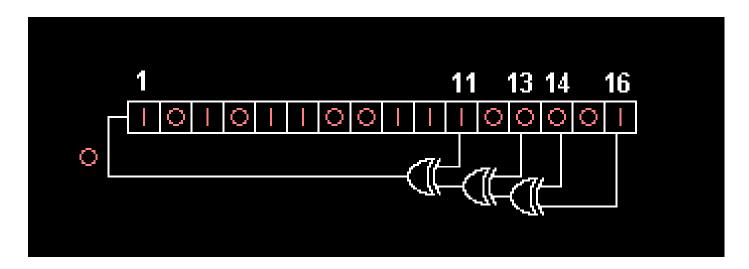
Pseudo-Randomness and Hashing

Pseudo-random number generators

- In previous class we assumed that a randomized algorithm has access to a sequence of IID RV.
- In reality, the program calls a pseudo-random function such as RAND().
- For the sake of simplicity lets assume that each call to Rand generates a single bit.
- The function RAND has a persistent d-bit variable called state and it operates in two modes:
 - RAND(seed):
 - Set State=seed.
 - Return F(State) # F returns a bit.
 - RAND():
 - Update State=G(State) # G returns a new state.
 - Return F(State)

A simple random number generator: Linear Feedback Shift Register (LFSR)



- State: 16bit number.
- G: At each step the bits shift one step to the right and the least significant bit is replaced by the output of the circuit.
- F: output the most significant bit (bit 16) as the output of the random number generator;

What does pseudo-random mean?

- We assume that F and G are public knowledge.
- If we know the seed, then we know exactly what the sequence would be.
- Recall what it means that $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are IID Binary RV with $p = \frac{1}{2}$:

-
$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, ..., X_n = x_n) = \frac{1}{2^n}$$

-
$$P(X_t = x_t | X_1 = x_1, ..., X_{t-1} = x_{t-1}) = 1/2$$

• In words: it is impossible to predict the bit value of X_t from the values of the sequence so far: X_1, \dots, X_{t-1}

Is it possible to predict the output of a pseudo-random number generator?

- The sequence is determined by the seed.
- If the state has d bits, there are at most 2^d possible seeds and therefor 2^d possible sequences.
- A brute force prediction algorithm: make a list of all possible seeds and the corresponding sequences, after each bit is revealed: delete the seeds whose sequences are inconsistent with the bit.
- It is not hard to show that predicting with the majority of surviving seeds will make no more than d mistakes.
- So pseudo random number generators <u>can</u> be predicted!
- Why do we call them (pseudo) random?
- Because the process of predicting them requires compute resources that are $\Omega(2^d)$.
- In other words, it is computational complexity that gives us pseudorandom number generators!

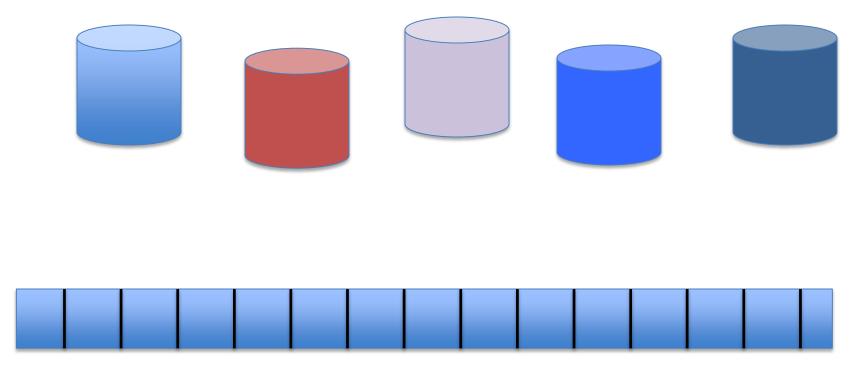
Pseudo-random vs random

- Random sequence: cannot be predicted.
- Pseudo-Random sequence: Takes prohibitive memory and time to predict.
- LFSR: a very weak pseudo-random number generator: sufficient for applications in signal processing.
- Cryptographically secure pseudo-random number generators: generators for which difficulty of prediction is mathematically proven.
 - Used in cryptographic systems such as RSA, OpenSSL,...
 - Volunerabilities sometimes related to problems with the pseudorandom generators.

