



# *Probabilistic Algorithm*

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Algorithm : Design & Analysis  
[22]

# In the Last Class...

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- Polynomial Reduction
  - Conquer the Complexity by Approximation
  - Approximation Algorithm for Bin Packing
  - Evaluate an Approximation Algorithm
  - Online algorithm
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# Probabilistic Algorithm

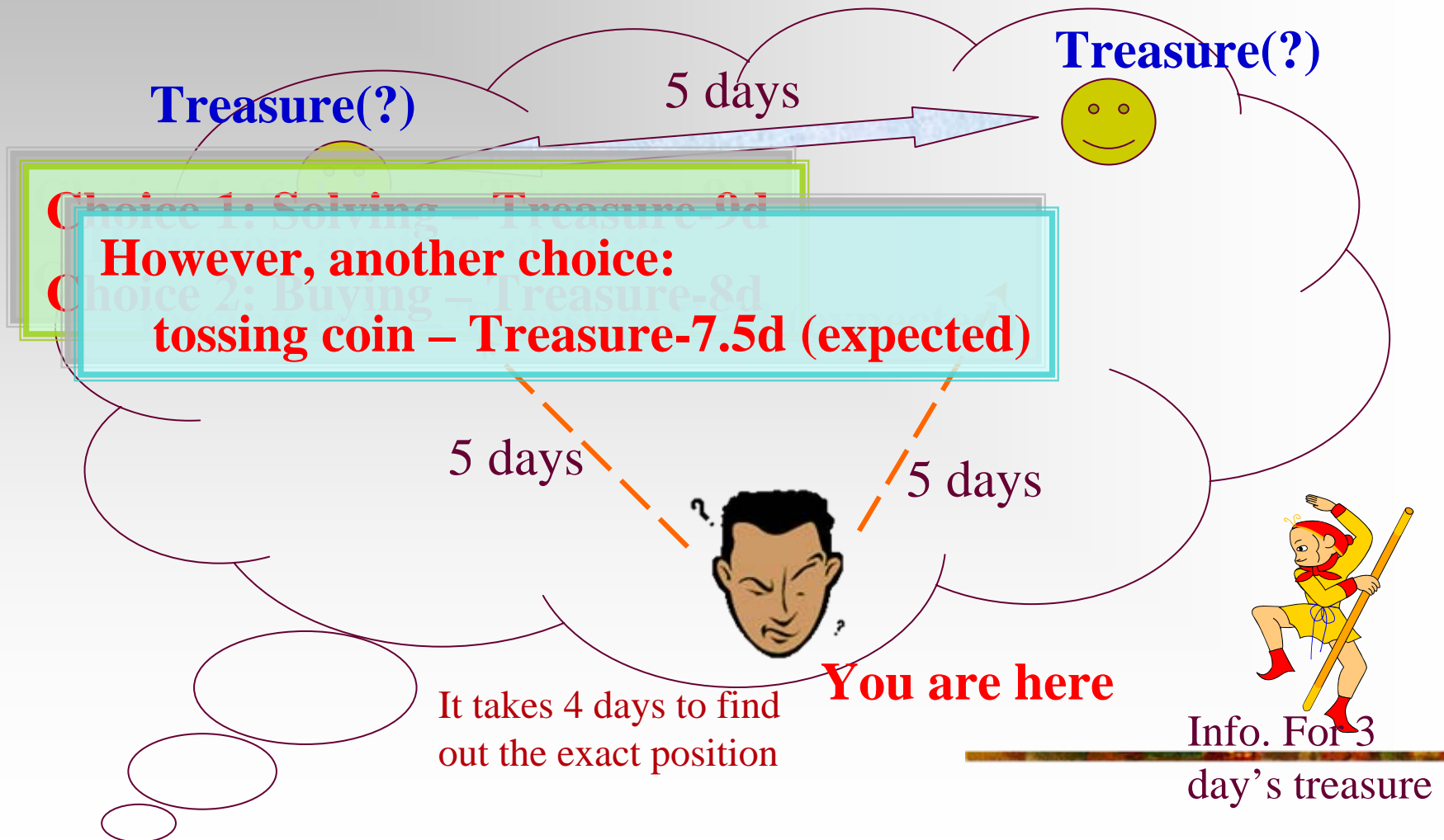
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- Adding Randomness into Algorithm
  - Primality Problem
  - Monte Carlo Algorithm for Primality Testing
  - $p$ -Correctness and Bias
  - Decreasing Error Probability by Repeating
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# Randomization as a Choice

