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A randomized sublinear time parallel GCD algorithm for the EREW PRAM

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Abstract

We present a randomized parallel algorithm that computes the greatest common divisor of two integers of n bits in length with probability 1 - o(1) that takes O(n log log n / log n) time using O(n^{6+\epsilon}) processors for any \epsilon > 0 on the EREW PRAM parallel model of computation. The algorithm either gives a correct answer or reports failure. We believe this to be the first randomized sublinear time algorithm on the EREW PRAM for this problem.

1. Introduction

The parallel complexity of computing integer greatest common divisors is an open problem (see [5]), and no new complexity results have been published since the early 1990s. This problem is not known to be either \text{P}-complete or in \text{NC} \cite{10,13,16}.

The first sublinear time parallel algorithm that uses a polynomial number of processors is due to Kannan, Miller, and Rudolph \cite{12}. Adleman and Kompella \cite{1} presented a randomized algorithm that runs in polylog time, but uses a superpolynomial, yet subexponential number of processors. The fastest currently known algorithm is due to Chor and Goldreich \cite{6} which takes \(O(n/\log n)\) time using \(O(n^{1+\epsilon})\) processors. See also \cite{22}, and Sedjelmaci \cite{19} who showed a clear way to do extended GCDs in the same complexity bounds. However, all of these algorithms use the concurrent-read concurrent-write (CRCW) parallel RAM (PRAM) model of computation.

The algorithms of Chor and Goldreich \cite{6} and the author \cite{22} can be readily modified for the weaker concurrent-exclusive-write (CREW) PRAM to obtain running times of \(O(n \log \log n / \log n)\) using a polynomial number of processors. And of course one can take a CRCW PRAM algorithm and emulate it on an exclusive-read exclusive-write (EREW) PRAM at a cost of a factor of \(O(\log n)\) in the running time, giving linear time algorithms for the EREW PRAM using a polynomial number of processors. For more information, see \cite{2,7,18,20,21}.

In this paper, we present what we believe is the first sublinear time, polynomial processor EREW PRAM algorithm for computing greatest common divisors. Note that the EREW PRAM is weaker than the CREW or CRCW PRAM models of parallel computation. We do make use of random numbers in a fundamental way.

Theorem 1.1. There exists a randomized algorithm to compute the greatest common divisor of two integers of total length \(n\) in binary with probability 1 - o(1) in \(O(n \log \log n / \log n)\) time using a polynomial number of processors on the EREW PRAM.

In the next section we describe our algorithm, and in Section 3 we prove correctness, give a complexity analysis, and flesh out the details of the algorithm. We conclude in Section 4 with a simple result on the relative density of smooth numbers.
integers with large polynomially smooth divisors, which is needed for the analysis of the algorithm.

2. Algorithm description

Define the inputs as \( u, v \) of total length \( n \) in binary. Let \( B \), our small prime bound, be defined as \( B = B(n) := n^2 \). A larger value for \( B \) can be chosen, so long as \( \log B = o(n) \), but correctness would be compromised if \( B \) were significantly smaller (see Section 3.1).

1. Find a list of primes up to \( B \). Also, for each prime \( p \leq B \), compute and save \( p^e \) for \( e = 1 \ldots \lfloor n / \log_2 B \rfloor \).

2. Remove and save common prime factors of \( u, v \) that are \( \leq B \), and let \( u_0, v_0 \) denote these modified inputs. WLOG we assume \( u_0 \geq v_0 \).

3. Main Loop. Repeat while \( u_i v_j \neq 0 \). Here \( i \) indicates the current loop iteration, starting at \( i = 0 \).

(a) For \( j := 1 \ldots 2B \log n \) in parallel do:
   i. Choose \( a_j u_i \) uniformly at random from \( 1 \ldots v_j - 1 \).
   ii. Compute \( r_j := a_j u_i \mod v_j \).
   iii. Compute \( s_j \) as \( r_j \) with all prime factors \( p \leq B \) removed.
      (We elaborate on how to do this below.)

