

# CS 521: Topics in PL

**P**robabilistic &  
**A**pproximate  
**C**omputing

<http://misailo.web.engr.illinois.edu/courses/cs521>

# **Before We Start**

**Time to register the readings you would want to present!**

- **Select not less than five papers (ranked)**
- You will present one (likely) based on the current course enrollment
- If second is needed, that can be a part of extra-credit
- I sent the link to the poll on Piazza and the website
- Please submit by **Tuesday**. I will get back with assignments by Friday

**Also the first homework has been released (Check Piazza!)**

# **Today: Three faces of Non-determinism**

1. Parallel Computations
2. Soft errors from hardware
3. Randomized approximate algorithms

# Nondeterministic Approximation in Parallel Computations

Removing synchronization and reading stale data

Various techniques over the years:

- Dropping tasks (Rinard 2006 ICS)
- Removing barriers (Rinard 2007 OOPSLA)
- Reading stale data (Thies et al. PLDI 2011)
- Removing locks
- Parallelizing with data races (Misailovic et al. 2012, 2013)
- Breaking data dependencies
- ...

# Some Early Insights

```
iterate  
{  
  mask[1:M] = filter(...);  
  parallel_iterate (i = 1 to M with mask[1:M] batch P)  
  {  
    ...  
  }  
} until converged(...);
```

**Figure 4. Pseudocode of the best-effort iterative-convergence template.**

We observe that the proposed iterative convergence template can be used to explore best-effort computing in three different ways.

- The selection of appropriate filtering criteria that reduce the computations performed in each iteration.
- The selection of convergence criteria that decide when the iterations can be terminated.
- The use of the *batch* operator to relax data dependencies in the body of the *parallel\_iterate*.

# Some Early Insights

```
iterate
{
  mask[1:M] = filter(...);
  parallel_iterate (i = 1 to M with mask[1:M] batch P)
  {
    ...
  }
} until converged(...);
```

**Figure 4. Pseudocode of the best-effort iterative-convergence template.**

**Convergence-based pruning:** Use converging data structures to speculatively identify computations that have minimal impact on results and eliminate them

**Staged Computation:** consider fewer points in early stages; gradually use more points in later stages to improve accuracy

**Early Termination:** Aggregate statistics to estimate accuracy and terminate before full convergence.

**Sampling:** Select a random subset of input data and use it to compute the results.

**Dependency Relaxation:** Ignore potentially redundant dependencies across iterations. Leads to more degree of parallelism or coarser granularity

# Data Dependence

A **data dependence** from statement **S1** to statement **S2** exists if

1. there is a ***feasible execution path*** from S1 to S2, and
2. an instance of S1 ***references the same memory location*** as an instance of S2 in some execution of the program, and
3. at ***least one of the references is a store.***

# Kinds of Data Dependence

**Direct** Dependence

$$X = \dots$$
$$\dots = X + \dots$$

**Anti**-dependence

$$\dots = X$$
$$X = \dots$$

**Output** Dependence

$$X = \dots$$
$$X = \dots$$



# Dependence Graph

A **dependence graph** is a graph with:

- Each **node represents a statement**, and
- Each **directed edge** from S1 to S2, if there is a **data dependence** between S1 and S2 (where the instance of S2 follows the instance of S1 in the relevant execution).
  - S1 is known as a **source** node
  - S2 is known as a **sink** node

# Kinds of Data Dependence

## Direct Dependence

S1:  $X = \dots$   
S2:  $\dots = X + \dots$

Dependence  
Graph Edges

$S_1 \longrightarrow S_2$

## Anti-dependence

S1:  $\dots = X$   
S2:  $X = \dots$

$S_1 \nrightarrow S_2$

## Output Dependence

S1:  $X = \dots$   
S2:  $X = \dots$

$S_1 \twoheadrightarrow S_2$

# Dependence Graph for Loops

*(Repeat)* A **dependence graph** is a graph with:

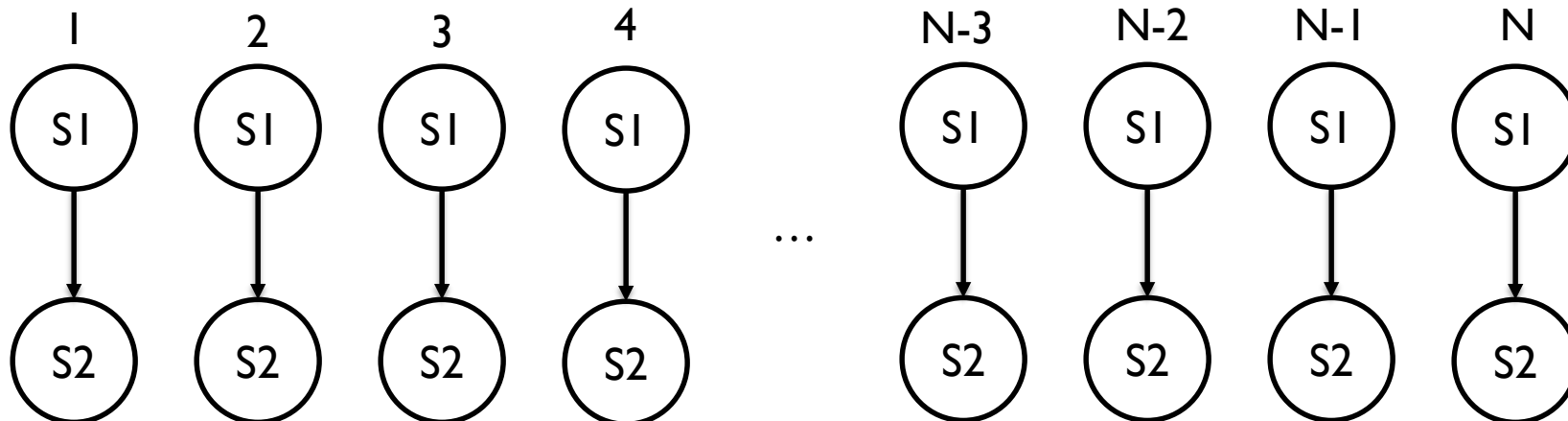
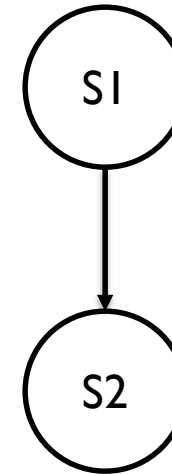
- one node per statement, and
- a directed edge from S1 to S2 if there is a data dependence between S1 and S2 (where the instance of S2 follows the instance of S1 in the relevant execution).

**For loops:** dependence graph is a **summary of unrolled dependencies** for different iterations

- Some (detailed) information may be lost

# Dependence in Loops

```
int X[], Y[], a[], i;  
for i = 1 to N  
S1:    X[i] = a[i] + 2  
S2:    Y[i] = X[i] + 1  
end
```



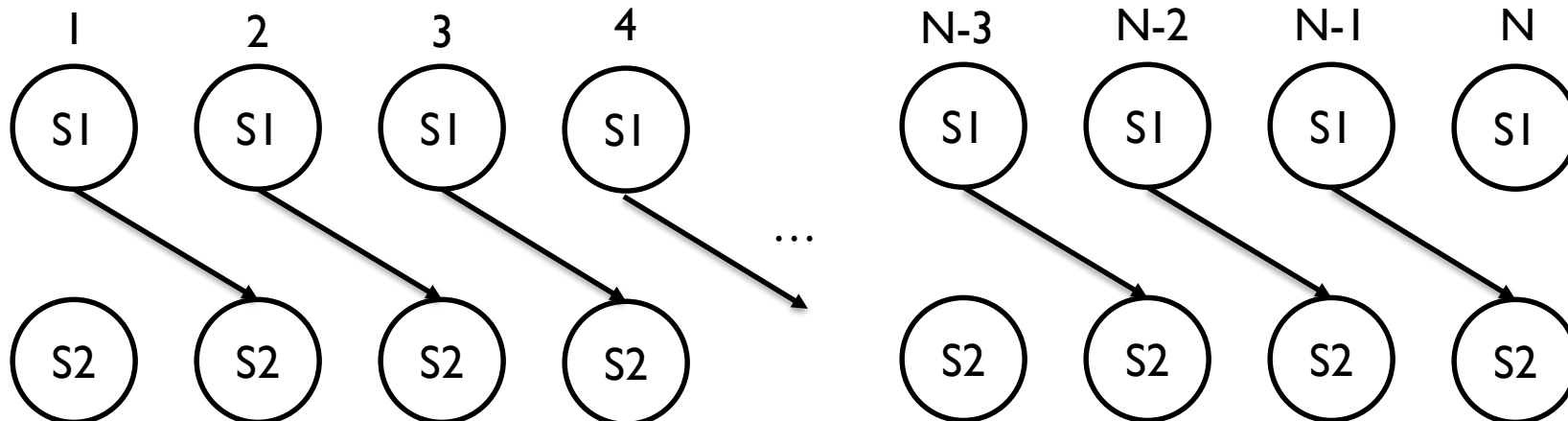
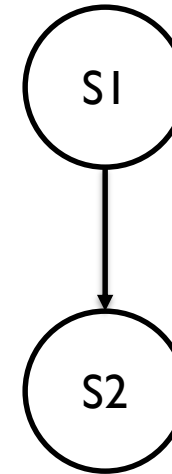
# Dependence in Loops

```
int X[], Y[], a[], i;  
for i = 1 to N
```

```
S1:      X[i+1] = a[i] + 2
```

```
S2:      Y[i] = X[i] + 1
```

```
end
```



# Dependence in Loops

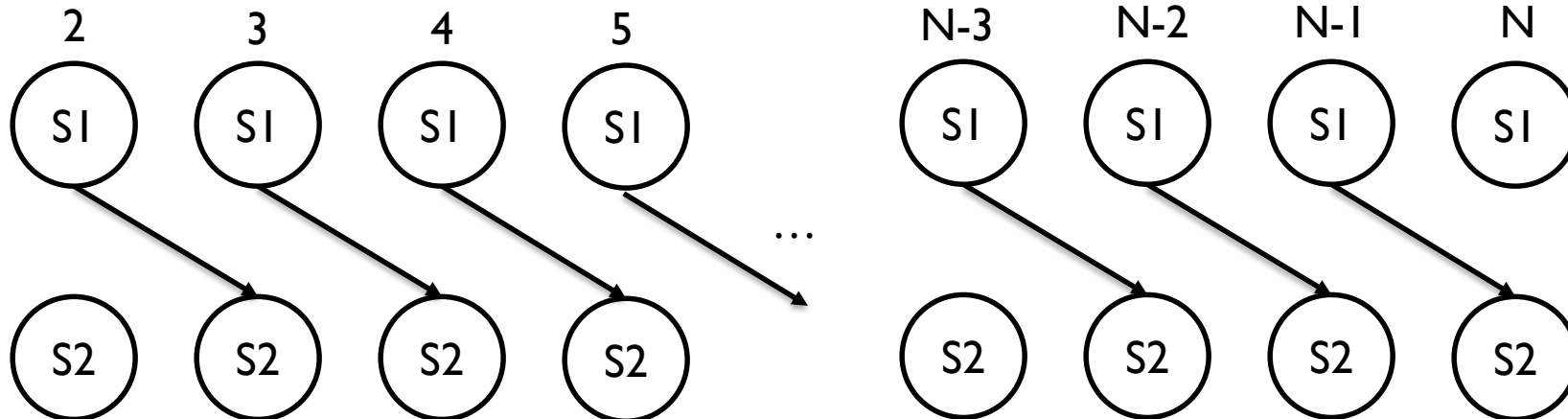
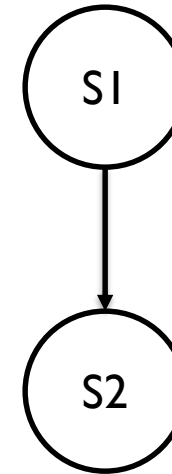
```
int X[], Y[], a[], i;
```

```
for i = 2 to N
```

```
S1:      X[i] = a[i] + 2
```

```
S2:      Y[i] = X[i-1] + 1
```

```
end
```



