

Applications of Randomization

- It is known that randomization combined with (non-trivial) algebraic techniques can lead to important applications.
- In this section, we showcase some of such techniques with respect to verification of identities.
- One such technique is called the **fingerprinting** technique described as follows.

Applications of Randomization

- Let U be any universe of objects and x and y be any two elements from U .
- The question we ask is, **Is $x = y$?**
- One can answer this using at least $\log |U|$ bits in a deterministic manner.
- However, consider mapping elements of U to a sparse universe V such that x and y are identical if and only if their images in V are identical, with a good chance.
- These images can be thought of as fingerprints of x and y .

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- Let us apply the above technique to matrix product verification. Let F be a field and A and B are two matrices with entries from F .
- Suppose it is claimed that $C = A \cdot B$.
- The fastest known matrix multiplication algorithm runs in time $O(n^{2.376})$.
- This algorithm is very difficult to implement, but the standard algorithms such as the Strassen's recursive algorithm takes time $O(n^{\log_2 7})$.
- So, to verify if C is indeed the product of A and B , it takes time equal to multiplying two matrices.

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- However, a simpler and efficient randomized approach exists.
- Let r be any vector with entries being 0 or 1.
- Let each element of r be chosen independently and uniformly at random.
- It is being assumed without loss of generality that 0 and 1 are the additive and multiplicative identities of the field F .

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- Compute $x = Br$, and $y = Ax$.
- Similarly, compute $z = Cr$.
- If $A \cdot B = C$ is indeed true, then y must equal z for any r .
- Also, x , y , and z can each be computed in $O(n^2)$ time.
- So, the time efficiency is established.
- It remains to see the verification efficiency.
- The following lemma argues that the verification procedure is efficient.

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- **Lemma:** Let A , B , and C be $n \times n$ matrices from F such that $AB \neq C$. Then, for r chosen uniformly at random from $\{0, 1\}^n$, $\Pr(ABr = Cr) \leq 1/2$.
- Proof. Consider the matrix $D := AB - C$. Since, $AB \neq C$, matrix D is not the matrix of all zeros.
- We are interested in the event that $Dr = 0$.
- Assume without loss of generality that the first row of D has a nonzero entry and all nonzero entries in that row are before any zero entry.

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- Lemma:1 Let A , B , and C be $n \times n$ matrices from F such that $A \neq B$. Then, for r chosen uniformly at random from $\{0, 1\}^n$, $\Pr(Ar = Br) \leq 1/2$.
- Proof. Consider the first row of A and the scalar obtained by multiplying the first row of A with r .
- The result is zero if and only if:
$$r_1 = -\frac{\sum_{i=1}^k D_{1i} r_i}{D_{11}}$$
- In the above, it is assumed that there are $k > 0$ nonzero elements in the first row of A .

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- Lemma:1 Let A , B , and C be $n \times n$ matrices from F such that $Ax \neq Cx$. Then, for r chosen uniformly at random from $\{0, 1\}^n$, $\Pr(Ar = Cr) \leq 1/2$.
- Proof (contd.) Consider the event that $(D.r)_1 = 0$.
- This event is a **super-event** of the event that $Dr = 0$.
- Therefore the probability of the event $Dr = 0$ is upper bounded by the probability of the event $(D.r)_1 = 0$.
- To compute the probability of the event $(D.r)_1 = 0$, imagine that all the choices r_2, \dots, r_k have been made.
- In that case, the right hand side is a scalar from the field F .
- The left hand side is a value uniformly chosen amongst (at least) two values in F . The required probability therefore cannot exceed $1/2$.

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- Lemma:1 Let A , B , and C be $n \times n$ matrices from F such that $A \neq B$. Then, for r chosen uniformly at random from $\{0, 1\}^n$, $\Pr(Ar = Br) \leq 1/2$.
- Proof. To compute the required probability, imagine that all the choices r_2, \dots, r_k have been made.
- In that case, the right hand side (Br) is a scalar from the field F .
- The left hand side (A_1r_1) is a value uniformly chosen amongst (at least) two values in F . The required probability therefore cannot exceed $1/2$.

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- To improve the verification efficiency of the procedure, we can also use repeated independent trials.
- Let us perform t independent trials of the above procedure.
- For $AB \neq C$, the probability that the test fails in each trial is at most $1/2$.
- So, in t trials, the probability that all t trials fail is at most $(1/2)^t$.
 - A failure is when indeed $AB \neq C$, and the chosen r is such that $ABr = Cr$.
- For $t = O(\log n)$, the failure probability is polynomially small