(b) Find \( s_i := \min_j \{ s_{ij} \} \). Let \( i_{\text{min}} \) denote the value of \( j \) for which \( s_i = s_{ij} \), and for later reference, let \( a_i = a_{i_{\text{min}}} \).

(c) \( u_i v_j := r_j ; v_{i+1} := s_i \).

4. \( u_i + v_j \) is, with probability \( 1 - o(1) \), equal to \( \gcd(u_0, v_0) \) (as we show below). If we err, it is by including spurious factors that do not belong, so verify that \( u_i + v_j \) evenly divides both \( u_0 \) and \( v_0 \), and if not, report an error. Otherwise, include any saved common prime factors found in step 2 above, and the algorithm is complete.

3. Algorithm analysis

In this section we prove correctness, and compute the parallel complexity of our algorithm from the previous section.

3.1. Correctness

Note that in Steps 2 and 4 we handle any prime divisors \( \leq B \) of the \( \gcd(u, v) \), so WLOG we can assume either \( \gcd(u, v) = 1 \) or \( \gcd(u, v) > B \).

At iteration \( i \) of the main loop, we perform the transformation

\[
(u_i, v_j) \rightarrow (v_i, s_i).
\]

Since \( s_i \) is equal to \( a_i u_i \mod v_j \), ignoring factors below \( B \), this transformation will only fail to preserve the greatest common divisor if \( a_i \) and \( v_j \) share a common factor. Furthermore, this common factor must be composed only of primes exceeding \( B \). Since \( a_i \) is chosen uniformly at random, the probability \( a_i \) and \( v_j \) share a prime factor larger that \( B \) is at most

\[
\sum_{p | v_j, p > B} \frac{1}{B} \leq \sum_{p | v_j, p > B} \frac{1}{B^2} \leq \frac{\log_B v_j}{B} = O\left( \frac{1}{n \log n} \right).
\]

As we will see below, with high probability, the number of main loop iterations is \( o(n) \). Thus, the probability that any of the \( a_i \) values introduces a spurious factor is \( o(1) \).

Note that in [23], a similar, but not identical, transformation was analyzed. It was observed that in practice, with no removal of small prime divisors, the expected number of bits contributed by spurious factors was constant per main loop iteration.

3.2. Runtime analysis

First we calculate the number of main loop iterations, and then we describe how each iteration can be computed in \( O(\log n) \) time using a polynomial number of processors.

3.2.1. Main loop iterations

Let \( W := 0.5(\log B)^2 / \log \log B \). Then by Theorem 4.2, which we prove in the next section, the length of \( s_{ij} \) is smaller than \( r_j < v_j \) by at least \( \Theta(W) \) bits with probability at least \( 1/B \). (Note that we chose 0.5 to get a clean 1/B probability – other choices for the constant can be made to work with the right adjustments.)

So, the probability all \( 2B \log n \) choices for \( j \) fail to have \( \log s_{ij} \leq \log v_j - W \) is

\[
\left( 1 - \frac{1}{B} \right)^{2B \log n} = O\left( \frac{1}{n^c} \right).
\]

So, with probability \( 1 - O(1/n^2) \), \( \log s_j \leq \log v_j - W \).

We remove roughly \( (\log B)^2 / \log \log B \) bits each main loop iteration. Thus, the number of main loop iterations is \( O(n \log \log B / (\log B)^2) = o(n) \). The probability that any one loop iteration fails to remove the needed \( \Theta(W) \) bits is \( O(1/n) \), so the probability we exceed this number of main loop iterations and terminate without computing an answer is \( o(1) \).

3.2.2. Computation cost and algorithm details

Unless stated otherwise, cost is given for the EREW PRAM. For a brief overview of the cost of parallel arithmetic, see [22, Section 6.2].

Step 1. We can find the primes \( \leq B \) in \( O(\log B) \) time using \( O(B) \) processors (see [24]). For each prime \( p \leq B \) and \( e \leq n \), we can compute \( p^e \) in at most \( O(\log n) \) multiplications, each of which takes \( O(\log B) \) time using \( B^{1+\alpha(1)} \) processors [17]. See also [16, Theorem 12.2]. As there are \( O(B/\log B) \) primes, this is \( O(n \log n \log B) \) time using \( n B^{2+\alpha(1)} \) processors.