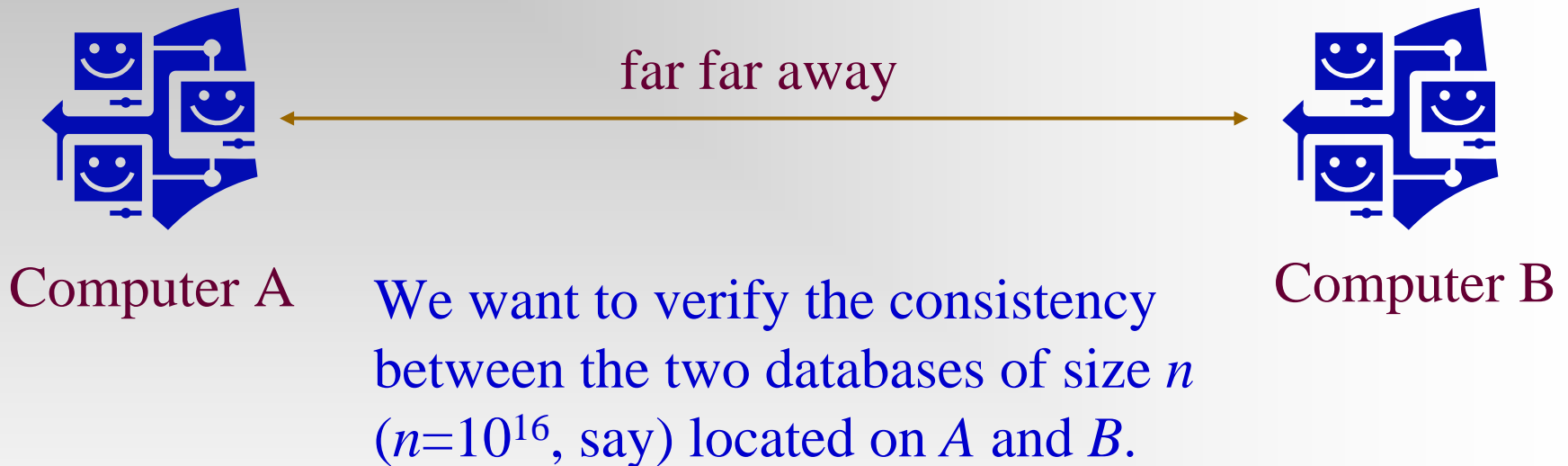


Treasure robbed every night



# A More Serious Application

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For a deterministic answer, we have to transfer a message of at least  $n$  bits, and (!) without an error on the way. It doesn't look a pleasant task.

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# Randomness Can Help

Let the database in  $A$  is  $x = x_1x_2 \dots x_n$ , and that in  $B$  is  $y = y_1y_2, \dots, y_n$ .  
Number( $x$ ) is the value of  $x$  as a binary number.

## Randomized Protocol for Equality ( $A, B$ )

1.  $A$  chooses uniformly a prime  $p$  from  $[2, n^2]$  at random.
2.  $A$  computes  $s = \text{number}(x) \bmod p$ , and sends  $s, p$  to  $B$   
(note:  $s$  and  $p$  can each be represented in  $\lceil \log_2 n^2 \rceil$  bits.)
3.  $B$  reads  $s$  and  $p$ , and computes  $q = \text{number}(y) \bmod p$
4.  $B$  sends message: “yes” if  $q = s$ ; and “no” otherwise.

# No Guarantee, but Pretty Good

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- The protocol may err:  $x=01111(15)$ ,  $y=10110(22)$ , if  $p=7$ , then  $s=1$ , and  $q=1$ . So, 7 is a “bad” prime in  $[2, n^2]$ .
- In fact, if  $x=y$ , the protocol always gives the correct answer, and if  $x \neq y$ , wrong result is give if a “bad” prime selected.
- So, the probability that the protocol errs is the ratio of “bad” prime in the set of all prime in  $[2, n^2]$ .
- Fortunately, the probability is low:  $\ln n^2/n$ , that is, no greater than  $0.36892 \times 10^{-14}$  for  $n=10^{16}$
- Another good news: the length of the message transferred is no longer than  $4 \lceil \log_2 n^2 \rceil$  (that is, 256 for  $n=10^{16}$ )

# Two Categories of Randomness

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- Introducing randomness to the process of solving a problem, but always give a correct result.
  - Quicksort using randomly selected pivot.
- Introducing randomness to the results. (which year was the PRC founded? as an example)
  - 1949, 1949, 1948, 1005, 1949, 654B.C, 1949, 1949, 2005, 1949
  - 1949, sorry, 1949, 1949, sorry, 1949, sorry, 1949, 1949, 1949
  - Between 1900 to 2000; between 1945 to 1950; between 1503 to 1845; between...

(the problem is: what should I believe?)

