



Random tricks

24 June 2025

Prof. Dr. Sebastian Wild

9 Random tricks

- 9.1 Hashing
- 9.2 Perfect Hashing
- 9.3 Primality Testing
- 9.4 Schöning's Satisfiability
- 9.5 Karger's Cuts

Uses of Randomness

- ▶ Since it is likely that $BPP = P$, we focus on the more fine-grained benefits of randomization:
 - ▶ simpler algorithms (with same performance)
 - ▶ improving performance (but not jumping from exponential to polytime)
 - ▶ improved robustness
- ▶ Here: Collection of examples illustrating different techniques
 - ▶ fingerprinting / hashing
 - ▶ exploiting abundance of witnesses
 - ▶ random sampling

9.1 Hashing

Fingerprinting / Hashing

- ▶ Often have elements from huge universe $U = [0..u)$ of possible values, but only deal with few actual items x_1, \dots, x_n at one time.

Think: $n \ll u$

- ▶ Fingerprinting can help to be more efficient in this case

- ▶ fingerprints from $[0..m)$

- ▶ $m \ll u$

- ▶ *Hash Function* $h : U \rightarrow [0..m)$

Fingerprinting / Hashing

- ▶ Often have elements from huge universe $U = [0..u)$ of possible values, but only deal with few actual items x_1, \dots, x_n at one time.

Think: $n \ll u$

- ▶ Fingerprinting can help to be more efficient in this case

- ▶ fingerprints from $[0..m)$

- ▶ $m \ll u$

- ▶ *Hash Function* $h : U \rightarrow [0..m)$

- ▶ Classic Example: hash tables and Bloom filters

Uniform – Universal – Perfect

Randomness is essential for hashing to make any sense! Three very different

1. *uniform hashing assumption*: (optimistic, often roughly right in practice!)
How good is hashing if input is “as nicely random” as possible?

Uniform – Universal – Perfect

Randomness is essential for hashing to make any sense! Three very different

1. *uniform hashing assumption*: (optimistic, often roughly right in practice!)
How good is hashing if input is “as nicely random” as possible?
2. Since fixed h is prone to “algorithmic complexity attacks” (worst case inputs)
 \rightsquigarrow *universal hashing*: pick h at random from class H of suitable functions

universal class of hash functions

Uniform – Universal – Perfect

Randomness is essential for hashing to make any sense! Three very different

1. *uniform hashing assumption*: (optimistic, often roughly right in practice!)
How good is hashing if input is “as nicely random” as possible?
2. Since fixed h is prone to “algorithmic complexity attacks” (worst case inputs)
 \rightsquigarrow *universal hashing*: pick h at random from class H of suitable functions

\nwarrow
universal class of hash functions
3. For given keys, can construct collision-free hash function
 \rightsquigarrow *perfect hashing*

Uniform Hashing – Balls into Bins

Theorem 9.1

If we throw n balls into n bins, then the *fullest bin* has $O(\log n / \log \log n)$ balls w.h.p. ◀

Universal Hashing – Efficient Randomized Hashing

Definition 9.2 (Universal Family)

Let \mathcal{H} be a set of hash functions from U to R with $|R| = m$ and $|U| \geq m$. Assume $h \in \mathcal{H}$ is chosen uniformly at random.

Then \mathcal{H} is called a *universal* if

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in U : x_1 \neq x_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{P}[h(x_1) = h(x_2)] \leq \frac{1}{m}.$$

\mathcal{H} is called *strongly universal* or *pairwise independent* if

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in U, y_1, y_2 \in R : x_1 \neq x_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{P}[h(x_1) = y_1 \wedge h(x_2) = y_2] \leq \frac{1}{m^2}.$$



How good is universal hashing?

9.2 Perfect Hashing

Perfect Hashing: Random Sampling

9.3 Primality Testing

Abundance of Witnesses: Primality Testing

Theorem 9.3 (Fermat's Little Theorem)

For p a prime and $a \in [1..p-1]$ holds

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



Theorem 9.4 (Euler's Criterion)

Let $p > 2$ an odd number.

$$p \text{ prime} \iff \forall a \in \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\} : a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \bmod p \in \{1, p-1\}$$

Theorem 9.5 (Number of Witnesses)

For every odd $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $(n-1)/2$ odd, we have:

1. If n is prime then $a^{(n-1)/2} \bmod n \in \{1, n-1\}$, for all $a \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$.
2. If n is not prime then $a^{(n-1)/2} \bmod n \notin \{1, n-1\}$ for *at least half* of the elements in $\{1, \dots, n-1\}$.