# Dependence in Loops

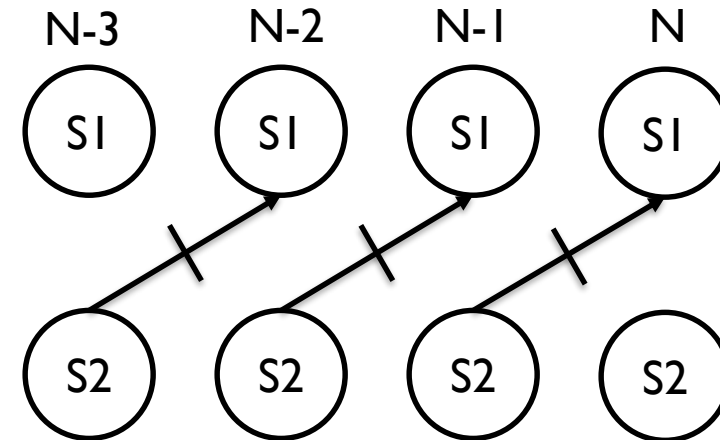
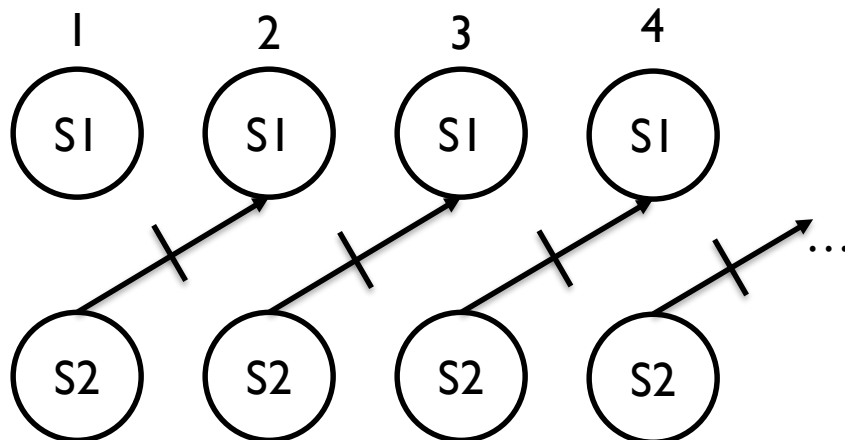
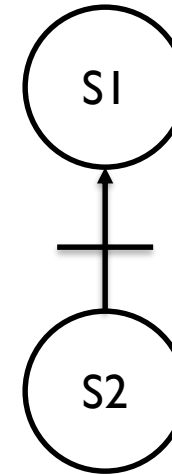
```
int X[], Y[], a[], i;
```

```
for i = 1 to N
```

```
S1:      X[i] = a[i] + 2
```

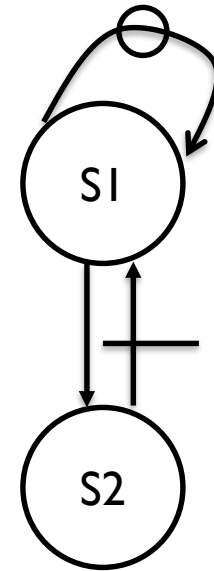
```
S2:      Y[i] = X[i+1] + 1
```

```
end
```



# Dependence in Loops

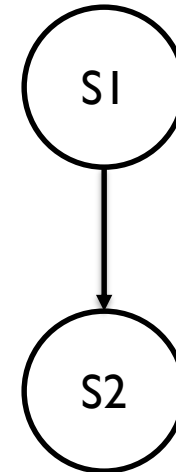
```
int X[], Y[], a[], t, i;  
for i = 1 to N  
S1:      t = a[i] + 2  
S2:      Y[i] = t + 1  
end
```



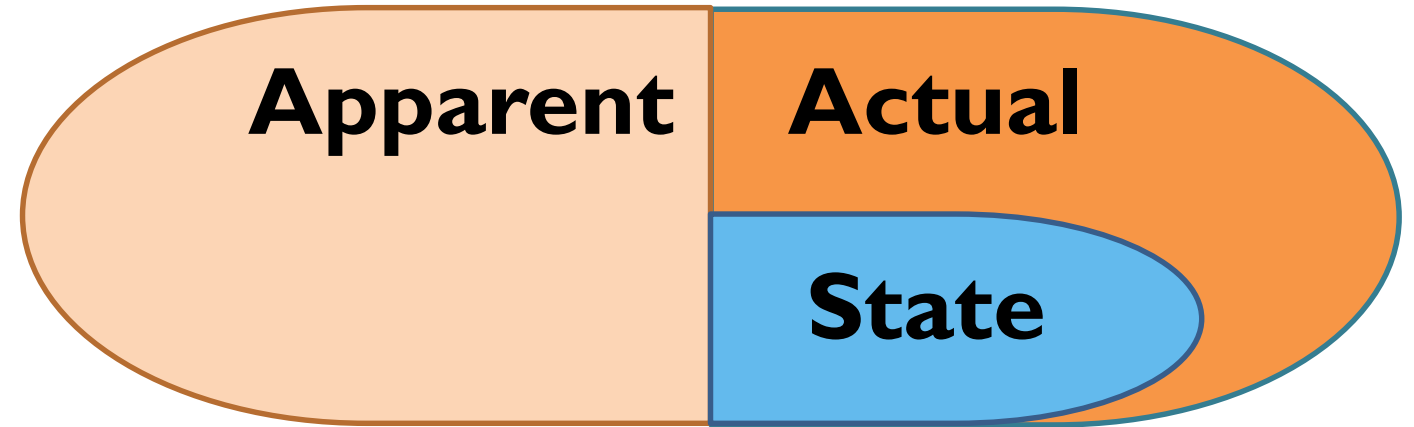


# Dependence in Loops

```
int X[], Y[], a[], i, t[];  
for i = 1 to N  
S1:    t[i] = a[i] + 2  
S2:    Y[i] = t[i] + 1  
end
```



# Kinds of Dependencies



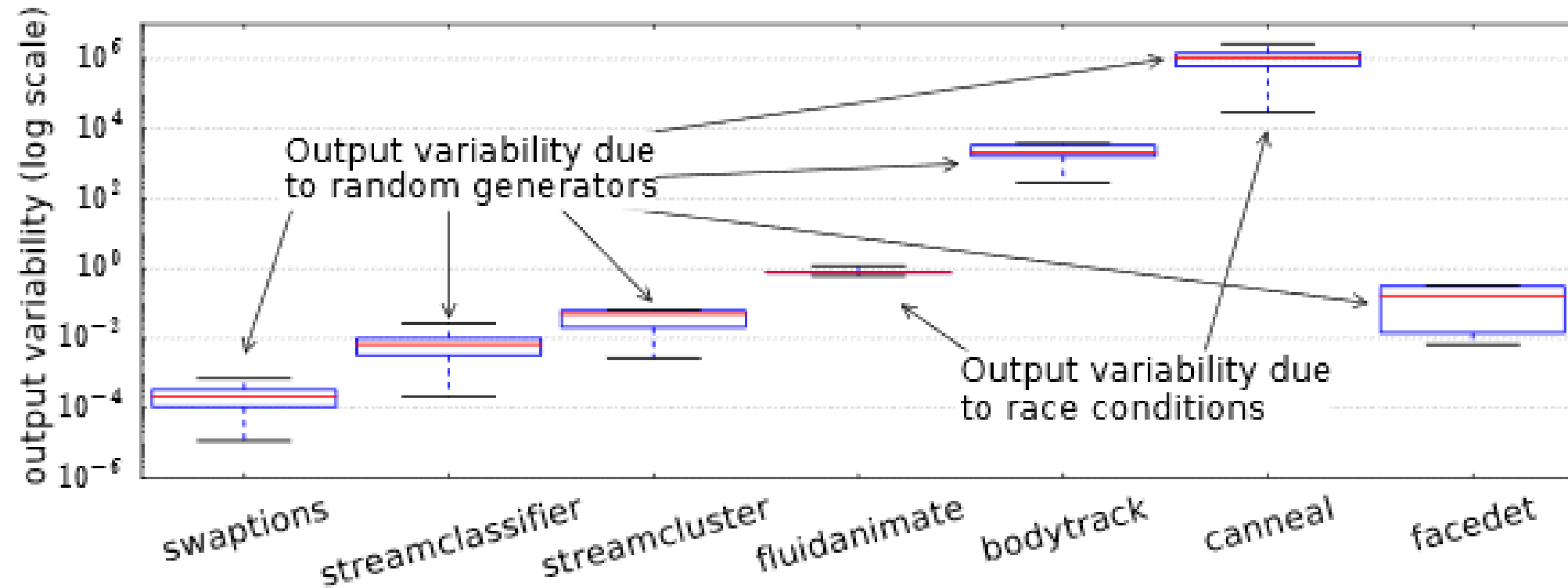
- **Actual:** exist in the program
- **State:** exist in the program and can be satisfied with extra code to match the original result, but faster than conventional
- **Apparent:** do not exist, but the compiler/developer cannot prove that they are unnecessary

Strict preservation of every actual dependencies may not necessary,  
Preservation on any apparent dependency is not necessary

# Dependencies in Non-deterministic Codes?

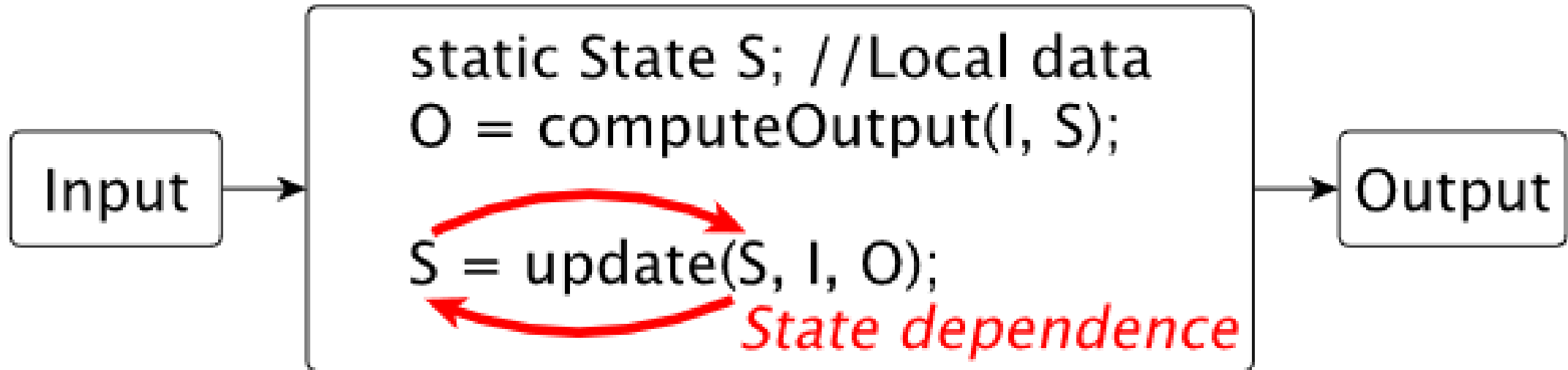
- For the same input, nondeterministic programs produce different results in each run.
- Use the error margins of the ordinary execution to find less important dependencies
- Non-determinism masks broken (unsatisfied) dependencies
- Use inexpensive checks to make sure the speculative execution matches those expected from the original program

# Opportunity for Accuracy (over 100 runs)



**Figure 2.** Output variability of nondeterministic PARSEC benchmarks. Several exhibit very high variability and are particularly amenable to STATS.