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# Primality Testing

- Problem: Is a given (odd) positive integer a prime?
- The algorithm you are familiar with:

```
Boolean TestPrimality(n)  
    int i;  
    for (i=2; i ≤  $\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$ ; i++)  
        if (n mod i = 0)  
            return false;  
    return true
```

# *The* Algorithm is Exponential

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- For number-theoretic algorithms, we usually take the input size to be the number of digits in  $n$ .
  - Using decimal system, the number of digits in  $n$  is  $m = \lceil \log_{10}(n+1) \rceil$
  - The function *TestPrimality* executes the **for** loop  $\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$  times in the worst case, which is about  $10^{m/2}$ .
  - If  $n$  has more than 40 digits, it would take millions of years to say “yes” .
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# Randomness Introduced Simply

## Boolean

TestPrimalityRandom( $n$ )

  int  $j$ ;

$\text{Random}(\{2, \dots, \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor\}, j)$

  if ( $n \bmod j = 0$ )

    return false;

  else

    return true;

However, the algorithm is *unacceptable* in practice.

Even though it is really “not” when returned value is “false”, it has no any positive “*fixed confidence level*” if the returned value is “true”.

# Monte Carlo Algorithms

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- For a (fixed) real number  $p$ ,  $0 < p < 1$ , a  $p$ -correct Monte Carlo algorithm is a probabilistic algorithm that returns the correct answer with probability not less than  $p$  no matter what input is considered.
  - Note: the algorithm *TestPrimalityRandom* is 100% correct if it returns “false”, (on the other hand, if  $n = p_1 p_2$  with primes  $p_1 < p_2$ , the algorithm has only  $1/p_1$  probability to give a correct “false” ), but is correct with ANY small probability if it returns “true”.
  - **Bad news**: there is usually no efficient method available to test whether an answer returned by a Monte Carlo algorithm for a given input is correct.
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# Help from as Early as 1640

- Fermat's little theorem:

- If  $n$  is a prime, then for all positive  $a < n$ ,

$$a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

(for example:  $1^6 = 0 \times 7 + 1$ ;  $2^6 = 9 \times 7 + 1$ ; ...,  $5^6 = 2232 \times 7 + 1$ ;  
 $6^6 = 6665 \times 7 + 1$  )

- [Contraposition of Fermat's little theorem]

- If  $n$  and  $a$  are integers such that  $1 \leq a \leq n$ , and the modular equation above does not hold for them, then  $n$  is NOT a prime.  
(a **deterministic** result for negating an natural number being prime)

# What about Positive Result

- The following statement **DOESN'T** hold:
  - If  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for some natural number  $n$  and  $a(a < n)$ , then  $n$  is prime (**false!**).
  - In fact, there **do** exist **composite** numbers  $n$ , for which  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for most  $a < n$ . (even for all  $a < n$ )
- However
  - Good news: **most** composite numbers  $n$  have **many** integers  $a$  in  $\{2, \dots, n-1\}$  such that  $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
- It seems that a test for primality for THOSE composite numbers that has a high probability of being correct is to test whether  $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for a random choice of  $a$ .

# Monte Carlo Algorithm for Primality

**Boolean** FermatTestPrimality( $n$ )

**int**  $a$ ;

Random ( {2,3,...,  $n-2$ },  $a$ );

**if** expomod ( $a$ ,  $n-1$ ,  $n$ ) = 1

**return true**;

**return false**;

**int** expomod ( $a, n, z$ ) // **computes  $a^n \bmod z$**

**int**  $i, r, x$ ;

$i = n$ ;  $r = 1$ ;  $x = a \bmod z$ ;

**while** ( $i > 0$ )

**if**  $i$  is odd

$r = rx \bmod z$ ;

$x = x^2 \bmod z$ ;

$i = i \div 2$ ;

**return**  $r$ ;

The loop is executed  
about  $\log n$  times

Note the facts:

$xy \bmod z =$

$(x \bmod z) (y \bmod z) \bmod z$ ;

$(x \bmod z)^y \bmod z = x^y \bmod z$ ;

# False Witness of Primality

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- When FermatTestPrimality returns “false”,  $n$  is NOT a prime with certainty, but what about a returned value of “true”?
  - Examples of fails:  $(n-1)^{n-1} \bmod n = 1$  for all odd  $n \geq 3$ ; and a nontrivial example:  $4^{14} \bmod 15 = 1$ . (4 is called a *false witness of primality*)
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# What's the Risk

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- Good news – false witness are rather few: for all odd composite less than 1000, more than half have only 2 false witness, and less than 16% have more than 15. The average error probability on odd composite smaller than 1000 is less than 3.3%.
  - Bad news – some odd composites admit a significant proportion of false witness: the worst case among odd composites smaller than 1000 is 561 with 318 false witness, and 651693055693681 is a composite but return “true” with probability of 99.9965%.
  - In fact, FermatTestPrimality is NOT  $p$ -correct for any  $p > 0$ .
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# A Special Set for Testing

- Let  $n$  be an odd integer greater than 4, and  $n-1=2^s t$ , where  $t$  is odd. Define set  $B(n)$  as follows:

- $a \in B(n)$  if and only if  $2 \leq a \leq n-2$ , and
- $a^t \bmod n = 1$ , or
- there is an integer  $i$ ,  $0 \leq i < s$ , such that  $a^{(2^i t)} \bmod n = n-1$

Which implies  $a$  is Fermat false witness as well.

