

## 03 – Randomization



# Randomization

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- **Types** of randomized algorithms
- Randomized **Quicksort**
- Randomized **primality test**
- **Cryptography**
- Verifying **matrix multiplication**

# 1. Types of randomized algorithms

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- **Las Vegas algorithms**

**Always** correct; expected running time

Example: randomized Quicksort

- **Monte Carlo algorithms** (mostly correct)

**Probably** correct; guaranteed running time

Example: randomized primality test

## 2. Quicksort

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**Input:** List  $S$  of  $n$  distinct elements over a totally ordered universe.

**Output:** The elements of  $S$  in (ascending) sorted order.

**Idea of Quicksort:** Identify a splitter  $v \in S$ .

Determine set  $S_l$  of elements of  $S$  that are  $< v$ .

Determine set  $S_r$  of elements of  $S$  that are  $> v$ .

Sort  $S_l$ ,  $S_r$  recursively.

Output sorted sequence of  $S_l$ , followed by  $v$ ,

followed by sorted sequence  $S_r$ .

# Quicksort

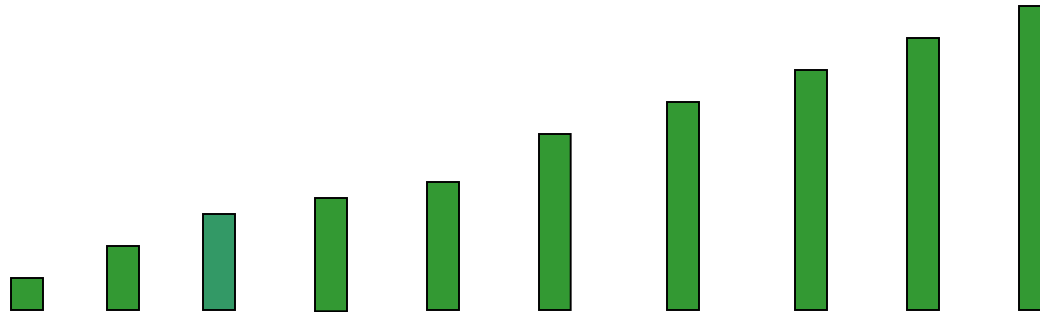


```

function Quick (S: sequence): sequence;
{returns the sorted sequence S}
begin
  if #S ≤ 1 then Quick:=S;
  else { choose splitter element v in S;
        partition S into Sl with elements < v,
        and Sr with elements > v;
        Quick:= Quick(Sl) | v | Quick(Sr) }
  end;
  
```

# Worst-case input

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$n$  elements

Running time:  $(n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 2 + 1 = n(n-1)/2$

# Choice of the splitter element

Suppose that a splitter  $v$  with  $|S_l| \leq n/2$  and  $|S_r| \leq n/2$  can be found in  $cn$  step.

Then  $T(n) \leq 2 T(n/2) + an$ , for some  $a \geq c$ , and  $T(n) \leq an \log n$ .

$T(k)$  = worst-case number of steps to sort  $k$  elements

**Problem:** Find splitter  $v$  with above property.

**But:** Running time of  $O(n \log n)$  can be maintained if  $S_l, S_r$  have roughly equal size, i.e.  $\frac{1}{4} |S| \leq |S_l|, |S_r| \leq \frac{3}{4} |S|$ .

Thus randomly chosen splitter is „good“ with probability  $\geq \frac{1}{2}$ .

# Randomized Quicksort



```

function RandQuick (S: sequence): sequence;
{returns the sorted sequence S}
begin
    if #S ≤ 1 then Quick:=S;
    else { choose splitter element v in S uniformly at random;
          partition S into  $S_l$  with elements < v,
          and  $S_r$  with elements > v;
          RandQuick:= RandQuick( $S_l$ ) | v | RandQuick( $S_r$ ) }
end;

```



# Analysis 1

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$n$  elements; let  $s_i$  be the  $i$ -th smallest element

With probability  $1/n$ ,  $s_1$  is the splitter element:  
subproblems of sizes  $0$  and  $n-1$

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- 
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With probability  $1/n$ ,  $s_k$  is the splitter element:  
subproblems of sizes  $k-1$  and  $n-k$

