- 6. return true

• Running time: $O(\sqrt{n})$



A Better Algorithm?



- How can we test primality efficiently?
- We need a little bit of basic number theory...

Square Roots of Unity: In \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*} , where p is a prime, the only solutions of the equation $x^{2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ are $x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}$ $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*} = \frac{1}{2} (\mod p)$ are $x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}$ $x^{2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ $x^{2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ $x^{2} = 1 \pmod{p}$ $(x+i)(x-i) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \implies (x+i)(t-i) \equiv C \cdot P$ $(x+i)(x-i) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \implies (x+i)(t-i) \equiv C \cdot P$ p has to be a prime factor p has to be a prime factor p = 15x = 4 $x^{2} \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ x = 4 $x^{2} \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$

• If we find an $x \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}$ such that $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, we can conclude that n is not a prime.

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Proof: recall
$$x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \implies x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{q}$$

• Fermat's Little Theorem: Given a prime number p ,
 $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*: a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
 $\downarrow + 1 \pmod{p} \implies \frac{p^{-1}}{2} = d (s^{-1}) \implies a^{d} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
 $\downarrow w^{1re \ down \ i} \qquad p^{-1} = d (s^{-1}) \implies a^{d} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
 $\downarrow x^{1} = 2^{s^{-1}} d \qquad p^{-1} = 2^{s^{-1}} d$

integer $s \ge 1$ and some odd integer $d \ge 3$. Then for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$,

 $a^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ or $a^{2^r d} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ for some $0 \le r < s$.

Claim: Let p > 2 be a prime number such that $p - 1 = 2^{s}d$ for an

= ~1, ..., P-'3

11



Primality Test



We have: If n is an odd prime and $n - 1 = 2^{s}d$ for an integer $s \ge 1$ and an odd integer $d \ge 3$. Then for all $a \in \{1, ..., n - 1\}$,

 $\implies a^d \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ or $a^{2^r d} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$ for some $0 \le r < s$.

Idea: If we find an $a \in \{1, ..., n-1\}$ such that $a^{d} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ and $a^{2^{r}d} \not\equiv -1 \pmod{n}$ for all $0 \leq r < s$, we can conclude that n is not a prime.

- For every odd composite n > 2, at least $\frac{3}{4}$ of all possible a satisfy the above condition
- How can we find such a *witness a* efficiently?

Miller-Rabin Primality Test

- Given a natural number $n \ge 2$, is n a prime number?

Miller-Rabin Test:

- 1. **if** n is even **then return** (n = 2)
- 2. compute $\underline{s, d}$ such that $n 1 = 2^{\underline{s}}d$;
- 3. choose $a \in \{2, ..., n-2\}$ uniformly at random;
- 4. $x \coloneqq \underline{a^d \mod n};$
- 5. if x = 1 or x = n 1 then return probably prime;
- 6. for $r \coloneqq 1$ to s 1 do
- 7. $x \coloneqq x^2 \mod n;$
- 8. if x = n 1 then return probably prime;
- 9. return composite;

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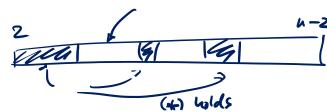
Analysis



Theorem:

- If *n* is prime, the Miller-Rabin test always returns **true**.
- If n is composite, the Miller-Rabin test returns **false** with probability at least $3/_{A}$. h –2

Proof:



- If n is prime, the test works for all values of a
- If *n* is composite, we need to pick a good witness *a* •

Corollary: If the Miller-Rabin test is repeated k times, it fails to detect a composite number n with probability at most 4^{-k} .

Running Time



Cost of Modular Arithmetic:

- Representation of a number $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$: $O(\log n)$ bits
- Cost of adding two numbers $x + y \mod n$: $O(\log n)$

Cost of multiplying two numbers x · y mod n: unively O(log²n)
 It's like multiplying degree O(log n) polynomials
 → use FFT to compute z = x · y O(log n · log log n · log

Running Time

 $x, d \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$



Cost of exponentiation $\underline{x}^d \mod n$:

- Can be done using $O(\log d)$ multiplications
- Base-2 representation of d: $d = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor \log d \rfloor} d_i 2^i$
- Fast exponentiation:
 - 1. $y \coloneqq 1$;
 - 2. for $i \coloneqq \lfloor \log d \rfloor$ to 0 do

3.
$$y \coloneqq y^2 \mod n;$$

4. **if**
$$d_i = 1$$
 then $y \coloneqq y \cdot x \mod n$;

- 5. **return** *y*;
- **Example:** $d = 22 = 10110_2$

$$X^{22} = (x^{"})^{2} = ((x^{5})^{2} \cdot x)^{2} = (((x^{2})^{2} \cdot x)^{2} \cdot x)^{2}$$
$$x^{23} = (x^{"})^{2} \cdot x$$

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0110

 $\left(\left(\left(x^{2}\right)^{2}\cdot x\right)^{2}\cdot x\right)^{2}$

Running Time

Theorem: One iteration of the Miller-Rabin test can be implemented with running time $O(\log^2 n \cdot \log \log n \cdot \log \log \log n)$. $\in \mathcal{O}(\log^2 n)$

- 1. if *n* is even then return (n = 2)2. compute *s*, *d* such that $n 1 = 2^{s}d$;
- choose $a \in \{2, ..., n-2\}$ uniformly at random; 3.
- 4. $x \coloneqq a^d \mod n;$ $O(\log d) = O(\log n)$ mult.
- 5. if x = 1 or x = n 1 then return probably prime;
- 6. for $r \coloneqq 1$ to s 1 do $s = O(\log n)$
- 7. $x \coloneqq x^2 \mod n$;
- if x = n 1 then return probably prime; 8.
- return composite; 9.

Deterministic Primality Test $\tilde{O}(f(n)) = f(n) \cdot (\mathfrak{G}(f(n)))$

 If a conjecture called the generalized Riemann hypothesis (GRH) is true, the Miller-Rabin test can be turned into a polynomialtime, deterministic algorithm

→ It is then sufficient to try all $a \in \{1, ..., O(\log^2 n)\}$

- It has long not been proven whether a deterministic, polynomial-time algorithm exists
- polynomial-time algorithm exists • In 2002, Agrawal, Kayal, and Saxena gave an $\overline{\partial(\log^{12} n)}$ -time deterministic algorithm
 - Has been improved to $\tilde{O}(\log^6 n)$
- In practice, the randomized Miller-Rabin test is still the fastest algorithm