Step 2. For each prime \( p \) and exponent \( e \), we assign a group of processors to see if \( p^e \) divides \( u \) but \( p^{e+1} \) does not. Division takes \( O(\log n) \) time using \( n^{1+\epsilon} \) processors for any \( \epsilon > 0 \) using the algorithm of Beame, Cook, and Hoover [3], giving a total processor count of \( O(n^{2+\epsilon} B / \log B) \).

The result is a vector of the form \( [p_k^{e_k}] \) that lists the primes dividing \( u \) with maximal exponents. Since there are at most \( n/\log B \) integers in the vector \( > 1 \), and they total at most \( n \) bits (their product is \( \leq u \)), the iterated product algorithm of [3] can take their product in \( O(\log n) \) time using \( n^{1+\epsilon} \) processors. Dividing \( u \) by this product can be done at the same cost.
We repeat this for \(v\), and obtain a similar vector. We combine these two vectors using a minimum operation, and take the product of the entries, to obtain the shared prime power divisors of \(u, v\) which must be saved for Step 4.

The total cost of this step is \(O(\log n)\) time using \(O((n^{2+\epsilon}/\log B))\) processors.

See also [8] and references therein.

Step 3. Checking for zero takes \(O(\log n)\) time using \(O(n)\) processors.

Step 3(a).ii. For each \(j\), choosing an \(n\)-bit number at random takes constant time using \(O(n)\) processors. We reduce it modulo \(v_i\) in \(O(\log n)\) time using \(n^{1+\epsilon}\) processors [3].

Step 3(a).iii. This is simply a multiplication and a division, again taking \(O(\log n)\) time using \(n^{1+\epsilon}\) processors.

Step 3(a).ii. Here we use the same method as described in Step 2 above. This is \(O(\log n)\) time using \(O(n^{2+\epsilon}/\log B)\) processors for each \(j\).

Step 3(a). And so, the total cost of this parallel step is \(O(\log B)\) time using \(O(n^{2+\epsilon}(\log n)B^2/\log B)\) processors.

Step 3(b). This can be done in \(O(\log(B\log n)) = O(\log B)\) time using \(O(\log Bn)\) processors.

Step 3(c). This takes constant time using \(O(n)\) processors. We conclude that the cost of one main loop iteration is \(O(\log B)\) time using \(O(n^{2+\epsilon}(\log n)B^2/\log B)\) processors. Step 3(a).iii is the bottleneck.

Earlier we showed that the number of iterations is \(O(n \log \log B/(\log B)^2)\), for a total time of \(O(n \log \log B/\log B)\) for all iterations of the main loop.

Step 4. This is an addition, a division, and a multiplication using the results from Step 2; \(O(\log n)\) time using \(n^{1+\epsilon}\) processors.

Clearly, the bottleneck of the algorithm is Step 3(a). The overall complexity is

\[
O\left(\frac{n \log \log B}{\log B}\right) = O\left(\frac{n \log \log n}{\log n}\right) \text{ time, and}
\]

\[
O\left(n^{2+\epsilon}(\log n)B^2/\log B\right) = O\left(n^{\delta+\epsilon}\right) \text{ processors,}
\]

where \(\epsilon > 0\),

for the EREW PRAM. This completes our proof of Theorem 1.1.

One could take \(B\) to be superpolynomial in \(n\); for example, if \(B = \exp(\sqrt{n})\) we can obtain a running time of roughly \(\sqrt{n}\) using \(\exp(O(\sqrt{n}))\) processors. Similar results could be obtained from some of the CRCW PRAM algorithms mentioned in the introduction by porting them to the EREW PRAM and setting parameters appropriately.

We can also obtain an \(O(n/\log n)\) running time on the randomized CRCW PRAM; see [4] for how to perform the necessary main loop operations in \(O(n/\log n)\) time via the explicit Chinese remainder theorem. See also [8].

It would be interesting to see if this algorithm can be modified to compute Jacobi symbols quickly in parallel. See [9] and references therein.