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With probability  $1/n$ ,  $s_n$  is the splitter element:  
subproblems of sizes  $n-1$  and  $0$

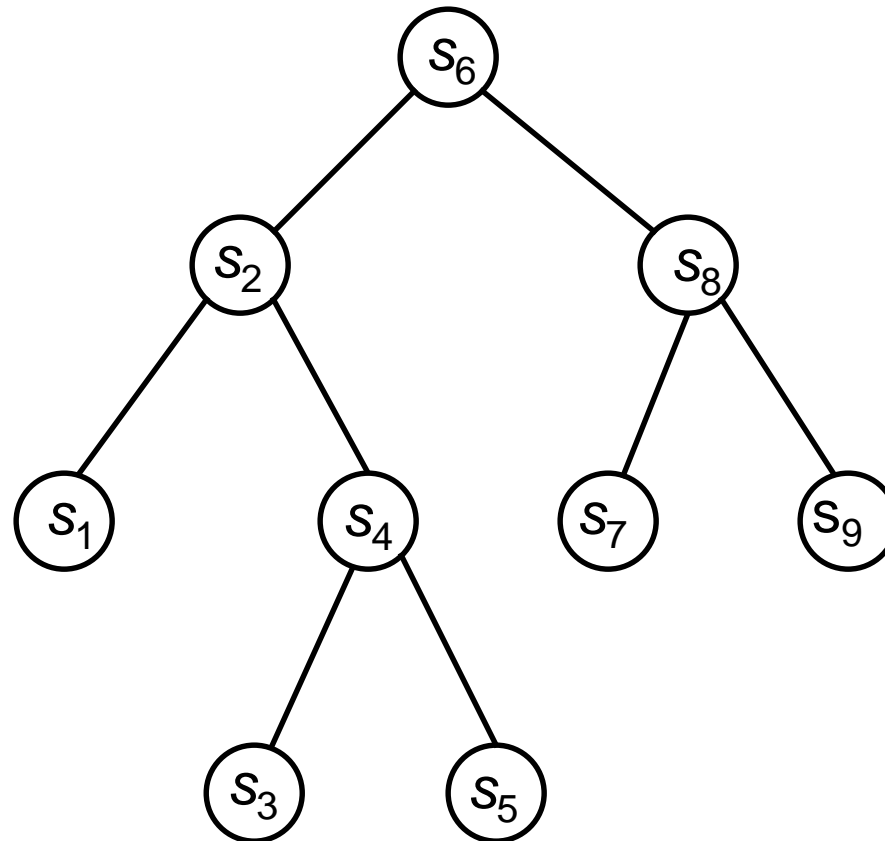
Expected running time:

$$T(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (T(k-1) + T(n-k)) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n T(k-1) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= O(n \log n)$$

# Analysis 2: Representation of QS as a tree



## Analysis 2: expected #comparisons

Running time is linear in the number of element comparisons.

$$X_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s_i \text{ is compared to } s_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j>i} X_{ij}\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j>i} E[X_{ij}]$$

$p_{ij}$  = probability that  $s_i$  is compared to  $s_j$

$$E[X_{ij}] = 1 \cdot p_{ij} + 0 \cdot (1 - p_{ij}) = p_{ij}$$

# Computing $p_{ij}$

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- $s_i$  is compared to  $s_j$  iff  $s_i$  or  $s_j$  are chosen as pivot element before any  $s_l$ ,  $i < l < j$ .  
 $\{s_i \dots s_l \dots s_j\}$
- Any element  $s_i, \dots, s_j$  is chosen as pivot element with the same probability. Hence  $p_{ij} = 2 / (j-i+1)$

Expected number of comparisons:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j>i} p_{ij} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j>i} \frac{2}{j-i+1} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=2}^{n-i+1} \frac{2}{k} \\ &\leq 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} \\ &= 2n \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}\end{aligned}$$

$$H_n = \sum_{k=1}^n 1/k \approx \ln n$$

### 3. Primality test

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#### Definition:

A natural number  $p \geq 2$  is **prime** iff  $a \mid p$  implies that  $a = 1$  or  $a = p$ .

We consider primality tests for numbers  $n \geq 2$ .