# Opportunity State Dependency



- Thread level parallelism is constrained by a sequential chain of dependences
- Opportunity: break this dependence to increase parallelism
- Fix: do 'speculation', if the result is too different, drop those updates and reexecute

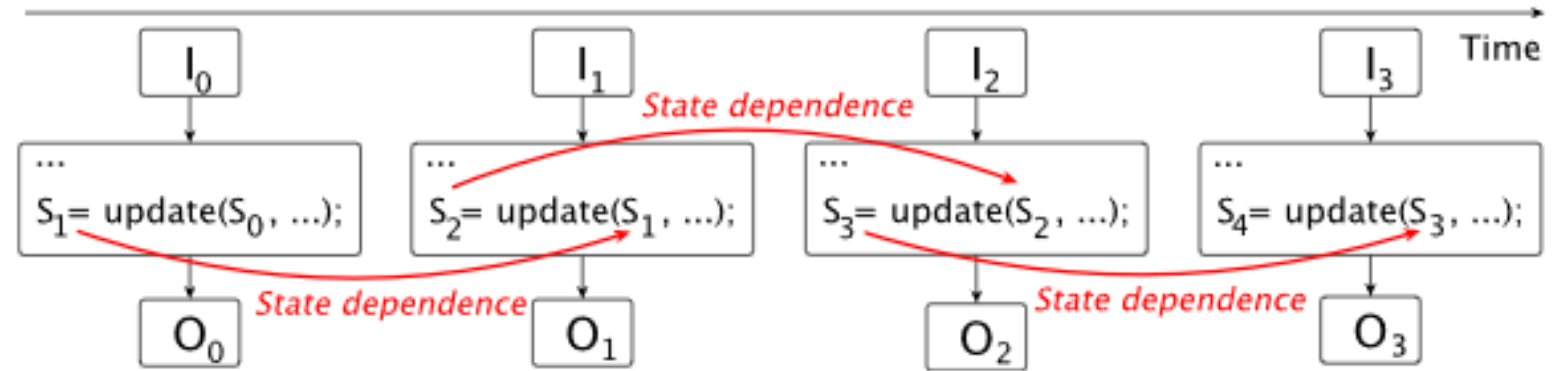
# Approach

Break the dependency occasionally

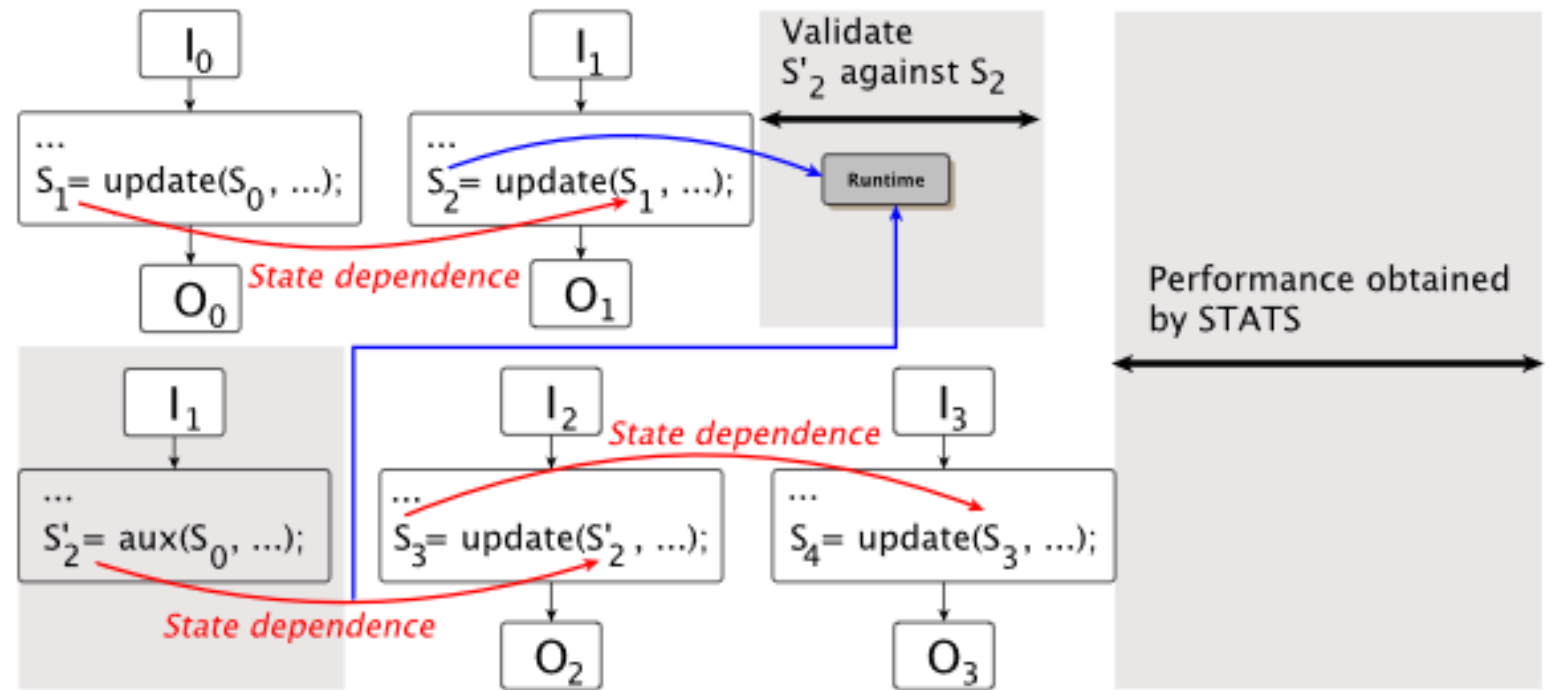
- Run inexpensive transfer function

Ensure that the impact is not large

- If small, continue,
- If large, reexecute (infrequently)

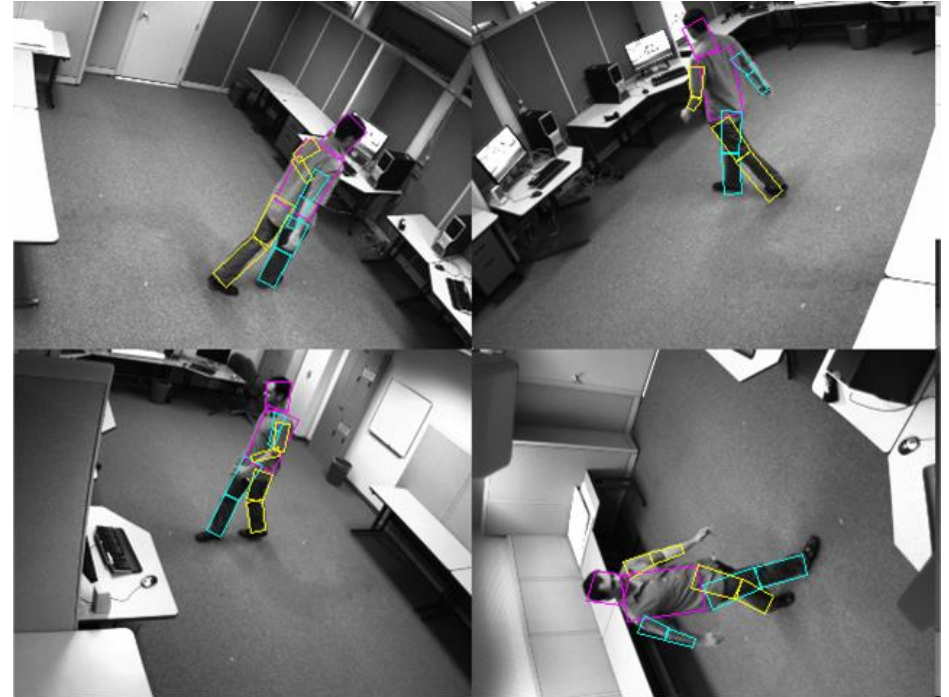
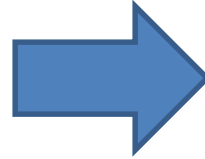
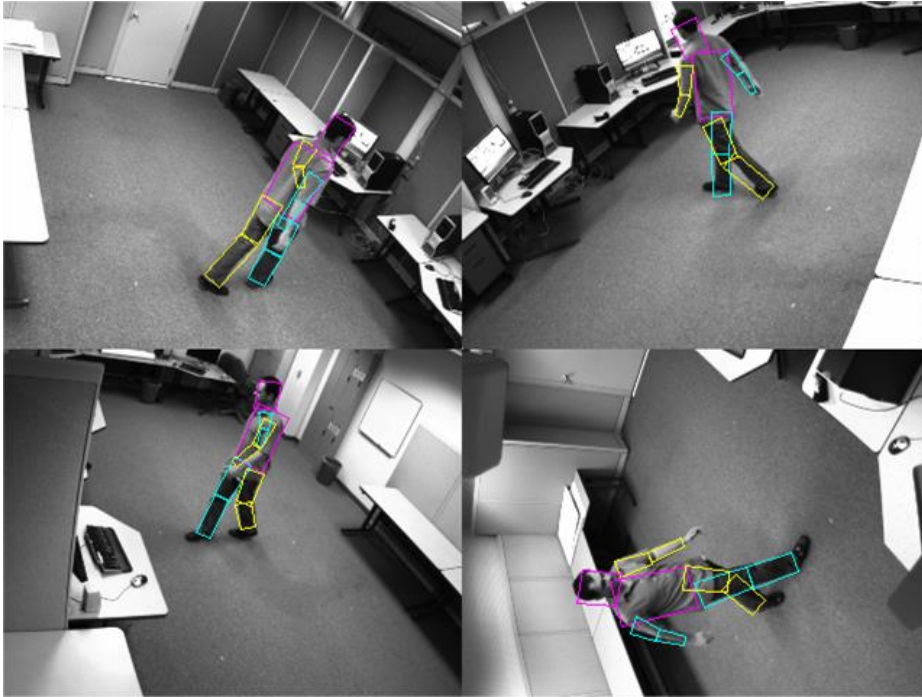


(a) Execution serialization due to a state dependence



(b) Additional TLP generated by auxiliary code

# Example: Bodytrack



Expensive computation in each step

The model in step  $i+1$  requires us to first compute the model in step  $i$

We can often assume that the model can be (approximately) computed much faster

- e.g., just add some distance to each component of the model assuming the object will not jerk-move

# Code Modification

## Bodytrack: Pose estimation program

```
void estimateLocations() {
    vector<int> frameIds(numFrames);
    vector<Particle> model(numParticles);
    vector<BodyPart> positions;
    for(auto frameId : frameIds) {
        Frame f = getFrame(frameId);
        model = updateModel(numAnnealingLayers,
                           model, f);
        positions = getPositions(model);
    }
}
```

Figure 7. Original code of bodytrack.

