

Introduction to algorithmic

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Demonstration 12

1

Question: Calculate the expected number of rolls of two dice before getting a pair of 1. Ditto to get two digits that goes to 7.

Solution: This problem amounts to calculating the expectation of a parametric geometrical law p . Indeed the geometric law considers the problem of repeating a test whose probability of success is p , and the geometric random variable denotes the rank of the first success.

Let p be the probability of obtaining the event sought during a throw. The hoped number of throws n is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} n &= 1 \cdot p + 2(1-p)p + 3(1-p)^2p + \dots \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(1-p)^{k-1}p. \end{aligned}$$

Now we have for $x \in [0,1)$:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad (\text{geometric series}) \\ f(x) &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} kx^{k-1} = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Like $n = p \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(1-p)^{k-1}$, we get

$$n = \frac{p}{(1-(1-p))^2} = \frac{1}{p}.$$

Since the probability of getting a pair of 1 is given by $p = 1/36$, the number hoped for throws is 36. Similarly, the probability of getting a pair of numbers that up to 7 is $1/6$, so the expected number of throws is 6.

2

Question: A skewed coin throws stack throws with probability $p = \frac{1}{2}$ and face with probability $q = 1-p$. Each coin throw is independent of the previous ones. The value of p is not known. Find a process to get a sequence from the room of random bits unbiased.

Solution: To generate a random bit (0 or 1), simply make two successive throws of the biased coin. If two piles or two faces are obtained, we start again. If not,

- if we get stack then face, we generate bit 0,
- if we get face and stack, we generate bit 1.

These two events have an equal probability of being realized, namely pq . The probability to get one or the other knowing that both coin throws produced a pile and a face is $\frac{1}{2}$. An unbiased random bit sequence is obtained by repeating this method.

3

Question: Consider a problem that has more than two possible answers. So he is possible that for some instances of the problem, several answers are correct. Let MC3 be the algorithm that executes a non-biased MC algorithm three times and returns the majority answer if there is one, or, which in case of a tie, randomly returns uniformly one of the answers obtained. Show that in this case, the amplification can decrease the probability that the algorithm returns a correct answer. More precisely, show that there is a 75% -correct Monte-Carlo MC algorithm such as MC3 is not 71% -correct.

Solution: Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n have good answers and B a bad answer. Is MC the algorithm that returns A_i with probability $\frac{1}{n}$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$, and B with probability $\frac{1}{n}$. Note that MC returns a good answer with probability $\frac{n}{n+1}$ and so is 75% -correct.

The probability that MC3 returns a good answer is $p(n) = f(n) + g(n) + \frac{2}{3}h(n)$ where

- $f(n)$ is the probability that MC3 gets three good answers
- $g(n)$ is the probability that MC3 gets a wrong answer and twice the same right answer

- $h(n)$ is the probability that MC3 draws a wrong answer and two good answers different.

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(n) &= \frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} \cdot \frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} \cdot \frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} \\
 &\quad \text{right answer} \quad \text{right answer} \quad \text{right answer} \\
 g(n) &= 3 \left(\frac{\binom{1}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} \cdot \frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} \cdot \frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} \right) \\
 &\quad \text{wrong answer} \quad \text{2 same good answers} \\
 h(n) &= 3 \left(\frac{\binom{1}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} \cdot \frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} \cdot \frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} \right) \\
 &\quad \text{wrong answer} \quad \text{2 different answers}
 \end{aligned}$$

So,

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(n) &= f(n) + g(n) + \frac{2}{3}h(n) \\
 &= \left(\frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} + \frac{2}{3} \cdot \left(\frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}}\right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} - \frac{\binom{3}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}}\right) \\
 &= \frac{27}{64} + \frac{27}{64n} + \frac{3(3n-3)}{32n} \\
 &= \frac{45n+9}{64n}
 \end{aligned}$$

For $n = 21$, we have $p(21) = 954/1344 = 159/224 < 0.7099$. So for a problem with 21 correct answers, MC3 is not 71% -correct. In fact, we can even prove that from more than 21 correct answers, the MC3 algorithm is not 71% -correct.

4

Question: Give a Monte Carlo algorithm to determine if two polynomials p and q on \mathbb{Z} , presented by arithmetic circuits, are equal. We can use without proof the fact that the degree of a polynomial is limited by the height of the circuit.

Solution: Consider the following example:

The circuits C_p and C_q respectively calculate the following polynomials:

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, x_2, x_3) &= ((6 + (x_1 x_2)) - (x_1 x_2)(7 - x_3)) + 3(x_1 x_2)(7 - x_3) \\ q(x_1, x_2, x_3) &= (6 + (x_1 x_3)) - 3(x_2 - x_3)(7x_2 - 2) \end{aligned}$$

To determine if $p = q$, we set $r = p - q$ and test if r is zero. Other said, we test if the circuit $C_r = C_p - C_q$ computes the polynomial 0. To do this, we choose a random assignment of x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m , that is, a set of numbers $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m \in Q$ and we evaluate $r(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m)$. If $r(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m) = 0$, then it is impossible that r is the polynomial 0. On the other hand if $r(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m) \neq 0$, it is all of even if r is not polynomial 0, if we have chosen a root of r .