**Algorithm:** **Deterministic primality test** (naive approach)

**Input:** Natural number  $n \geq 2$

**Output:** Answer to the question „Is  $n$  prime?“

```
if  $n = 2$  then return true;
if  $n$  even then return false;
for  $i = 1$  to  $\lfloor \sqrt{n}/2 \rfloor$  do
    if  $2i + 1$  divides  $n$ 
        then return false;
return true;
```

Running time:  $\Theta(\sqrt{n})$

# Primality test

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## Goal:

### Randomized algorithm

- Polynomial running time.
- If it returns “not prime”, then  $n$  is not prime.
- If it returns “prime”, then with probability at most  $p$ ,  $p > 0$ ,  $n$  is composite.

After  $k$  iterations: If algorithm always returns “prime”, then with probability at most  $p^k$ ,  $n$  is composite.



# Simple primality test

**Fact:** For any odd prime number  $p$ :  $2^{p-1} \bmod p = 1$ .

**Examples:**  $p = 17$ ,  $2^{16} - 1 = 65535 = 17 * 3855$   
 $p = 23$ ,  $2^{22} - 1 = 4194303 = 23 * 182361$

## Simple primality test:

- 1 Compute  $z = 2^{n-1} \bmod n$ ;
- 2 **if**  $z = 1$
- 3   **then**  $n$  is possibly prime
- 4   **else**  $n$  is composite

Advantage: polynomial running time.

# Simple primality test

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## Definition:

A natural number  $n \geq 2$  is a **base-2 pseudoprime** if  $n$  is composite and  $2^{n-1} \bmod n = 1$ .

**Example:**  $n = 11 * 31 = 341$

$$2^{340} \bmod 341 = 1$$

# Randomized primality test

**Theorem:** (Fermat's little theorem)

If  $p$  is prime and  $0 < a < p$ , then

$$a^{p-1} \bmod p = 1.$$

**Example:**  $n = 341$ ,  $a = 3$ :  $3^{340} \bmod 341 = 56 \neq 1$

**Algorithm:** Randomized primality test

- 1 Choose  $a$  in the range  $[2, n-1]$  uniformly at random;
- 2 Compute  $a^{n-1} \bmod n$ ;
- 3 **if**  $a^{n-1} \bmod n = 1$
- 4     **then**  $n$  is probably prime
- 5     **else**  $n$  is composite

Prob( $n$  is composite but  $a^{n-1} \bmod n = 1$ ) ?

# Problem: Carmichael numbers

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## Definition:

A natural number  $n \geq 2$  is a **base- $a$  pseudoprime** if  $n$  is composite and

$$a^{n-1} \bmod n = 1.$$

**Definition:** A number  $n \geq 2$  is a **Carmichael number** if  $n$  is composite and for any  $a$  with  $\text{GCD}(a, n) = 1$  we have

$$a^{n-1} \bmod n = 1.$$

## Example:

Smallest Carmichael number:  $561 = 3 * 11 * 17$

# Randomized primality test

**Theorem:** If  $p$  is prime and  $0 < a < p$ , then the equation

$$a^2 \bmod p = 1$$

has exactly the two solutions  $a = 1$  and  $a = p - 1$ .

**Definition:** A number  $a$  is a **non-trivial square root mod  $n$**  if

$$a^2 \bmod n = 1 \text{ and } a \neq 1, n - 1.$$

**Example:**  $n = 35$        $6^2 \bmod 35 = 1$

**Idea:** While computing  $a^{n-1}$ , where  $0 < a < n$  is chosen uniformly at random, check if a non-trivial square root mod  $n$  exists.