- Example:  $158 \in B(289)$

- $289-1 = 288 = 2^5 \times 9$ , so  $s=5$ ,  $t=9$
- $x = 158^9 \bmod 289 = 131 \neq 1$ , so, condition 1 does not hold; but
- We successively square  $x \pmod n$  up to 4 times ( $s-1=4$ )  
 $131^2 \bmod 289 = 110$ ;  $110^2 \bmod 289 = 251$ ;  $251^2 \bmod 289 = 288$
- So,  $158 \in B(289)$

# Extension of Fermat's Little Theorem

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- If  $n$  is prime, then  $a \in B(n)$  for all  $2 \leq a \leq n-2$ .
  - If  $n > 4$  is an odd composite number and there is some  $a$  in  $[2, n-2]$  satisfying  $a \in B(n)$ ,  $a$  is called a strong false witness of primality for  $n$ .
  - Good news:
    - Strong false witnesses are much rarer than Fermat false witness. For example, 4 is NOT strong false witness for 15.
    - For all odd composites smaller than 1000, the average probability of randomly selecting a strong false witness is less than 1%, more than 72% of them do not admit strong false witness.
    - At least one of 2,3,5,7 or 61 is NOT a strong false witness for every odd composite integer between 5 and  $10^{13}$ .
    - Most importantly, there is a guarantee that the proportion of strong false witness is small for every odd composite.
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# Improved Algorithm – Miller-Rabin

```
Boolean MillRab(n)
//only for n>4 is odd
int a;
Random ({2,...n-2}, a);
return Btest(a,n)
```

It can be proved that if  $n$  is composite, then  $|B(n)| \leq (n-9)/4$ , which means that MillRab is  **$\frac{3}{4}$ -correct** Monte-Carlo algorithm

```
Boolean Btest(a,n)
int i,s,t,x;
s=0; t=n-1;
while ((t mod 2)≠1)
    s=s+1; t=t/2;
x=expomod(a,t,n);
if (x=1 or x=n-1) return true;
for (i=1; i<s; i++)
    x=x2 mod n;
if (x=n-1) return true;
return false;
```

# Repeat for Better

- The answer “false” is guaranteed to be correct.
- If  $n > 4$  is prime, MillRab always return the correct answer, on the other hand, if  $n > 4$  is an odd composite, MillRab has probability at most  $\frac{1}{4}$  of hitting a strong false witness and erroneously returning “true”.
- So, the following algorithm is  $(1-4^{-k})$ -correct:

```
Boolean RepeatMillRab(n,k)//only for  $n > 4$  is odd
    int i;
    for (i=1; i≤k; i++)
        if MillRab(n)=false return false;
    return true;
```

# The Complexity

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- How much time does it take to decide on the primality of  $n$  with an error probability bounded by  $\varepsilon$ ?
    - Repeat the Miller-Rabin algorithm test  $k$  times such that  $4^{-k} \leq \varepsilon$ , that is,  $2^{2k} \geq 1/\varepsilon$ , so,  $k = \lceil 0.5 \lg(1/\varepsilon) \rceil$
    - Each call of MillRab involves one modular exponentiation, with  $t$  as exponent and  $s-1$  modular squaring, which is dominated by modular multiplication, in  $O(\log n)$  times, each taking a time in  $O(\log^2 n)$ , resulting  $O(\log^3 n)$
    - So, the complexity is  $O(\log^3 n \lg(1/\varepsilon))$ .
    - This is reasonable in practice for thousand-digit numbers and error probability less than  $10^{-100}$ .
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# Probability Algorithm in General

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- Motivation: wrong guess vs. high cost
  - Characteristics: behave differently on same input
  - Understanding:
    - What's the real meaning of the sentence: “ it is a prime with the probability of 99.99999% ” ?
    - What's the meaning of the sentence: “I believe that it IS a prime.”
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# Home Assignment

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- Do anything you think helpful for your exam.





OK! That's all for the semester.  
Thank you all!  
Good luck, for everything in general,  
and for the exam in specific!