

Math 261C: Randomized Algorithms

Lecture topic: Primality Testing, and Randomized Petting Zoo

Lecturer: Sam Buss

Scribe notes by: Michelle Bodnar

Date: May 5, 2014

No lecture May 21, 23. We will have a two hour lecture on Friday May 30.

1. MILLER-RABIN PRIMALITY TESTING

The first version was a deterministic algorithm done by Miller in 1976, but required the assumption of the Extended Riemann Hypothesis (ERH). The second version was a randomized algorithm done by Rabin in 1980.

Recall that n is a **Carmichael number** if $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod n$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$.

Lemma 1. *An integer n with prime factorization $n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_l$ is a Carmichael number if and only if each p_i is distinct, and $(p_i - 1) | (n - 1)$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, l$.*

Proof. Suppose n is a Carmichael number. Let $n = p_1^{k_1} \cdots p_l^{k_l}$ be the prime factorization of n . Since n is not prime, either $k_1 > 1$ or $l > 1$. Then we have $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod n$, so $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p_i}$ for each i . Since $\mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{k_i}}$ is cyclic, we have $\phi(p_i^{k_i}) | (n - 1)$, so $p_i^{k_i-1} (p_i - 1) | (n - 1)$. If $k_i > 1$ then $p_i | (n - 1)$, contradicting the fact that $p_i | n$.

The reverse direction is easier and left as an exercise. □

The Miller-Rabin Primality Algorithm is shown on the next page.

Miller-Rabin(n)**Input:** $n \geq 2$ is an odd integer.;**Output:** “Not prime” or “Not sure”. Write $n - 1 = 2^r R$ where R is odd;**Choose** $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{0\}$ at random;**if** $\gcd(a, n) \neq 1$, **then**| **Output** “Not prime”;**for** $k = 0$ *to* r **do**| $b_k = a^{\frac{n-1}{2^k}} \bmod n$;**end****if** $b_0 \not\equiv 1 \pmod n$ **then**| **Output** “Not prime”;**else**| **Find the maximum** j **such that** $b_j \equiv 1 \pmod n$;| **if** $j = r$ **then**| | **Output** “Not sure”;| **else if** $b_{j+1} \equiv -1 \pmod n$ **then**| | **Output** “Not prime”;| **else**| | **Output** “Not sure”;| **end****end****Algorithm 1:** Miller-Rabin Algorithm

Claim: If n is composite, the algorithm outputs “Not prime” with probability at least $1/4$.

Proof. If n is not Carmichael, steps (2) and (3) output “Not prime” with probability at least $1/2$ by Solovay Strassen. If n is Carmichael, write $p_i - 1 = 2^{r_i} R_i$ where R_i is odd. Without loss of generality, assume $r_1 \geq r_2, \dots, r_l$. Take $k = r - r_1$. Then $\frac{n-1}{2^k}$ is a multiple of $p_1 - 1$ but $\frac{n-1}{2^{k+1}}$ is not. Since $p_i - 1 \mid \frac{n-1}{2^k}$ for each i , $b_k \equiv 1 \pmod{p_i}$ so $b_k \equiv 1 \pmod n$.

$b_{k+1} \equiv 1 \pmod n$ if and only if either

$$(1) \ a^{\frac{n-1}{2^{k+1}}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p_i} \text{ for all } i \text{ or}$$

$$(2) \ a^{\frac{n-1}{2^{k+1}}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p_i} \text{ for all } i.$$

(1) happens with probability $\leq 1/2$, since it happens with probability $1/2$ already for p_1 .

(2) happens with probability $\leq 1/4$. To see this, note that if $r_1 > r_2, \dots, r_l$ then (2) happens with probability 0 since $\frac{n-1}{2^{k+1}}$ is a multiple of $p_i - 1$ for $i \geq 2$. Otherwise $r_1 = r_2$, so $\text{Prob}(a^{\frac{n-1}{2^{k+1}}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p_i})$ is equal to $1/2$ for $i = 1, 2$ independently. \square

If the algorithm outputs “Not prime,” then n is guaranteed to be composite. Running the algorithm multiple times will give us success with probability as close to 1 as we like. If the Extended Riemann Hypothesis (ERH) is true, then the algorithm can be derandomized, as, assuming ERH, it suffices to consider only $a \leq O(\log(n^2))$. In this case, we could remove the randomization by checking just these small values.

Agrawal, Kayal, and Saxena gave a polynomial time deterministic algorithm for primality in 2004.

2. RANDOMIZED COMPLEXITY MINI ZOO (PETTING ZOO)

We’ll consider randomized, polynomial time algorithms which give yes/no answers (i.e., they accept or reject), and we’ll work with languages $L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$. By convention, R accepts if and only if L does not reject.

We say L is in PP if and only if for some deterministic polynomial time $R(x, y)$ and polynomial p we have that for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$x \in L \iff \text{Prob}_{\substack{y \in \{0, 1\}^* \\ |y|=p(|x|)}} (R(x, y) \text{ accepts}) \geq \frac{1}{2}.$$

We say L is in RP if and only if for some deterministic polynomial time $R(x, y)$ and polynomial p we have that for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$\begin{aligned} x \in L &\implies \text{Prob}_{\substack{y \in \{0, 1\}^* \\ |y|=p(|x|)}} (R(x, y) \text{ accepts}) \geq \frac{1}{2} \\ x \notin L &\implies \text{Prob}_{\substack{y \in \{0, 1\}^* \\ |y|=p(|x|)}} (R(x, y) \text{ accepts}) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

This is an example of one-sided error because $R(x, y)$ could reject even if $x \in L$, however $R(x, y)$ will never accept if $x \notin L$. We’ve shown that compositeness is in RP . If you run an RP test k times, the probabilities become $1 - 2^{-k}$ and 0, instead of $1/2$ and 0.

We say L is in BPP if and only if for some deterministic polynomial time $R(x, y)$ and polynomial p we have that for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$\begin{aligned} x \in L &\implies \text{Prob}_{\substack{y \in \{0, 1\}^* \\ |y|=p(|x|)}} (R(x, y) \text{ accepts}) \geq \frac{2}{3} \\ x \notin L &\implies \text{Prob}_{\substack{y \in \{0, 1\}^* \\ |y|=p(|x|)}} (R(x, y) \text{ accepts}) \leq \frac{1}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

This is an example of two-sided error. Note that $RP \subseteq BPP$ and $RP \subseteq NP$, but it is not known if $BPP \subseteq NP$. It is conjectured that $BPP = P$.

By repeatedly choosing random y 's, checking if $R(x, y)$ holds, and taking the majority answer, we can get a *BPP* algorithm to be polynomial time with probabilities amplified to $1 - 2^{-n}$ and 2^{-n} .

We say $f : \{0, 1\}^*$ is in $\#P$ if and only if for some deterministic polynomial time $R(x, y)$ and polynomial p we have $f(x) = |\{y : |y| = p(|x|) \text{ and } R(x, y) \text{ accepts}\}|$.