Simple Solovay-Strassen Primality Test

Input: an odd number n with $(n - 1)/2$ odd.

1. Choose a random $a \in \{1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$.
2. Compute $A := a^{(n-1)/2} \bmod n$.
3. If $A \in \{1, n - 1\}$ then output “ n probably prime” (reject);
4. otherwise output “ n not prime” (accept).

Theorem 9.6 (Correctness)

The simple Solovay-Strassen algorithm is a polynomial **OSE-MC** algorithm to detect composite numbers n with $n \bmod 4 = 3$. ◀

Corollary 9.7


For positive integers n with $n \bmod 4 = 3$ the simple Solovay-Strassen algorithm provides a polynomial **TSE-MC** algorithm to detect prime numbers. ◀

Sampling Primes

RANDOMPRIME(ℓ, k) Input: $\ell, k \in \mathbb{N}, \ell \geq 3$.

1. Set $X := \text{"not found yet"}; I := 0$;
2. while $X = \text{"not found yet"}$ and $I < 2\ell^2$ do
 - ▶ generate random bit string $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{\ell-2}$ and
 - ▶ compute $n := 2^{\ell-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{\ell-2} a_i \cdot 2^i + 1$
// This way n becomes a random, odd number of length ℓ
 - ▶ Realize k independent runs of Solovay-Strassen-algorithm on n ;
 - ▶ if at least one output says " $n \notin PRIMES$ " then $I := I + 1$
else $X := \text{"PN found"}; \text{output } n$;
3. if $I = 2 \cdot \ell^2$ then output "no PN found".

Theorem 9.8 (Correctness of RandomPrime)

Algorithm $\text{RANDOMPRIME}(l, l)$ is a polynomial (in l) **TSE-MC** algorithm to generate random prime numbers of length l . 

9.4 Schönning's Satisfiability

↪ Focus on practical benefits of randomization

Randomized approaches can be grouped into categories:

1. Coping with adversarial inputs
Randomized Quicksort, randomized BSTs, Treaps, skip lists
2. Abundance of Witnesses
Solovay-Strassen primality test
3. Fingerprinting
universal hashing
4. Random Sampling
Perfect hashing, Schönning's 3SAT algorithm, Karger's Min-Cut algorithm
5. LP Relaxation & Randomized Rounding
Set-Cover Approximation (next chapter)

Warmup: A randomized 2SAT algorithm

```
1 procedure localSearch2SAT( $\phi$ , confidence):  
2    $k$  = number of variables of  $\phi$   
3   Choose assignment  $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}^k$  uniformly at random.  
4   for  $j = 1, \dots, \text{confidence} \cdot 2k^2$   
5     if  $\alpha$  fulfills  $\phi$  return " $\phi$  satisfiable"  
6     Arbitrarily choose a clause  $C = \ell_1 \vee \ell_2$  that is not satisfied under  $\alpha$ .  
7     Choose  $\ell$  from  $\{\ell_1, \ell_2\}$  uniformly at random.  
8      $\alpha$  = assignment obtained by negating  $\ell$ .  
9   return " $\phi$  probably not satisfiable"
```

Theorem 9.9 (localSearch2SAT is OSE-MC for 2SAT)

Let ϕ be a 2SAT formula.

1. If ϕ is unsatisfiable, localSearch2SAT always returns "probably not satisfiable".
2. If ϕ is satisfiable, localSearch2SAT returns "satisfiable" with probability at least $1 - 2^{-\text{confidence}}$.