In the case where $um = 1$, that is to say that the polynomial is univariate, it suffices to choose a_1 in a set of size $k \cdot \deg(r)$ to have an error probability of at most $1/k$. In indeed, r has at most $\deg(r)$ roots.

In the multivariate case, the number of roots of r is no longer limited by $\deg(r)$. In fact, r can have an infinity of roots. Indeed, the polynomial $p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1$ has an infinity of roots of the form $(0, x_2, x_3)$. We will see thanks to a lemma that the Univariate case strategy is generalized to multivariate polynomials.

Let h_p and h_q be the height of C_p and C_q respectively. We give the algorithm following:

1. Set $S = \{1, 2, \dots, \max(4 \cdot 2^{h_p}, 2^{h_q})\}$
2. Choose randomly and independently $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m \in \text{uniform}(S)$

3. Ask $r = p - q$
4. If $r(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m) = 0$ then return yes, otherwise return no.

When the algorithm responds no, we are sure that p and q are not equal.

When the algorithm responds yes, it is possible that p and q are not equal and that the algorithm is wrong. To evaluate the probability that the algorithm is wrong in the multivariate case, we need the following lemma:

Schwartz-Zippel's Lemma: let $p \in \mathbb{Q}[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m]$ be a nonzero polynomial. Let $S \subset \mathbb{Q}$ a finite subset and a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m chosen in S uniformly and independent. So,

$$\Pr[p(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m) = 0] \leq \frac{\deg(p)}{|S|}. \quad (1)$$

Proof: The lemma is demonstrated by induction on the number of variables.

Base case ($m = 1$): in this case, p is univariate and has at most $\deg(p)$ roots, so we get that

$$\Pr[p(a_1) = 0] \leq \frac{\deg(p)}{|S|}.$$

Induction stage: we can put each power of x_1 in p and get the next rewrite.

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m) = \sum_{i=0}^d x_1^i p_i(x_2, \dots, x_m)$$

Since p is non-zero, there exists at least one such that p_i is non-zero. Let i be the largest such index, then by induction hypothesis:

$$\Pr[p_i(a_2, \dots, a_m) = 0] \leq \frac{\deg(p_i)}{|S|} \leq \frac{\deg(p) - i}{|S|} \quad (2)$$

If $p_i(a_2, \dots, a_m) = 0$, then $p(x_1, a_2, \dots, a_m)$ is a polynomial with a variable (x_1) of degree i , because i is the largest degree of x_1 nonzero in p . Thus by induction hypothesis:

$$\Pr[p(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m) = 0 \mid p_i(a_2, \dots, a_m) = 0] \leq \frac{i}{|S|} \quad (3)$$

If we call A the event $p(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m) = 0$ and B the event $p_i(a_2, \dots, a_m) = 0$, then we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr[A] &= \Pr[A \mid B] \Pr[B] + \Pr[A \mid B^c] \Pr[B^c] \\
&\leq \Pr[B] + \Pr[A \mid B^c] \\
&\leq \frac{\deg(p) - i}{|S|} + \frac{i}{|S|} \quad \text{by (2) and (3)} \\
&= \frac{\deg(p)}{|S|}.
\end{aligned}$$

Which concludes the proof. D

Consider now the case where the algorithm above answers yes. Let w be the probability that the algorithm is wrong, in other words that $r(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m) = 0$ knowing that r is no. We have:

$$\begin{aligned}
w &\leq \frac{\deg(r)}{|S|} && \text{by (1)} \\
&\leq \frac{\max(\deg(p), \deg(q))}{|S|} && \text{because } \deg(r) \leq \max(\deg(p), \deg(q)) \\
&= \frac{\max(\deg(p), \deg(q))}{4 \cdot \max(2^{h_p}, 2^{h_q})} && \text{def. from } S \\
&\leq \frac{\max(\deg(p), \deg(q))}{4 \cdot \max(\deg(p), \deg(q))} && \text{because } \deg(p) \leq 2^{h_p} \text{ and } \deg(q) \leq 2^{h_q} \\
&= \frac{1}{4}
\end{aligned}$$

So the algorithm is wrong with probability at most $\frac{1}{4}$ when he answers yes.

Execution time analysis: We analyze the execution time of the algorithm according to the size of the entrance, ie according to the degree of p and q and according to the number of variables m . If you can draw a coin in $O(1)$, you can select a number a_i in S by binary search in time $\log_2 |S| = \log_2 (4 \cdot \max(2^{h_p}, 2^{h_q})) = 2 + \max(h_p, h_q)$ coin shots. The execution time of the random selection algorithm is therefore in $O(m \max(h_p, h_q))$. Evaluating the circuit r is done in polynomial time. The weather execution of the algorithm is therefore polynomial in the size of the input.