# Fast exponentiation

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## Method for computing $a^n$ :

**Case 1:** [ $n$  is even]

$$a^n = a^{n/2} * a^{n/2}$$

**Case 2:** [ $n$  is odd]

$$a^n = a^{(n-1)/2} * a^{(n-1)/2} * a$$

Running time:  $O(\log^2 a^n \log n)$

# Fast exponentiation

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## Example:

$$a^{62} = (a^{31})^2$$

$$a^{31} = (a^{15})^2 * a$$

$$a^{15} = (a^7)^2 * a$$

$$a^7 = (a^3)^2 * a$$

$$a^3 = (a)^2 * a$$

# Fast exponentiation

`boolean` isProbablyPrime;

function power(`int`  $a$ , `int`  $p$ , `int`  $n$ ){

*/\* computes  $a^p \bmod n$  and checks if a number  $x$  with  $x^2 \bmod n = 1$  and  $x \neq 1, n-1$  occurs during the computation \*/*

**if**  $p = 0$  **then return** 1;

$x :=$  power( $a$ ,  $p \text{ div } 2$ ,  $n$ );

result :=  $x * x \bmod n$ ;

*/\* check if  $x^2 \bmod n = 1$  and  $x \neq 1, n-1$  \*/*

**if** result = 1 and  $x \neq 1$  and  $x \neq n - 1$  **then** isProbablyPrime := false;

**if**  $p \bmod 2 = 1$  **then** result :=  $a * \text{result} \bmod n$ ;

**return** result;

}

Running time:  $O(\log p \cdot \log^2 n)$



# Miller Rabin primality test

```
primeTest(int n) {  
    /* executes the randomized primality test for a chosen at random */  
    a := random(2, n-1);  
    isProbablyPrime: = true;  
    result := power(a, n-1, n);  
    if result ≠ 1 or !isProbablyPrime then  
        return false;  
    else return true;  
}
```

# Miller Rabin primality test

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## Theorem:

If  $n$  is composite, then there are at most

$$\frac{n-9}{4}$$

numbers  $0 < a < n$  for which the algorithm `primeTest` fails.

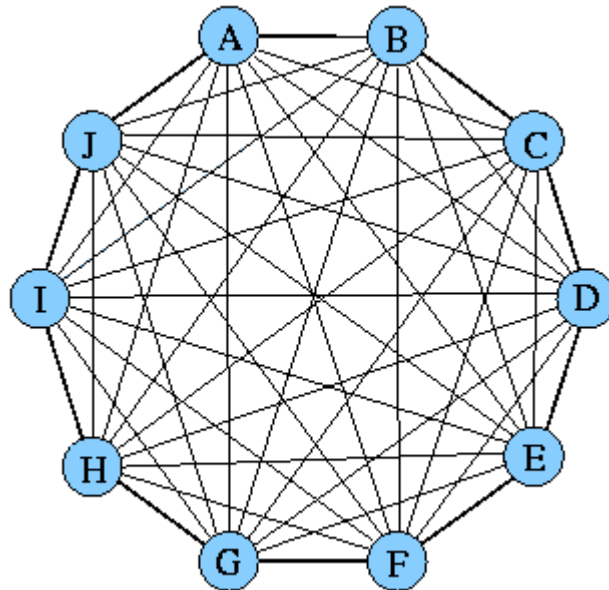
## Public-Key Cryptosystems

# Secret key cryptosystems

## Traditional encryption of messages

### Disadvantages:

1. Prior to transmission of the message, the key  $k$  has to be exchanged between the parties A und B.
2. For encryption of messages between  $n$  parties,  $n(n-1)/2$  keys are required.



# Secret key encryption systems

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## Advantage:

Encryption and decryption are fast.

# Public-key cryptosystems

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Diffie and Hellman (1976)

**Idea:** Each participant  $A$  holds **two** keys:

1. A **public** key  $P_A$ , accessible to all other participants.
2. A **secret** key  $S_A$  that is kept secret.

# Public-key cryptosystems

$D$  = Set of all valid messages,  
e.g. set of all bitstrings of finite length

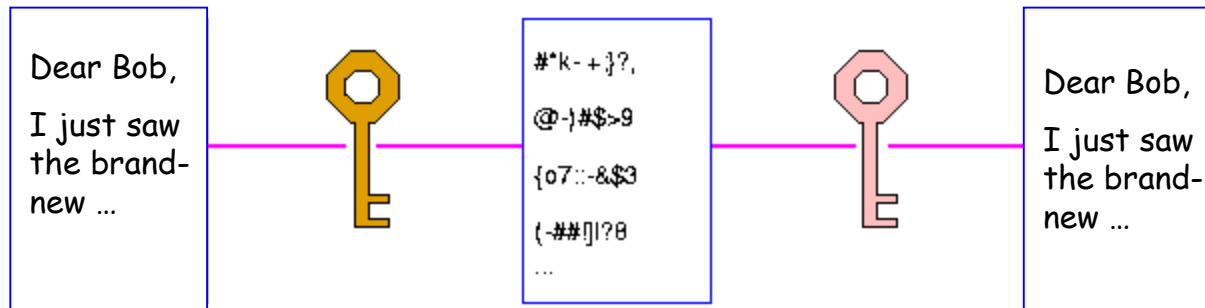
$$P_A(\cdot), S_A(\cdot): D \xrightarrow{1-1} D$$