State dependence interface (SDI) tells the compiler which dependence is of the “state” kind

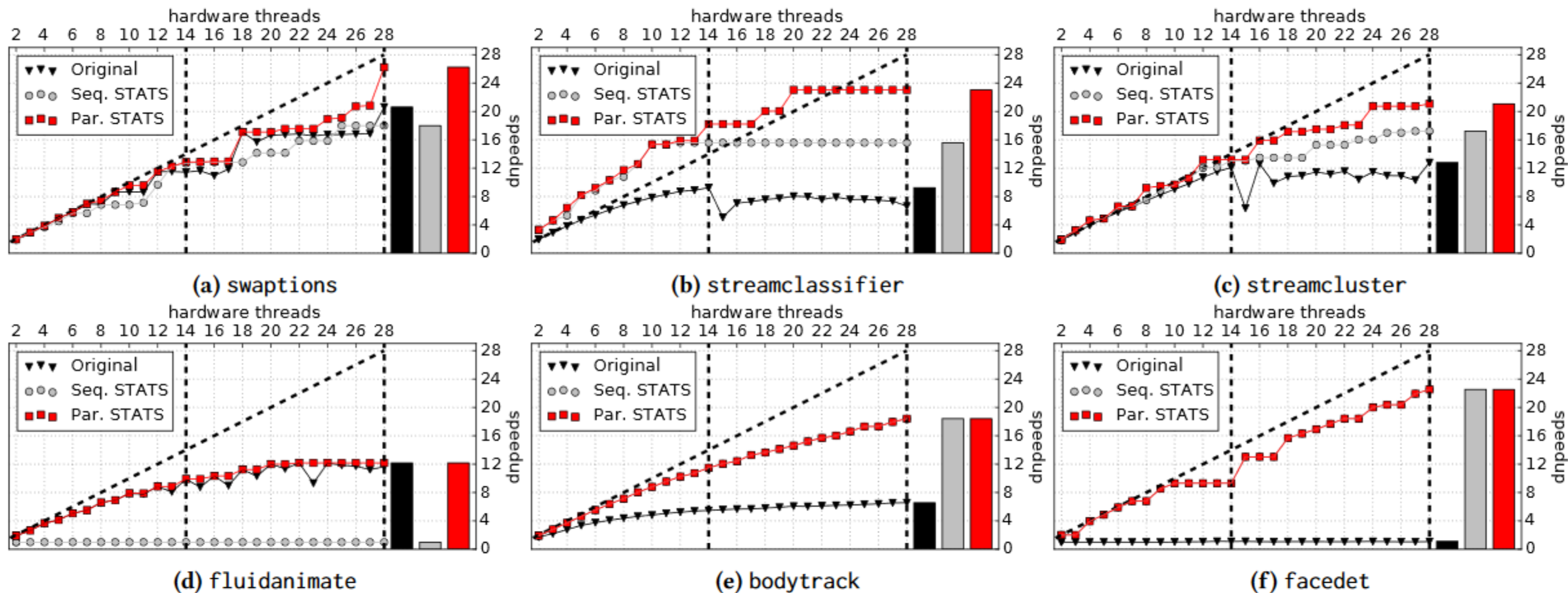
```
class Input { int frameId; };
class Output { vector<BodyPart> positions; };
class State {
    vector<Particle> model;
    State& operator=(State&);
    bool doesSpecStateMatchAny(set<State*>);
};
Output* computeOutput(Input *i, State *s){
    Frame f = getFrame(i->frameId);
    s->model = updateModel(TO_numAnnealingLayers,
                          s->model, f);

    Output *o = new Output();
    o->positions = getPositions(s->model);
    return o;
}
void estimateLocations() {
    vector<Input*> i(numFrames);
    vector<Particle> model(numParticles);
    State s; s.model = model;
    StateDependence<Input, State, Output>
        stateDep(&i,&s,computeOutput);
    stateDep.start(); stateDep.join();
}
```

Figure 8. Use of SDI in bodytrack.

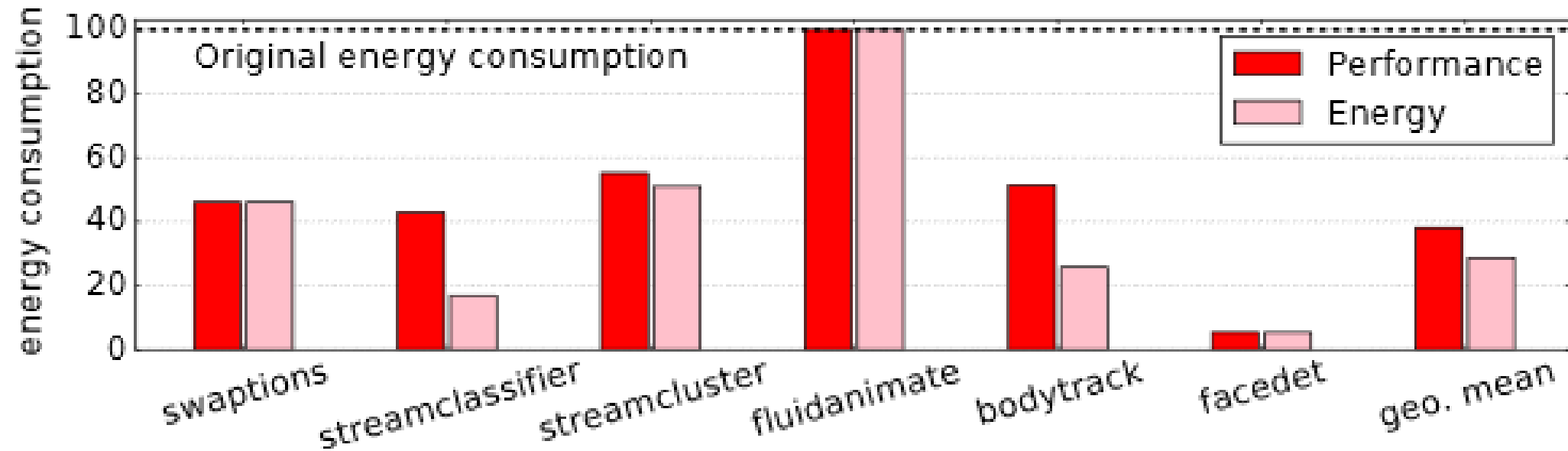


# Extracting Parallelism: Speedup



**Figure 12.** For most benchmarks, STATS generates a significant amount of extra parallelism that saturates the hardware resources of our platform. “Original” is the out-of-the-box benchmark that has been parallelized by traditional means. “Seq. STATS” (“Par. STATS”) is the binary generated by STATS starting from the sequential (multi-threaded) version of a benchmark. The bar graphs show maximum speedup.

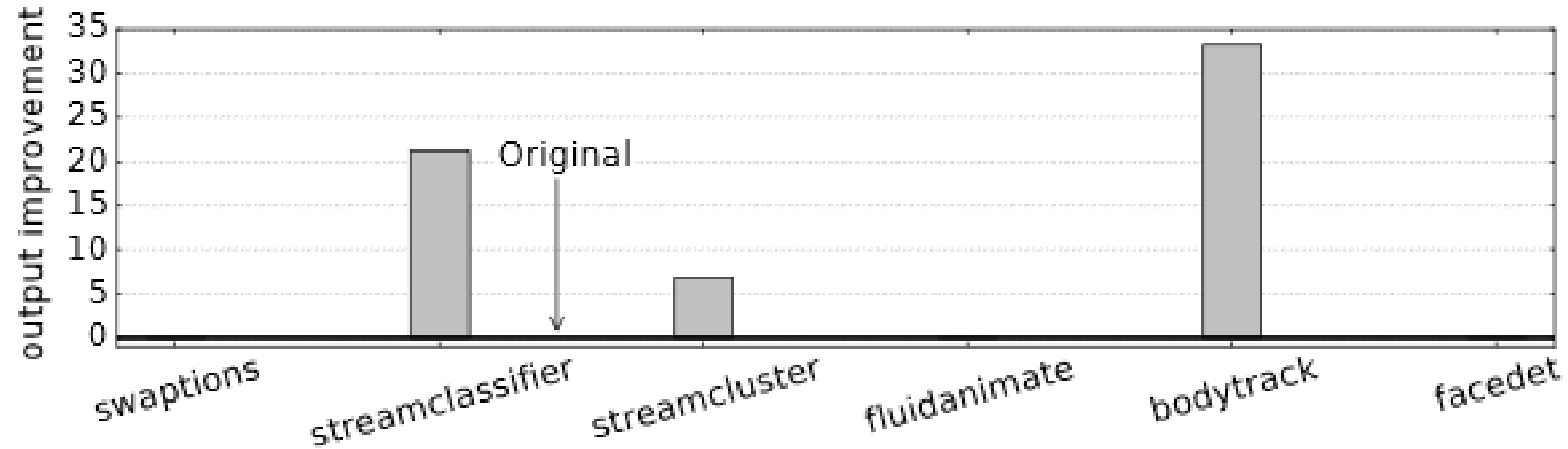
# Energy Consumption



**Figure 15.** The binaries generated by STATS use considerably less energy compared to the original benchmarks.

**Even though more work is done, it consumes less energy. Why?**

# Accuracy Impact: Can run more



**Figure 16.** STATS can increase the original output quality by spending the saved time to iterate more over the same dataset.