Hash Functions and Hash Tables

Hashing

 A collection of n complex items from a very large set A (names, sounds, images)



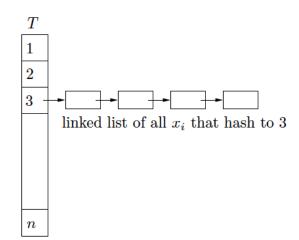
Hash Table: Array of pointers of size m

Hash Functions

- Hash functions map items from a very large space (images) to the number 1,...,n
- We want the mapping to <u>behave like a random function</u>: each item $a \in A$ is mapped to $H(a) = i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ with probability 1/n independently of H(b), H(c), ...
- But, we also want the mapping **not to be random** in that H(a) always gives the same number.
- Solution: instead of one function, we use a <u>family</u> of hash functions, indexed by i: $H_i(a)$ at the start of the program we choose i at random to be a d-bit integer.
- We use a pseudo-random number generator RAND() to construct the hash function (assume RAND() outputs numbers in the range 1..n)
 - $H_i(a) = Rand(i \boxplus a)$ -- $i \boxplus a$ is the binary number created by concatenating the bits of the index i with the bits of the item a

Linked list Hash

- In the single occupancy hash table we discussed last class, each bin in the hash table contains (the pointer to) at most one item.
 - Inserting a new items requires finding an empty bin.
- In the a linked list hash table each bin contains a pointer to a linked list of items
- Unlike single occupancy hash tables, a new item is added to the end of the list starting at the bin to which it is hashed.
- One can store more items than the number of bins in the table.
- The time to add or fetch an item is proportional to the length of the list.



Expected number of items in each bin

$$m =$$
number of bins $n =$ number of items

$$X_i$$
 = number of items in bin i

Note:
$$X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_m = n$$

$$E(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_m) = n$$

What is $E(X_i)$?

A.
$$E(X_i) = n / n = 1$$
 B. $E(X_i) = m / m = 1$

C.
$$E(X_i) = n / m$$
 C. $E(X_i) = n^2 / m$

Expected running time vs. worst case running time

- As the expected occupancy is n/m and we expect m>n, we define $c=\frac{n}{m}$
- Note that any hashing function achieves expected occupancy c. Even one which maps all items to the same bin.
- Beyond expected occupancy, we would like a guarantee that the <u>maximal</u> occupancy is small.
- An upper bound on $max(X_1, X_2, ..., X_m)$ that holds with high probability over the random choice of the hashing function.

Bounding the max

If $\max(X_1, X_2, ..., X_m) \ge l$ then there must be i such that $X_i \ge l$

$$P(\max(X_1, X_2, ..., X_m) \ge l) \le P(X_1 \ge l) + P(X_2 \ge l) + ... + P(X_m \ge l) = mP(X_1 \ge l)$$

Using the union bound.

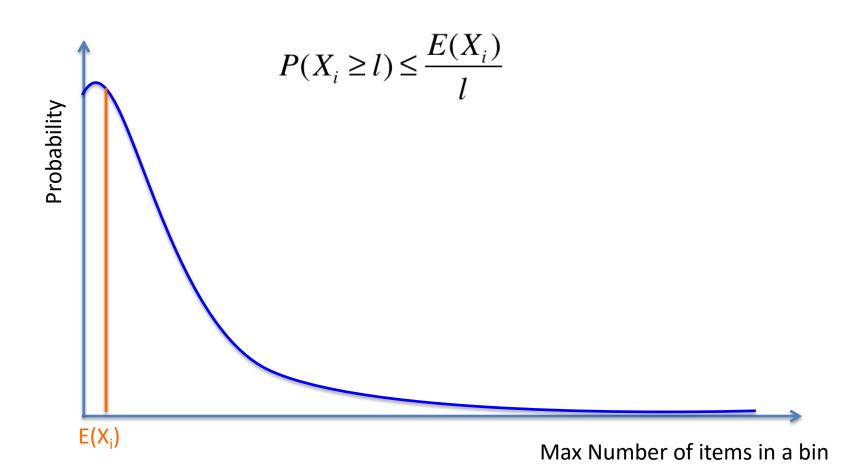
Suppose
$$n$$
 (the number of items) grows to infinity, $m = \frac{n}{c}$ and $l(n)$ is a function of n c is fixed