## Three constraints:

1.  $P_A()$ ,  $S_A()$  efficiently computable
2.  $S_A(P_A(M)) = M$  and  $P_A(S_A(M)) = M$
3.  $S_A()$  is not computable from  $P_A()$  (with realistic effort)

# Encryption in a public-key system

A sends a message  $M$  to  $B$ :





# Encryption in a public key system

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1.  $A$  receives  $B$ 's public key  $P_B$  from a public directory or directly from  $B$ .
2.  $A$  computes the ciphertext  $C = P_B(M)$  and sends it to  $B$ .
3. After receiving message  $C$ ,  $B$  decrypts the message using his secret key  $S_B$ :  $M = S_B(C)$

# Generating a digital signature

A sends a digitally signed message  $M'$  to B:

1. A computes the digital signature  $\sigma$  for  $M'$  using her secret key:

$$\sigma = S_A(M')$$

2. A sends the pair  $(M', \sigma)$  to B.

3. After receiving  $(M', \sigma)$ , B checks the digital signature:

$$P_A(\sigma) = M'$$

Anybody is able to check  $\sigma$  using  $P_A$  (e.g. for bank checks).

# RSA cryptosystem

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R. Rivest, A. Shamir, L. Adleman

Generating the public and secret keys:

1. Select at random two large primes  $p$  and  $q$  of  $l+1$  bits ( $l > 2000$ ).
2. Compute  $n = pq$ .
3. Select a natural number  $e$  is that is relatively prime to  $(p-1)(q-1)$ .
4. Compute  $d = e^{-1}$   
 $d * e \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$

# RSA cryptosystem

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5. Publish  $P = (e, n)$  as public key.
6. Keep  $S = (d, n)$  as secret key.

Split the (binary coded) message into blocks of length  $2l$ .  
Interpret each block  $M$  as a binary number:  $0 \leq M < 2^{2l}$

$$P(M) = M^e \text{ mod } n \quad S(C) = C^d \text{ mod } n$$

# Recovering a message

**To show:**  $S_A(P_A(M)) = P_A(S_A(M)) = M^{ed} \bmod n = M$ , for any  $0 \leq M < 2^{2l}$ .

**Theorem:** (Fermat's little theorem)

If  $p$  is prime, then for any integer  $a$  that is not divisible by  $p$ ,

$$a^{p-1} \bmod p = 1.$$

Since  $d \cdot e \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$  there holds  $ed = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1)$ , for some integer  $k$ .

Suppose that  $M \bmod p \neq 0$ . Then by Fermat's little theorem,

$$M^{p-1} \bmod p = 1 \text{ and thus } M^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \bmod p = 1.$$

Hence  $M^{ed} \bmod p = M^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \bmod p = M \bmod p$ , and  $M^{ed} - M = l_1 p$ , for some integer  $l_1$ .

If  $M \bmod p = 0$ , then again  $M^{ed} - M = l_2 p$ , for some integer  $l_2$ .

# Recovering a message

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In any case, for any  $M$ ,  $M^{ed} - M = l \cdot p$ , for some integer  $l$ .

Similarly, for any  $M$ ,  $M^{ed} - M = l' \cdot q$ , for some integer  $l'$ .

Since  $p$  and  $q$  are prime numbers,  $M^{ed} - M = l^* pq$ , for some integer  $l^*$ .

We conclude that, for any  $M$ , there holds  $M^{ed} \bmod n = M$ .