**Where is it good to use:** *Applications that analyze a long stream of data (e.g., bodytrack, facedet, streamcluster) where the information about inputs that is automatically computed (e.g., 3D location of bodies, 2D location of faces, centroids of multi-dimensional points) has the “short memory” dependence property.*

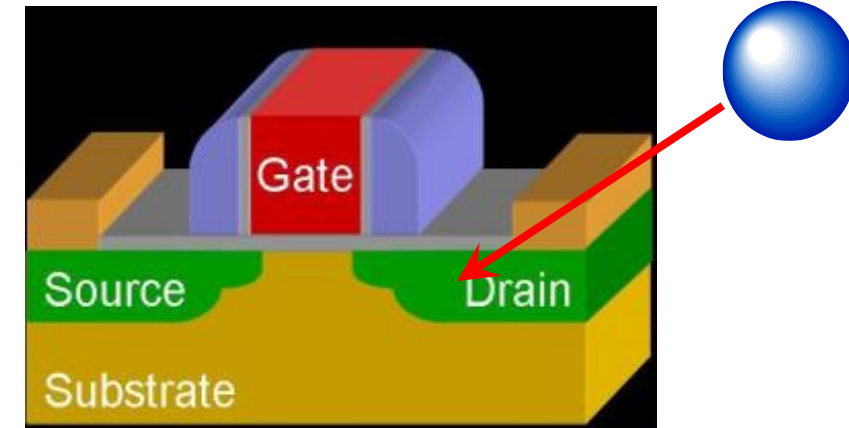
# **SOFT ERRORS IN PROGRAMS**

# Soft Errors: Nondeterminism from Hardware

As technology scales, **hardware reliability** is more important

Hardware more susceptible to transient (soft) errors

Many applications require very high reliability guarantees



Soft Error

TRANSPORTATION \ UBER \ RIDE-SHARING \

**Uber self-driving car saw pedestrian but didn't brake before fatal crash, feds say**

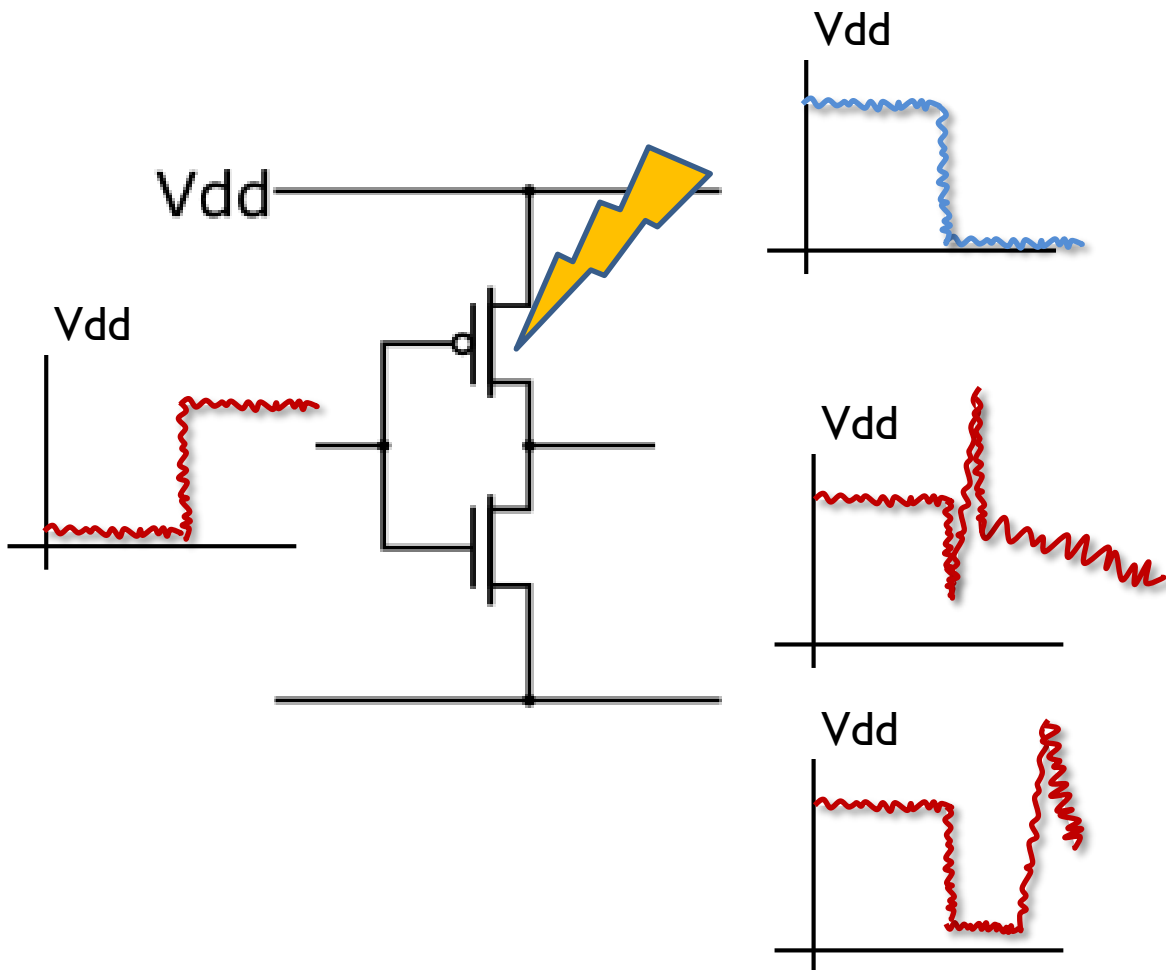
*The report is more interesting for what it doesn't say than what it does*

By Andrew J. Hawkins | @andyjayhawk | May 24, 2018, 11:07am EDT

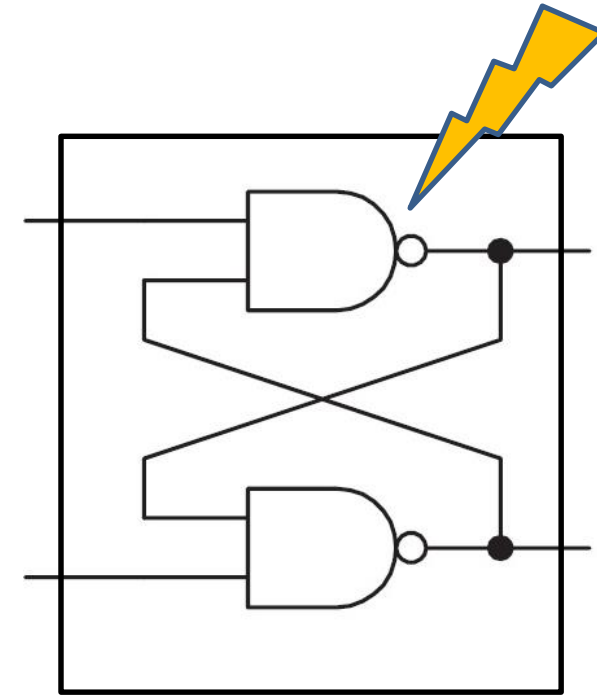
“Volkswagen reported ~20% disengagements due to software hang/crashes”, **WAYMO, CA DMV 2016 Dataset, DSN 2018**