Schöning's Randomized 3SAT Algorithm

```
1 procedure Schöning3SAT( $\phi$ , confidence):  
2    $k$  = number of variables in  $\phi$   
3   for  $i = 1, \dots, \text{confidence} \cdot 24 \left\lceil \sqrt{k} \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^k \right\rceil$  do  
4     Choose assignment  $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}^k$  uniformly at random.  
5     for  $j = 1, \dots, 3k$  do  
6       if  $\alpha$  fulfills  $\phi$  return " $\phi$  satisfiable"  
7       Arbitrarily choose a clause  $C = \ell_1 \vee \ell_2 \vee \ell_3$  that is not satisfied under  $\alpha$ .  
8       Choose  $\ell$  from  $\{\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3\}$  uniformly at random.  
9        $\alpha$  = assignment obtained by negating  $\ell$ .  
10  return " $\phi$  probably not satisfiable"
```

Theorem 9.10 (Schöning3SAT is OSE-MC for 2SAT)

Let ϕ be a 3SAT formula with n clauses over k variables.

1. If ϕ is unsatisfiable, Schöning3SAT always returns "probably not satisfiable".
2. If ϕ is satisfiable, Schöning3SAT returns "satisfiable" with probability $\geq 1 - 2^{-\text{confidence}}$.
3. Schöning3SAT runs in time $O\left(\text{confidence} \cdot k^{3/2} \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^k n\right)$.



9.5 Karger's Cuts

Smart probability amplification: Karger's Min-Cut

Definition 9.11 (Min-Cut)

Given: A (multi)graph $G = (V, E, c)$, where $c : E \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is the multiplicity of an edge

Feasible Solutions: cuts of G , i. e., $M(G) = \{(V_1, V_2) : V_1 \cup V_2 = V \wedge V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset\}$,

Goal: Minimize

Costs: $\sum_{e \in C(V_1, V_2)} c(e)$, where $C(V_1, V_2) = \{\{u, v\} \in E : u \in V_1 \wedge v \in V_2\}$.



Random Contraction

```
1 procedure contractionMinCut( $G = (V, E, c)$ )
2   Set  $label(v) := \{v\}$  for every vertex  $v \in V$ .
3   while  $G$  has more than 2 vertices
4     Choose random edge  $e = \{x, y\} \in E$ .
5      $G := \text{Contract}(G, e)$ .
6     Set  $label(z) := label(x) \cup label(y)$  for  $z$  the vertex resulting from  $x$  and  $y$ .
7   Let  $G = (\{u, v\}, E', c')$ ; return  $(label(u), label(v))$  with cost  $c'(\{u, v\})$ .
```

Theorem 9.12 (contractionMinCut correct with some probability)

contractionMinCut is a polytime randomized algorithm that finds a minimal cut for a given multigraph G with n vertices with probability $\geq 2/(n(n-1))$. ◀

Lemma 9.13 (Threshold for contractionMinCut)

Let $l : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ a monotonic, increasing function with $1 \leq l(n) \leq n$. If we stop contractionMinCut whenever G only has $l(n)$ vertices and determine for the resulting graph G/F deterministically a minimal cut, then we need time in

$$O(n^2 + l(n)^3)$$

and we find a minimal cut for G with probability at least

$$\frac{\binom{l(n)}{2}}{\binom{n}{2}}$$



Karger's Min-Cut Improved

```
1 procedure KargerSteinMinCut( $G(V, E, c)$ )
2    $n = |V|$ 
3   if  $n \geq 6$ 
4     compute minimal cut deterministically
5   else
6      $h = \lceil 1 + \frac{n}{\sqrt{2}} \rceil$ 
7      $G/F_1 = \text{Contract random edges in } G \text{ until } h \text{ nodes left}$ 
8      $(C_1, cost_1) = \text{KargerSteinMinCut}(G/F_1)$ 
9      $G/F_2 = \text{Contract random edges in } G \text{ until } h \text{ nodes left}$ 
10     $(C_2, cost_2) = \text{KargerSteinMinCut}(G/F_2)$ 
11    if  $cost_1 < cost_2$  return  $(C_1, cost_1)$  else  $C_2, cost_2)$ 
```

Theorem 9.14 (KargerSteinMinCut beats deterministic min-cut)

KargerSteinMinCut runs in time $O(n^2 \cdot \log(n))$ and finds a minimal cut with probability $\Omega(\frac{1}{\log(n)})$.