4. Numbers with smooth divisors

Let \(P(n)\) denote the largest prime divisor of \(n\). If \(P(n) \leq y\) we say that \(n\) is \(y\)-smooth. Let

\[
\Psi(x, y) = \#\{n \leq x; P(n) \leq y\},
\]

the number of integers \(\leq x\) that are \(y\)-smooth. Let \(u = u(x, y) := \log x/\log y\). We will make use of the following lemma.

**Lemma 4.1.** (See [11, Corollary 1.3.1]) Let \(\epsilon > 0\) and assume \(u < y^{1-\epsilon}\). Then

\[
\Psi(x, y) = xu^{-u(1+o(1))} \text{ for } x > y \geq 2.
\]

Note that the \(o(1)\) here tends to zero for large \(u\), and the implied constant depends on \(\epsilon\). Better results are known, but this suffices for our purposes. For additional references see [11, 25], and for references on approximation algorithms for \(\Psi(x, y)\) see [14].

We recall the definition of \(H_k\), the \(k\)th harmonic number as

\[
H_k = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{1}{i}.
\]

It is well known that \(H_k = \log(k + \gamma + O(1/k))\), where \(\gamma = 0.57721\ldots\) is Euler’s constant (for example, see [15, 45.4.1]).

Fix a constant \(c > 0\). Define \(B(x)\) to be a strictly increasing function of \(x\), but with \(\log B(x) = o(\log x)\). (We are primarily interested in \(B(x)\) polynomial in \(\log x\).) Define

\[
W(x) := \frac{c \cdot (\log B(x))^2}{\log \log B(x)},
\]

\[
F(x) := \#\{n \leq x; n = my, \quad P(m) \leq B(x), \quad \log m \geq W(x)\}.
\]

In other words, \(F(x)\) counts integers \(n \leq x\) where \(n\) has a \(B(x)\)-smooth divisor that is \(\geq \exp W(x)\).

**Theorem 4.2.** Let \(\epsilon > 0\). For sufficiently large \(x\) we have

\[
F(x) \geq \frac{x}{B(x)^{(1+\epsilon)}}.
\]

**Proof.** Choose \(\delta > 0\) such that \((1 + \delta)^3 < 1 + \epsilon\). From the definition, we have

\[
F(x) = \sum_{y=1}^{\lfloor x/\exp(W(x)) \rfloor} \Psi\left(\frac{x}{y}, B(x)\right).
\]

First, we limit the range of summation to obtain the lower bound

\[
F(x) \geq \sum_{y=x/(\exp(1-\delta)W(x))}^{x/\exp(W(x))} \Psi\left(\frac{x}{y}, B(x)\right).
\]

Next, we apply Lemma 4.1. We also observe that \(u^{-u(1+o(1))} \geq u^{-2+\delta}u\) for large \(u\), and for a lower bound, we can fix \(u\) at its largest value on the interval of summation, namely \(u = u(x) = (1 + \delta)W(x/\log B(x))\). This gives us
F(x) ≥ \sum_{y=\exp(W(x))}^{x/\exp(W(x))} \frac{x}{y} \cdot u^{-(1+\delta)y}.

Using \sum_{a=1}^{b} 1/t = H_b - H_a \geq (1 - \delta) \log(b/a) for sufficiently large a, we obtain that

F(x) \geq x \cdot (1 - \delta) W(x) \cdot u^{-(1+\delta)u}
\geq x \cdot u^{-(1+\delta)u}

as W is a strictly increasing function of x for large x. Next we plug in for u as follows:

\log(u^{-(1+\delta)u})
= - (1 + \delta) u \log u
= - (1 + \delta) \log B(x) \log \left( \frac{1 + \delta \log B(x)}{\log B(x)} \right)
\geq - c (1 + \delta)^3 \log B(x)

for x sufficiently large. We now have

F(x) \geq x \cdot B(x)^{-(1+\delta)^3}

for sufficiently large x. \qed

Only a lower bound is needed for our purposes, but one can obtain an upper bound on F(x) of similar shape using the same general methods.

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