# What Happens at the Circuit Level?

## Combinatorial circuits

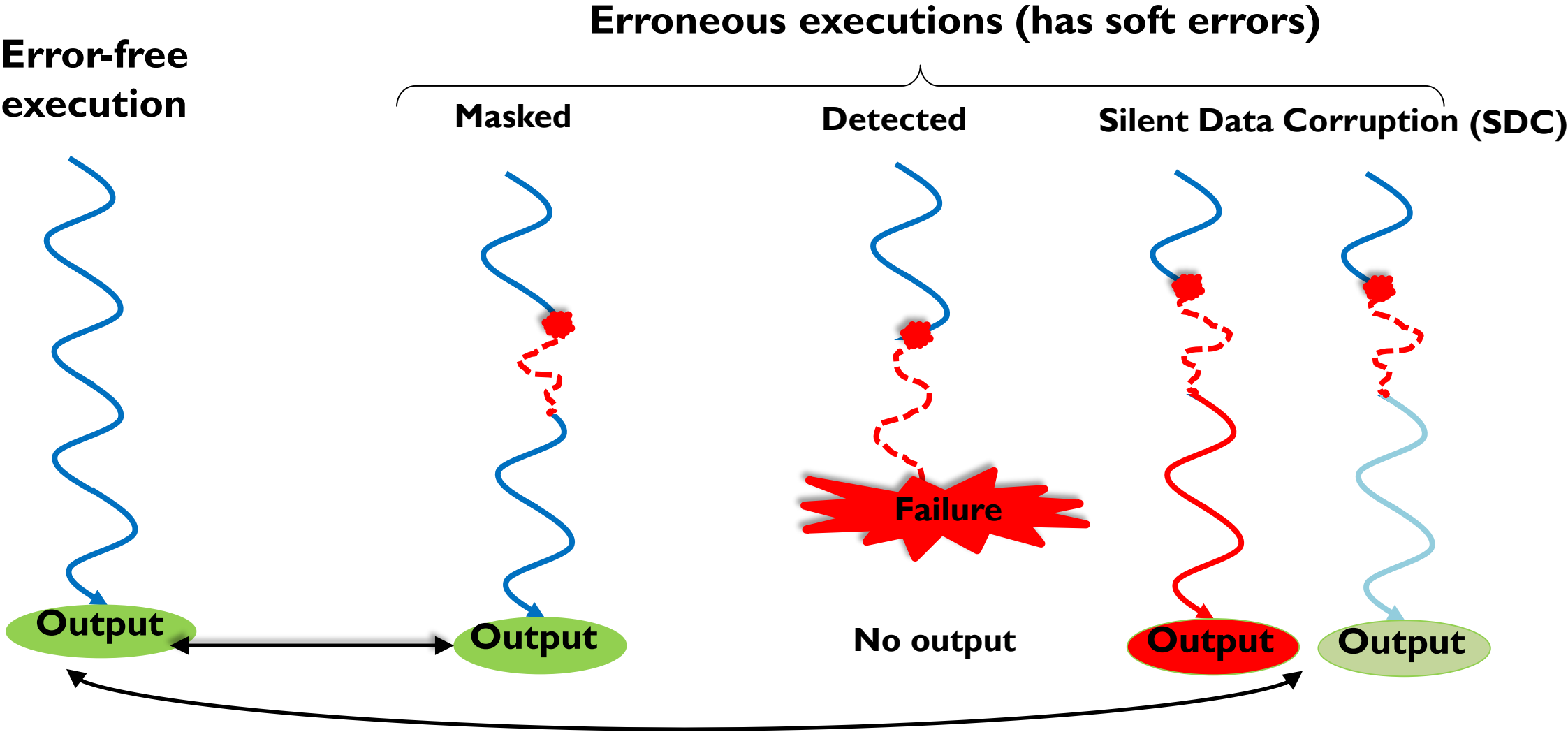


## Sequential circuits



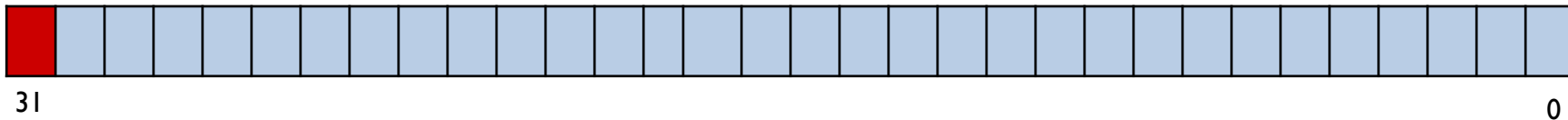
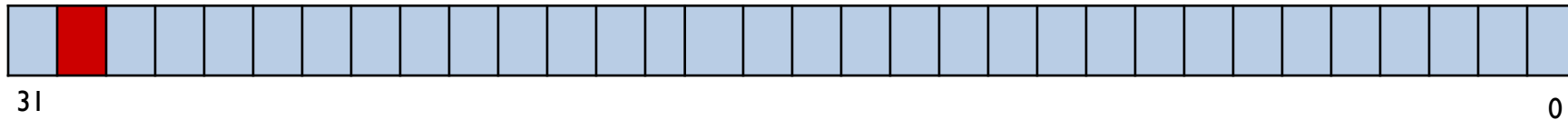
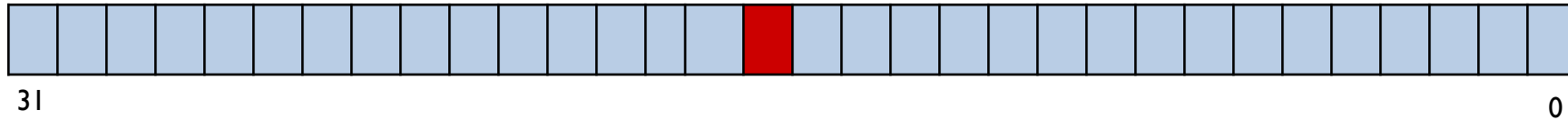
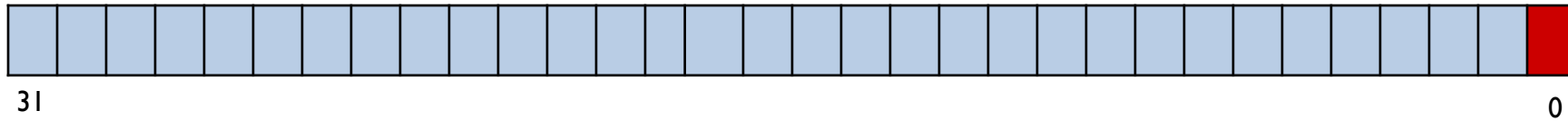
1. Input may have the wrong value: it stores it
2. Error in the circuit can flip the stored value

Some errors slip through the cracks – **silently corrupt computation results**



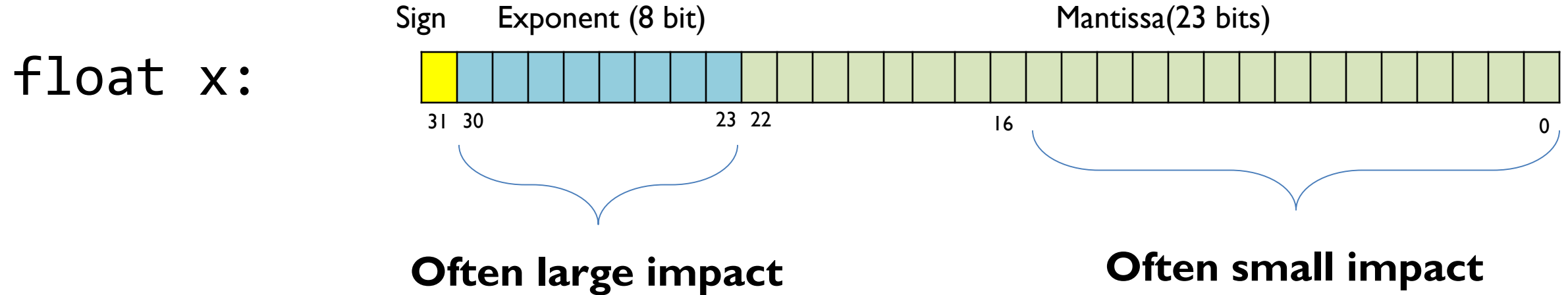
# How do We See at Software Level?

## Corrupted Bits





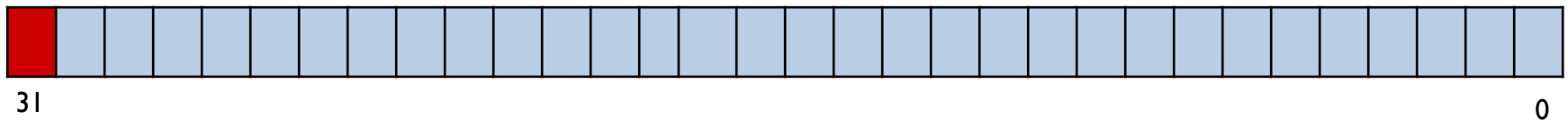
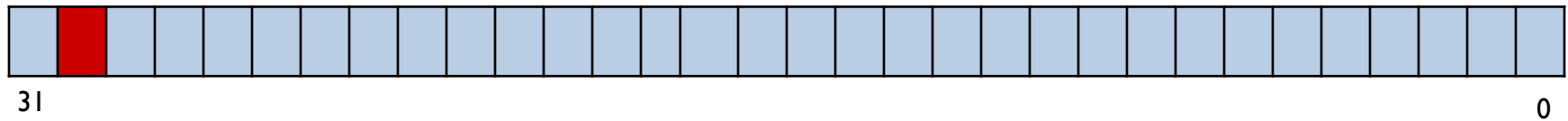
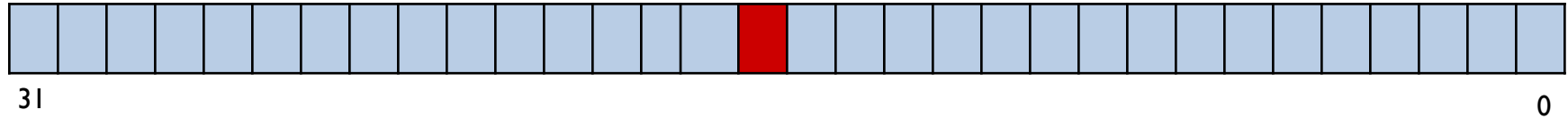
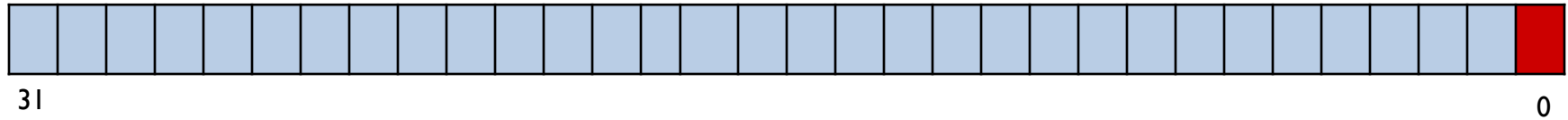
# How do We See at Software Level?



# How do We See at Software Level?

## Corrupted Bits

int x:



***But also int\* x... what happens then?***

# Modeling Soft Errors

## Interval:

- If only lower bits can be corrupted, then we also know the interval of error

## Probability:

- Simple: coin-flip of how often you get correct result
- Complicated: we model the distribution of how different results can be

# Challenges and Traditional Solutions

## Detection:

- **Run twice, compare the results**
- **Instruction Replication**
- **Algorithm-based fault tolerance**

## Recovery:

- **Checkpoint-restart**
- **Run three times, do majority voting**

# Challenges and Approximate Solutions

## Detection:

- **Run twice, compare the results**
- **Instruction Replication**
- **Algorithm-based fault tolerance**

## Recovery:

- **Checkpoint-restart**
- **Run three times, do majority voting**

**Run exact and approximate versions, ensure they don't differ by too much**

# Challenges and Approximate Solutions

## Detection:

- **Run twice, compare the results**
- **Instruction Replication**
- **Algorithm-based fault tolerance**

## Recovery:

- **Checkpoint-restart**
- **Run three times, do majority voting**

**Replicate only some instructions**

**For the others, either rely on the property of the computation or develop inexpensive checkers**

# Challenges and Approximate Solutions

## Detection:

- **Run twice, compare the results**
- **Instruction Replication**
- **Algorithm-based fault tolerance**

## Recovery:

- **Checkpoint-restart**
- **Run three times, do majority voting**



**Make the algorithmic techniques aware of the approximation**

# Challenges and Approximate Solutions

## Detection:

- **Run twice, compare the results**
- **Instruction Replication**
- **Algorithm-based fault tolerance**

## Recovery:

- **Checkpoint-restart**
- **Run three times, do majority voting**

**Checkpoint only a small part of the state**

**Restart only when necessary**



# Challenges and Approximate Solutions

## Detection:

- **Run twice, compare the results**
- **Instruction Replication**
- **Algorithm-based fault tolerance**

## Recovery:

- **Checkpoint-restart**
- **Run three times, do majority voting**

**If we need to re-execute,  
run only approximate  
algorithm**

**Try to do 'local repair'  
on the output**

# Lightweight Check and Recover

```
z = x*y  
z' = x*y  
z==z' ?
```

Code  
Re-Execution  
(SWIFT, DRIFT,  
Shoestring)

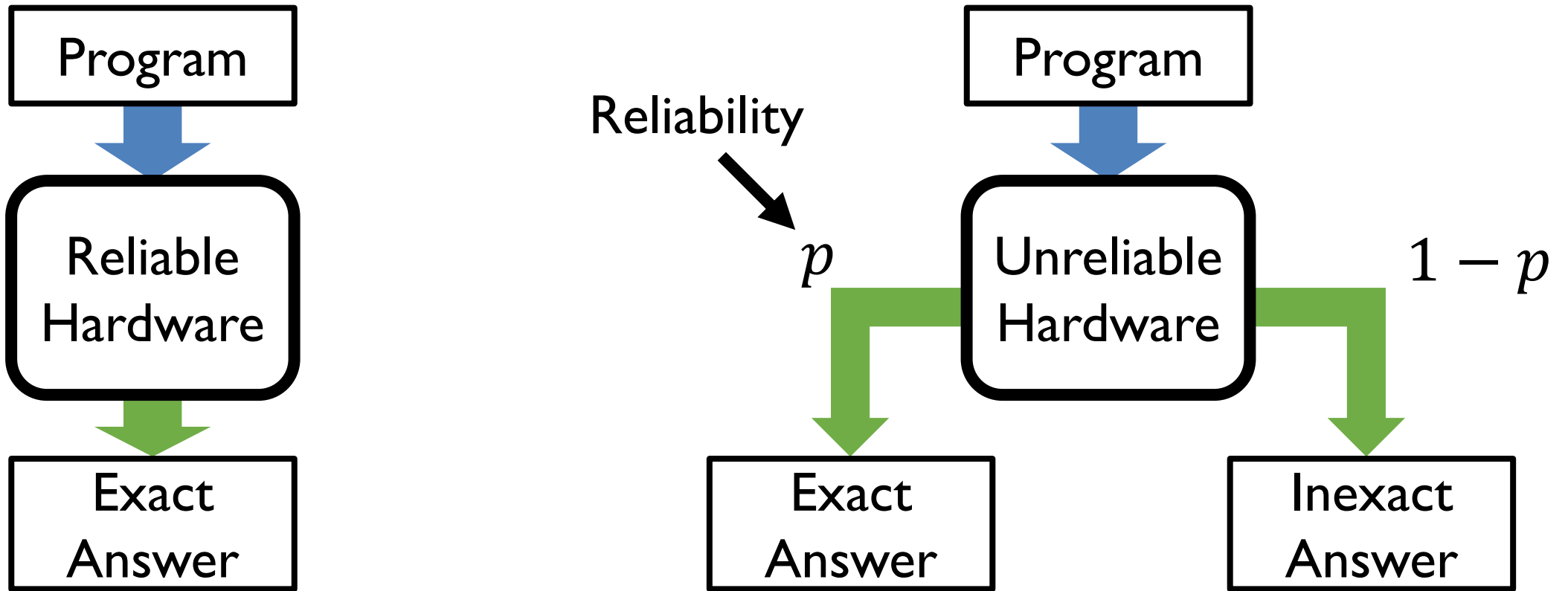
```
y = foo(x)  
DNN(x,y)=ok ?
```

Anomaly  
Detection  
(Topaz, Rumba)

```
s = SAT(p)  
verify(s,p) ?
```

Verification  
(for NP-Complete)