- Our goal, when computing an upper bound on the maximal occupancy is to
- A. Find the fastest increasing l(n) such that $P(X_1 \ge l(n))$ decreases to zero with n.
- B. Find the slowest increasing l(n) such that $mP(X_1 \ge l(n))$ decreases to zero with n.
- C. Find the slowest increasing l(n) such that $P(X_1 \ge l(n))$ decreases to zero with n.

Bounding the deviation from the mean

- We know that the mean occupancy is n/m
- We want to show that the probability of a much higher occupancy is small.
- To do this we need to upper bound the deviation of the actual occupancy from the mean.
- We will do this using a sequence of better and better bounds, starting with Markov, then Chebyshev, and finally using the binomial coefficient.

Bounding using Markov inequality



Using Markov

$$E(X_i) = n / m = 1 / c$$

$$P(X_i \ge l(n)) \le \frac{E(X_i)}{l(n)} = \frac{1}{cl(n)}$$

To get that $m(n)P(X_i \ge l(n)) \to 0$ we need that $\frac{m(n)}{cl(n)} \to 0$

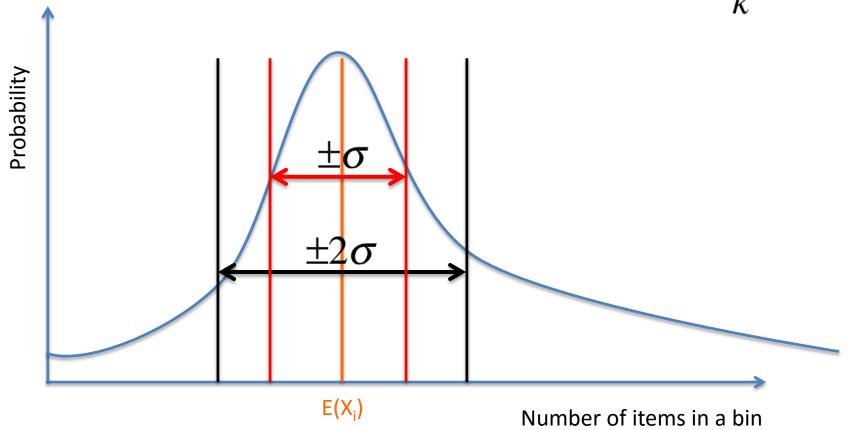
$$m(n) = cn$$
, so $\frac{n}{l(n)} \to 0$

In other words, l(n) increases faster than n.

But the max occupancy of any bin is n - the number of items Using Markov generates a trivial bound.

Worst case bound using variance

Chebyshev's bound: $P(|X_i - E(X_i)| \ge k\sigma) \le \frac{1}{k^2}$



$$var(X_i) = E(X_i^2) - E(X_i)^2; \quad E(X_i) = 1/c$$

To bound $E(X_i^2)$ we think of X_i as a sum:

$$X_{i} = X_{i1} + \cdots X_{in}; \qquad X_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if item } j \text{ is in bin } i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 X_{ii}, X_{ik} are independent if $j \neq k$

If two random variables X,Y are independent

then
$$E(XY) = E(X)E(Y)$$

$$E(X_{ij}) = P(X_{ij} = 1) = 1/m$$

Which of the following is true?