# Multiplicative inverse

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**Theorem:** (GCD recursion theorem)

For any numbers  $a$  and  $b$  with  $b > 0$ :

$$\text{GCD}(a,b) = \text{GCD}(b, a \bmod b).$$

**Algorithm:** Euclid

**Input:** Two integers  $a$  and  $b$  with  $b \geq 0$

**Output:**  $\text{GCD}(a,b)$

**if**  $b = 0$

**then return**  $a$

**else return**  $\text{Euclid}(b, a \bmod b)$

# Multiplicative inverse

**Algorithm:** extended-Euclid

**Input:** Two integers  $a$  and  $b$  with  $b \geq 0$

**Output:**  $\text{GCD}(a,b)$  and two integers  $x$  and  $y$  with  
 $xa + yb = \text{GCD}(a,b)$

**if**  $b = 0$  **then return**  $(a, 1, 0)$ ;

$(d, x', y') := \text{extended-Euclid}(b, a \bmod b)$ ;

$x := y'$ ;  $y := x' - \lfloor a/b \rfloor y'$ ;

**return**  $(d, x, y)$ ;

**Application:**  $a = (p-1)(q-1)$ ,  $b = e$

The algorithm returns numbers  $x$  and  $y$  with

$$x(p-1)(q-1) + ye = \text{GCD}((p-1)(q-1), e) = 1$$



## 5. Verifying matrix multiplication

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**Problem:** Three  $n \times n$  matrices  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$ . Verify whether or not  $AB=C$ .

**Simple solution:** Multiply  $A$ ,  $B$  and compare to  $C$ .

$O(n^3)$  multiplications/operations, can be reduced to roughly  $O(n^{2.37})$ .

**Goal:** Design fast verification algorithm that may err with a certain probability.

# Verifying matrix multiplication

**Algorithm:** Choose  $\vec{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_n) \in \{0,1\}^n$  uniformly at random.  
Compute  $AB\vec{r}$  by first computing  $B\vec{r}$  and then  $A(B\vec{r})$ .  
Then compute  $C\vec{r}$ .  
If  $A(B\vec{r}) \neq C\vec{r}$ , then return  $AB \neq C$ . Otherwise return  $AB = C$ .

Running time:  $O(n^2)$

**Theorem:** If  $AB \neq C$  and if  $\vec{r}$  is chosen uniformly at random from  $\{0,1\}^n$ , then  $\Pr[AB\vec{r} = C\vec{r}] \leq \frac{1}{2}$ .

We next prove this theorem.

**Law of Total Probability:** Let  $\Omega$  be a probability space and  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  be mutually disjoint events. Let  $B$  be an event with  $B \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ . Then

$$\Pr[B] = \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr[B \cap A_i] = \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr[B | A_i] \Pr[A_i].$$

By assumption  $AB \neq C$ . Hence  $D := AB - C \neq 0$  and the matrix  $D$  contains at least one non-zero entry  $d_{ij} \neq 0$ .

On the other hand,  $AB\vec{r} = C\vec{r}$  translates to  $D\vec{r} = 0$ .

Let  $P = D\vec{r} = (p_1, \dots, p_n)^T$ .

There holds  $p_i = \sum_{k=1}^n d_{ik} r_k = d_{ij} r_j + y$ , for some constant  $y$ .

# Analysis

Hence

$$\Pr[P = 0]$$

$$\leq \Pr[p_i = 0] = \Pr[p_i = 0 \mid y = 0] \cdot \Pr[y = 0] + \Pr[p_i = 0 \mid y \neq 0] \cdot \Pr[y \neq 0].$$

There holds:

$$\Pr[p_i = 0 \mid y = 0] = \Pr[r_i = 0] = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Pr[p_i = 0 \mid y \neq 0] = \Pr[r_i = 1 \wedge d_{ij} = -y] \leq \Pr[r_i = 1] = \frac{1}{2}.$$

We conclude

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[P = 0] &\leq \Pr[p_i = 0] \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Pr[y = 0] + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Pr[y \neq 0] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Pr[y = 0] + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1 - \Pr[y = 0]) = \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

# Analysis

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Repeating the algorithm  $k$  times reduces the error probability to  $1/2^k$ , using a running time of  $O(kn^2)$ .

For  $k=100$ , the error probability is upper bounded by  $1/2^k$ , while the running time is still  $O(n^2)$ .