# Reliability



Reliability is the probability of obtaining the *exact* answer

# The Try-Check-Recover Mechanism

Some research languages<sup>1,2</sup> expose *Try-Check-Recover mechanisms*:

```
try { solution = SATSolve(problem) } ← Unreliable code
check { satisfies(problem, solution) } ← Checks for errors
recover { solution = SATSolve(problem) } ← Recovery code
```

<sup>1</sup>“Relax”, M. de Kruijf, S. Nomura, and K. Sankaralingam, ISCA '10

<sup>2</sup>“Topaz”, S. Achour and M. Rinard, OOPSLA '15

# Simplest of programs

$$Z = X * Y$$

$$W = X + Y$$

# Code Re-Execution – SWIFT<sup>1</sup>

// Instruction 1

```
try { z = x*y [p_try] rnd(); }  
check { z == (x*y [p_try] rnd()) }  
recover { z = x*y [p_rec] rnd(); }
```

// Instruction 2

```
try { w = x+y [p_try] rnd(); }  
check { w == (x+y [p_try] rnd()) }  
recover { w = x+y [p_rec] rnd(); }
```

<sup>1</sup>G.A. Reis, J. Chang, N. Vachharajani, R. Rangan, and D. August, CGO '05

# Code Re-Execution – DRIFT<sup>1</sup>

```
// Instruction 1 and 2
try {
    z = x*y [p_try] rnd();
    w = x+y [p_try] rnd();
}
check {
    z == (x*y [p_try] rnd()) && w == (x+y [p_try] rnd())
}
recover {
    z = x*y [p_rec] rnd();
    w = x+y [p_rec] rnd();
}
```

<sup>1</sup>K. Mitropoulou, V. Porpodas, and M. Cintra, LCPC '13

# Code Re-Execution – Shoestring<sup>1</sup>

```
// Instruction 1
try { z = x*y [p_try] rnd(); }
check { z == (x*y [p_try] rnd()) }
recover { z = x*y [p_rec] rnd(); }
// Instruction 2 not considered critical
w = x+y [p_try] rnd();
```

<sup>1</sup>S. Feng, S. Gupta, A. Ansari, and S. Mahlke, ASPLOS '10



# Anomaly Detection – Topaz<sup>1</sup>

```
try {  
    z = f(x,y) [p_try] rnd();  
}  
check {  
    isUnusual(x,y,z)  
}  
recover {  
    z = f(x,y) [p_rec] rnd();  
}
```

<sup>1</sup>S.Achour and M. Rinard, OOPSLA '15

# Hardware Error Flag<sup>1,2</sup>

```
try {  
    z = x*y [p_try] rnd();  
}  
check {  
    !(read_hw_err_flag())  
}  
recover {  
    z = x*y [p_rec] rnd();  
}
```

<sup>1</sup>“Relax”, M. de Kruijf et al., ISCA '10    <sup>2</sup>“Replica”, V. Fernando et al., ASPLOS '19

# Key Connection Between Reliability and Approximation

- Selective reliability mechanisms yield approximate results, while reducing the overhead of error detection/recovery
- Approximate computations can tolerate some “noise” in the execution brought by some unreliable executions

# **SUBLINEAR TIME ALGORITHMS**

# Property Checking

Main idea: make decisions just by visiting a small subset of elements

- Sufficient to distinguish good elements from the clearly bad elements

It will give at most a probabilistic argument, but valid for all input sequences

Repeat multiple times for better effect.

See Ronitt Rubinfeld's course on Sublinear time algorithms:

<http://www.cs.tau.ac.il/~ronit/COURSES/Fl4sublin//>

# Property Checking

“The ball is on the field or out of the stadium” (Ronitt Rubinfeld)



# Property Testing Statement (General)

- $P$  is a property (over the input) we're testing
- $T$  is a randomized algorithm that tests for  $P$
- $T$  only has a black box access to an input  $x$  and satisfies:

If  $x \in P \Rightarrow \Pr[T \text{ accepts}] \geq \delta$ .

If  $x$  is  $\varepsilon$ -far from  $P \Rightarrow \Pr[T \text{ rejects}] \geq \delta$ .

(Remark #1: if  $x$  is closer than  $\varepsilon$  to  $P$ , it's a gray zone; we still accept)

(Remark #2: the choice of probability  $\delta$  in papers is commonly  $2/3$  is just for convenience; we will see how to automatically extend it to any higher probability: tl;dr – rerun multiple times)

# Checking Equality of Strings/Arrays

**Inputs:**  $a = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$  and  $b = b_1 b_2 \dots b_n$

**(Idealistic) Goal:** Return true if  $a = b$

- can do in  $O(n)$  time
- but need to communicate and compute on large arrays

**Relaxation:** “ $\varepsilon$ -far”:  $\#(a_i \neq b_i) > \varepsilon \cdot n$

**(Pragmatic) Goal:** Return true if not “ $\varepsilon$ -far” with high probability ( $\geq \delta$ )

- The arrays are treated as equal even if a small % elements is different
- but we will show the algorithm will operate in **constant time**



# Checking Equality of Strings/Arrays

**Relaxation:** “ $\varepsilon$ -far”:  $\#(a_i \neq b_i) > \varepsilon \cdot n$

**(Pragmatic) Goal:** Return true if not “ $\varepsilon$ -far” with high probability ( $\geq \delta$ )

1. Pick  $s$  indices ( $I = \{i_1 \dots i_s\}$ ) uniformly at random
2. Select the corresponding elements  $a_{i_1}, b_{i_1} \dots a_{i_s}, b_{i_s}$
3. If  $a_i = b_i$  for all shared indices  $i \in I$ , return  $a = b$ ,  
otherwise return  $a \neq b$

What should  $s$  be to obtain the desired property?

# Checking Equality of Strings/Arrays

1. Pick  $s$  indices ( $I = \{i_1 \dots i_s\}$ ) uniformly at random
2. Select the corresponding elements  $a_{i_1}, b_{i_1} \dots a_{i_s}, b_{i_s}$
3. If  $a_i = b_i$  for all shared indices  $i \in I$ , return  $a = b$ , otherwise return  $a \neq b$

What should  $s$  be to obtain the desired property?

- If  $a = b$  the probability of returning the correct result is 1
- $\Pr[ T \text{ returns } a = b \mid \#(a_i \neq b_i) > \epsilon n ]$  is more interesting (should be  $\leq \delta$ )

# Checking Equality of Strings/Arrays

1. Pick  $s$  indices ( $I = \{i_1 \dots i_s\}$ ) uniformly at random
2. Select the corresponding elements  $a_{i_1}, b_{i_1} \dots a_{i_s}, b_{i_s}$
3. If  $a_i = b_i$  for all shared indices  $i \in I$ , return  $a = b$ , otherwise return  $a \neq b$

What should  $s$  be to obtain the desired property?

- If  $a = b$  the probability of returning the correct result is 1
- $\Pr[ T \text{ returns } a = b \mid \#(a_i \neq b_i) > \varepsilon n ]$  is more interesting (should be  $\leq \delta$ )
- For a single comparison to go “wrong” (miss difference):  $\leq 1 - \frac{\varepsilon \cdot n}{n}$
- For all  $s$  comparisons  $\leq \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon \cdot n}{n}\right)^s$

# Checking Equality of Strings/Arrays

1. Pick  $s$  indices ( $I = \{i_1 \dots i_s\}$ ) uniformly at random
2. Select the corresponding elements  $a_{i_1}, b_{i_1} \dots a_{i_s}, b_{i_s}$
3. If  $a_i = b_i$  for all shared indices  $i \in I$ , return  $a = b$ , otherwise return  $a \neq b$

What should  $s$  be to obtain the desired property?

- If  $a = b$  the probability of returning the correct result in 1
- $\Pr[ T \text{ returns } a = b \mid \#(a_i \neq b_i) > \varepsilon n ]$  is more interesting (should be  $\leq \delta$ )
- $= \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon \cdot n}{n}\right)^s = \left(\left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon \cdot n}{n}\right)^n\right)^{s/n}$

# Checking Equality of Strings/Arrays

1. Pick  $s$  indices ( $I = \{i_1 \dots i_s\}$ ) uniformly at random
2. Select the corresponding elements  $a_{i_1}, b_{i_1} \dots a_{i_s}, b_{i_s}$
3. If  $a_i = b_i$  for all shared indices  $i \in I$ , return  $a = b$ , otherwise return  $a \neq b$

What should  $s$  be to obtain the desired property?

- If  $a = b$  the probability of returning the correct result in  $I$
- $\Pr[ T \text{ returns } a = b \mid \#(a_i \neq b_i) > \varepsilon n ]$  is more interesting (should be  $\leq \delta$ )

- $$= \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon \cdot n}{n}\right)^s = \left(\left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon \cdot n}{n}\right)^n\right)^{s/n} \leq (\exp(-\varepsilon n))^{s/n}$$

Uses  $\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n \leq \exp(x)$

E.g., derive from  $\log(1 + x) - x \leq 0$   
which is strictly decreasing and equal  
0 at  $x=0$

# Checking Equality of Strings/Arrays

1. Pick  $s$  indices ( $I = \{i_1 \dots i_s\}$ ) uniformly at random
2. Select the corresponding elements  $a_{i_1}, b_{i_1} \dots a_{i_s}, b_{i_s}$
3. If  $a_i = b_i$  for all shared indices  $i \in I$ , return  $a = b$ , otherwise return  $a \neq b$

What should  $s$  be to obtain the desired property?