A.
$$E(X_{ii}X_{ik}) = 1/m^2$$

B.
$$E(X_{ij}X_{ik}) = 1/m$$
 if $j = k$; $1/m^2$ otherwise

C.
$$E(X_{ij}X_{ik}) = 1/m$$

Breaking up the square into a sum

$$E(X_i^2) = E((X_{i1} + \dots + X_{in})^2) = ?$$

A. $n^2 E(X_{ij}^2)$ B. $E(X_{i1} + \dots + X_{in})^2$
C. $nE(X_{i1}^2) + n(n-1)E(X_{ij}X_{ik})$ D. $nE(X_{ii})$

Bounding the variance

$$nE(X_{i1}^2) + n(n-1)E(X_{ij}X_{ik})$$

$$E(X_{i1}^2) = E(X_{i1}) = P(\text{item 1 in bin } i) = 1/m$$

$$E(X_{ij}X_{ik}) = P(\text{item j in bin } i \text{ and item k in bin } i) =$$

= $P(\text{item j in bin } i)P(\text{item k in bin } i) = 1/m^2$

$$nE(X_{i1}^2) + n(n-1)E(X_{ij}X_{ik}) \le \frac{n}{m} + \frac{n(n-1)}{m^2} \le \frac{n}{m} + \frac{n^2}{m^2}$$

if
$$m = cn, c \ge 1$$
 we get $var(X_i) \le \frac{1}{c} + \frac{1}{c^2} \le \frac{2}{c}$; $\sigma \le \sqrt{\frac{2}{c}}$

$$mP(X_i \ge l\sigma) \le \frac{m}{l^2}$$

What is the slowest rate

that l can increase so that $(m/l^2) \to 0$ as $m \to \infty$?

A.
$$l = O(m^{\alpha}), \alpha > 1$$
 B. $l = O(\log m)$

C.
$$l = O(m^{\alpha}), \alpha > 1/2$$
 C. $l = O(m^{\alpha}), \alpha > 1/4$

A tighter bound using binomial coefficients

Instead of considering the mean and variance of X_i , We upper bound the probability using the binomial coefficient:

$$P\left(X_{i} \geq l\right) = \sum_{i=l}^{n} \binom{n}{i} \left(\frac{1}{m}\right)^{i} \left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{n-i} \leq \binom{n}{l} \left(\frac{1}{m}\right)^{l}$$

Because:

We can first select the set of l that falls in the bin i and then select the remaining n – in an arbitrary way.

Standard inequality (see cheat-Sheets): $\binom{n}{l} \le \left(\frac{ne}{l}\right)^{l}$

$$\binom{n}{l} \left(\frac{1}{m}\right)^{l} \le \left(\frac{ne}{l}\right)^{l} \left(\frac{1}{m}\right)^{l} = \left(\frac{ne}{lm}\right)^{l} = \left(\frac{e}{lc}\right)^{l}$$

We need
$$n\left(\frac{e}{lc}\right)^{l} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$$

How fast does *l* need to grow in order to guarantee this?

A.
$$l = \log n$$
 B. $l = \log^2 n$ C. $l = \log \log n$ D. $l = \sqrt{n}$

The power of two choices

- We have shown that, if the ratio between items n and bins m is a constant $c=\frac{n}{m}$, and if $n\to\infty, m\to\infty$ then the probability that the highest occupancy is larger than $O(\log n)$ goes to zero.
- Is this the best that can be done?
- No!
- Mitzenmacher 1996, proposed the following ingenious method:
 - Instead of one hash function, use two (two different indices).
 - Given a new item a, compute both hash functions: $H_1(a), H_2(a)$
 - Compare the length of the lists in bin $H_1(a)$ and bin $H_2(a)$, add a to the end of the shorter list.
 - When retrieving search both lists for item a.
- Performance: maximal occupancy is $O(\log \log n)$ instead of $O(\log n)$

A general bound for binomial tails

Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be independent, identically distributed

binary variables:
$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with prob. } p \\ 0 & \text{with prob. } 1-p \end{cases}$$

Let
$$Y = \frac{1}{n} (X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n)$$
; $E(Y) = p$; $var(Y) = \frac{p(1-p)}{n}$

Then
$$P(Y \le k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \binom{n}{i} p^{i} (1-p)^{n-i}$$
 The binomial tail.

We can bound the binomial tail using any of the following

for any
$$k > 1$$
, $P(Y \ge kp) \le e^{-\frac{1}{3}np(k-1)^2}$

for any
$$k > 1$$
, $P\left(Y \le \frac{p}{k}\right) \le e^{-\frac{1}{2}np(1-1/k)^2}$

for any
$$\epsilon > 0$$
, $P(|Y - p| \ge \epsilon) \le 2e^{-2n\epsilon^2}$