- If  $a = b$  the probability of returning the correct result in 1
- $\Pr[ T \text{ returns } a = b \mid \#(a_i \neq b_i) > \varepsilon n ]$  is more interesting (should be  $\leq \delta$ )
- $(\exp(-\varepsilon n))^{s/n} \leq \delta \Rightarrow \log(\exp(-\varepsilon n))^{s/n} \leq \log \delta \Rightarrow \frac{s}{n}(-\varepsilon n) \leq \log \delta$

# Checking Equality of Strings/Arrays

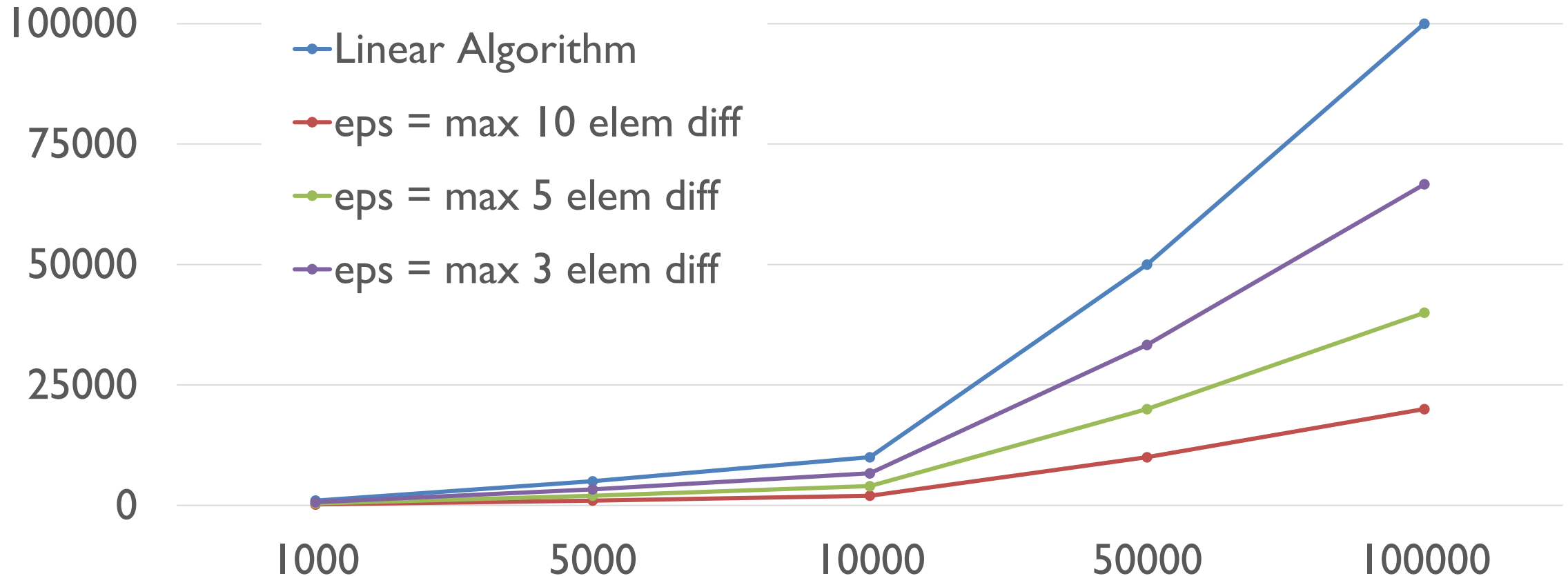
1. Pick  $s$  indices ( $I = \{i_1 \dots i_s\}$ ) uniformly at random
2. Select the corresponding elements  $a_{i_1}, b_{i_1} \dots a_{i_s}, b_{i_s}$
3. If  $a_i = b_i$  for all shared indices  $i \in I$ , return  $a = b$ , otherwise return  $a \neq b$

What should  $s$  be to obtain the desired property?

- If  $a = b$  the probability of returning the correct result in 1
- $\Pr[ T \text{ returns } a = b \mid \#(a_i \neq b_i) > \varepsilon n ]$  is more interesting (should be  $\leq \delta$ )
- $(\exp(-\varepsilon n))^{s/n} \leq \delta \Rightarrow \log(\exp(-\varepsilon n))^{s/n} \leq \log \delta \Rightarrow \frac{s}{n}(-\varepsilon n) \leq \log \delta$
- $s \geq \log(1/\delta)/\varepsilon$

# Checking Equality of Strings/Arrays

Execution time (X) for Different Sizes of Arrays (Y)  
(delta=0.01)





# Exercise: Checking Uniqueness

Input:  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

Determine between:

1. All  $x_i$  are unique, and
2. The number of unique elements is  $< (1-\epsilon)n$  (i.e. few are “eps-far”)

Algorithm:

1. Take  $s$  samples, where  $s \ll n$
2. If any duplicate in the sample, return FALSE  
else return TRUE

Question: what do we set  $s$  to?

# Checking Sortedness

**Input:**  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

**Bound:**  $\epsilon$

## Check Sortedness:

1. Select a random number  $i$ ,  $0 < i \leq n$
2. Do a binary search for the element  $x_i$
3. If problems during binary search (cannot find  $i$  or  $x_i$  not at position  $i$ )  
return FAIL
4. else return PASS
5. Repeat the steps 1-5 for  $\log(1/\delta) / \epsilon$  times

# Checking Sortedness

## Check Sortedness:

1. Select a random number  $i$ ,  $0 < i \leq n$
2. Do a binary search for the element  $x_i$
3. If problems during binary search (cannot find  $i$  or  $x_i$  not at position  $i$ )  
return FAIL
4. else return PASS
5. Repeat the steps 1-5 for  $\log(1/\delta) / \epsilon$  times

**Time:**  $O(\log(1/\delta) \log(n) / \epsilon)$  vs original  $O(n)$

**Accuracy:** if input passes the test, then at least  $(1-\epsilon)n$  elements are sorted  
with probability at least  $\delta$

# Getting more confidence than 2/3

**Input:** A function returns the correct true/false result with probability  $p$   
(Think of it as a biased coin-flip with probability  $p=2/3$ )

**Decision procedure (for a fixed bound  $\delta$ ):**

- Run test multiple times  $X_1, \dots, X_n$
- Majority voting: If the sum is greater than  $n/2$ , accept else reject
- Determine  $n$ : Use Chernoff bound to limit the tail of the distribution of the sum (bound the right-hand side by  $\delta$ ):

$$\Pr \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum X_i > p + x \right) \leq \exp \left( - \frac{x^2 n}{2p(1-p)} \right).$$

# Getting more confidence than 2/3

**Input:** A function returns the correct true/false result with probability  $p$   
(Think of it as a biased coin-flip with probability  $p=2/3$ )

**Decision procedure:** ([https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chernoff\\_bound](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chernoff_bound)):

A simple and common use of Chernoff bounds is for "boosting" of randomized algorithms. If one has an algorithm that outputs guess that is the desired answer with probability  $p > 1/2$ , then one can get a higher success rate by running the algorithm  $n = \log(1/\delta)2p/(p - 1/2)^2$  times and outputting a guess that is output by more than  $n/2$  runs of the algorithm. (There cannot be more than one such guess by the pigeonhole principle.) Assuming that these algorithm runs are independent, the probability that more than  $n/2$  of the guesses is correct is equal to the probability that the sum of independent Bernoulli random variables  $X_k$  that are 1 with probability  $p$  is more than  $n/2$ . This can be shown to be at least  $1 - \delta$  via the multiplicative Chernoff bound (Corollary 13.3 in Sinclair's class notes,  $\mu = np$ ).<sup>[12]</sup>:

$$\Pr \left[ X > \frac{n}{2} \right] \geq 1 - e^{-\frac{1}{2p}n\left(p - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2} \geq 1 - \delta$$

**Missing Link:**

**How Do We Get Randomness?**

# Linear Congruental Generator

```
int rseed = 0;  
  
inline void srand(int x) {  
    rseed = x;  
}
```



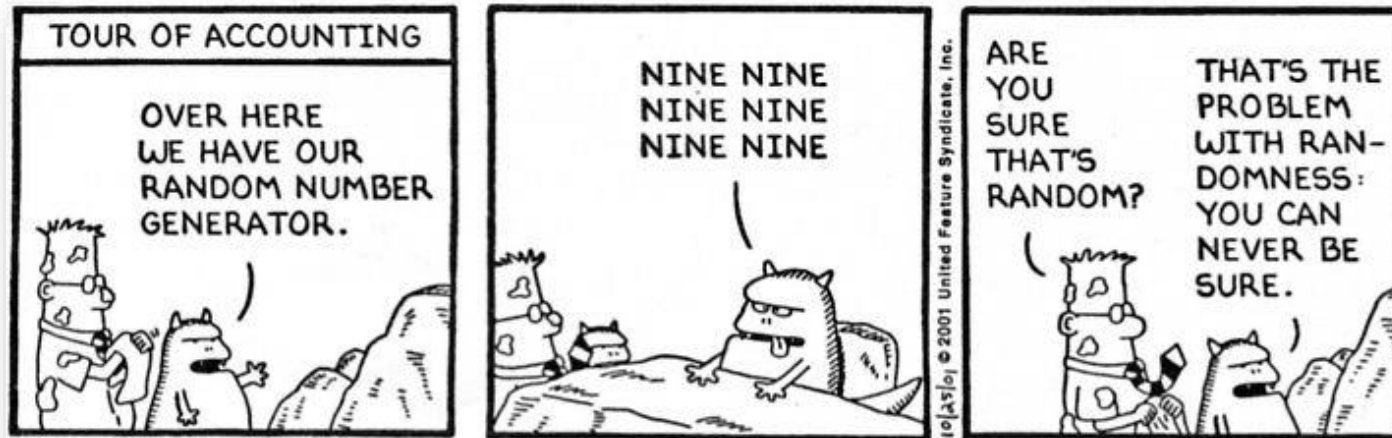
```
#define RAND_MAX ((1U << 31) - 1)  
  
inline int rand() {  
    return rseed =  
        (rseed * 1103515245 + 12345) & RAND_MAX;  
}
```

**DO NOT USE:** Short period (the number of numbers before it starts repeating); Also often slow implementations and questionable parallelization

# Still Better Than...

```
int getRandomNumber()  
{  
    return 4; // chosen by fair dice roll.  
             // guaranteed to be random.  
}
```

© xkcd





# Better Pseudorandom Generators

## **Mersenne Twister**

- Large cycle (up to  $2^{19937} - 1$ )
- Fast, but requires lots of (cache) memory
- Default choice for the languages from this century

## **Xorshift**

- Moderate cycle (from  $2^{64} - 1$  to  $2^{1024} - 1$ )
- Very fast, uses only bitshifts and xor operators
- May not pass all tests for uniformity, but good for simulation

**Simulation vs. cryptography** (e.g., Yarrow/Fortuna)

# Xorshift: Fast and Simple

```
struct xorshift32_state { uint32_t a; };  
/* The state word must be initialized to non-zero */  
uint32_t xorshift32(struct xorshift32_state *state)  
{ /* Algorithm "xor" from p. 4 of Marsaglia, "Xorshift RNGs" */  
  uint32_t x = state->a;  
  x ^= x << 13;  
  x ^= x >> 17;  
  x ^= x << 5;  
  return state->a = x;  
}
```

From <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Xorshift>

- Just basic operations on integers. State can be increased easily to larger numbers
- Easy to optimize implementation on various architectures and FPGA
- Possible to parallelize etc. see repositories: <https://github.com/topics/xorshift>

# True Randomness?

## Hardware generators

- Based on thermal noise (or other natural phenomena)
- Main use is cryptographic, speed is less of a concern
- E.g., Intel IvyBridge-EP microarchitecture uses hardware RNG (see RDRAND instruction)

## True random sequences from the Internet

- E.g., <https://www.random.org/> gets numbers from atmospheric noise

## Tests for pseudorandom number generators

- DieHard (Marsaglia)
- TestU01 (L'Ecuyer and Simard)
- For recent comparisons, see <https://prng.di.unimi.it/>