# Fast Equality Test for Straight-Line Compressed Strings 

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#### Abstract

The paper describes a simple and fast randomized test for equality of grammar-compressed strings. The thorough running time analysis is done by applying a logarithmic cost measure.


Keywords randomized algorithms, straight line programs, grammar-based compression

## 1 Introduction

Compression of data like strings and trees improves space usage, a well-known method is Lempel-Ziv encoding [JA84]. The standard way of applying algorithms to the data is a decompression prior to the application perhaps followed by a compression of the generated or modified data. Algorithms that can be translated such that they work efficiently on the compressed data are of interest, and complement the space efficiency by also improving running times.
To avoid the peculiarities of a specialized compression mechanism and to keep the generality of analyses, grammar based compression was proposed. The grammars are called straight line programs (SLP) which are used for string compression and algorithms on strings [Pla94,PR99,KRS95] as well as for compressions of trees and algorithms on them [BLM05,BLM08,GGSS08].

A central algorithmic problem used as a subalgorithm in several other algorithms on compressed data is the following: given two compressed representations $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$, say of strings $s_{1}$ and $s_{2}$, respectively, decide whether $s_{1}=s_{2}$. The first efficient algorithm that works without prior decompression is Plandowski's algorithm [Pla94,Pla95]. It uses grammars as compression device and shows that the equality test can be done in time polynomially in the size of the grammars. An improvement of this equality test is in [Lif07] where an algorithm is described that works in time $O\left(n^{3}\right)$, where $n$ is the size of the grammar.
Randomized algorithms for variants of this test are described in [GKPR96] using $2 \times 2$ matrices and in $\left[\mathrm{BKL}^{+} 02\right]$ for the generalisation to two-dimensional strings, where a polynomial interpretation is used.
In this paper we describe and analyze a randomized algorithm for Plandowski's equality problem that runs in quadratic time even using a logarithmic cost measure for arithmetic operations. It is correct if the answer is "no", and in case the answer is "yes", it is correct for identical strings and for nonidentical strings it does not detect inequality with a small probability $\delta$, and with $\delta^{n}$ after $n$ repetitions of the test. The algorithm requires modulo computation where the modulus is exponential in the size of $G$. It is open whether smaller numbers, for example numbers with a polynomial number of digits are sufficient. The randomized equality test is faster than the deterministic Lifshits-test [Lif07], which has a cubic running time, but presumably an $O\left(n^{4}\right)$ running time using the logarithmic cost measure. The equality test is also applicable to grammar-compressed ranked trees by applying it to the SLCF grammar representing the preorder traversals, which can be generated in linear time (see [BLM05,BLM08]).

## 2 Grammars and Equality

Definition 2.1. (a) A straight-line context-free grammar (SLCFG) (equivalent to $S L P$ ) $G$ is a quadruple $(\Sigma, \mathcal{N}, S, \mathcal{R})$ where
(1) $\Sigma$ is a finite alphabet, (we assume $|\Sigma|=O(1)$ )
(2) $\mathcal{N}=\left\{B_{1}, \ldots, B_{N}\right\}$ is a set of nonterminals,
(3) $S=B_{N}$ is the start symbol and
(4) $\mathcal{R}$ is a finite set of productions. A production has either the form $B_{i} \rightarrow B_{j} B_{k}$ for $i>j, k$ or $B_{i} \rightarrow a$ for $a \in \Sigma$. Moreover for each nonterminal $B_{i}$ there is exactly one production in $\mathcal{R}$.
(b) Every nonterminal $A \in \mathcal{N}$ generates exactly one string val $(A)$. The string generated by the start symbol $B_{N}$ is denoted by $\operatorname{val}(G)$.
(c) The size $|G|$ of $G$ is the number of productions of $\mathcal{R}$.

The length of $\operatorname{val}(G)$ may be as large as $2^{|G|}$. As an example, for every integer $n>1$ there is an SLCFG $G_{n}$ of size $\left\lceil\left(\log _{2}(n)\right)\right\rceil$ such that $\operatorname{val}\left(G_{n}\right)$ is a string of 0 's of length $n$.
The $E Q$ problem for SLCFGs is: given an SLCFG $G$ and two nonterminals $A_{1}, A_{2}$, determine whether $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right)=\operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)$.

Let $b \geq|\Sigma|+1$ be a number (the base) and let num be an injective function num : $\Sigma \rightarrow\{1, \ldots, b-1\}$. Observe that a string $d=d_{1} \cdots d_{m}$ over $\Sigma$ can be interpreted as the $b$-ary representation of the natural number num ${ }_{b}(d)=$ $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \operatorname{num}\left(d_{m-i}\right) \cdot b^{i}$. Hence $d=d^{\prime}$ iff $\operatorname{num}_{b}(d)=\operatorname{num}_{b}\left(d^{\prime}\right)$.
The EQ problem is non-trivial, since the strings $\operatorname{val}(A)$ may have length exponential in $|G|$, i.e as large as $2^{|G|}$. Thus the associated natural numbers num ${ }_{b}\left(A_{i}\right):=$ $\operatorname{num}_{b}\left(\operatorname{val}\left(A_{i}\right)\right)$ may have representational size (number of digits) exponential in $|G|$. Therefore we determine $\operatorname{num}_{b}(A)$ modulo a randomly selected integer $m$ smaller than some bound and check whether $\operatorname{num}_{b}\left(A_{1}\right) \equiv \operatorname{num}_{b}\left(A_{2}\right) \bmod m$ holds.
For computing running times we apply a logarithmic cost measure, i.e., $n_{1} \circ$ $n_{2}$ requires running time $O(\log n)$ for arithmetic operations including modulo computation where $n=\max \left(n_{1}, n_{2}\right)$. This is justified, since the representational size of numbers cannot be neglected in the analysis, even for the computation of $|\operatorname{val}(G)|$.

## 3 A Randomized Equality Test

We analyze the properties of a randomized equality test for natural numbers. Let $e=2.718 \ldots$ be the Euler-number.

Fact 3.1. Let $c \geq e$ be arbitrary and let $a$ be a positive integer. For any two natural numbers $x, y<a$, if $x \neq y$ then

$$
x \equiv y \bmod p
$$

holds with probability at most $\ln (e c) / c$, provided a prime $p \leq 2 c \cdot \ln a$ is selected uniformly at random.

Proof. First we show that asymptotically the number of prime divisors of an integer $a$ is less than $\pi(2 \ln a)$ where $\pi(z)$ is the number of primes less than $z$. First observe that $\sum_{p, p \leq N} \ln p \sim N$, where we sum over all primes at most $N$ (see [BS96]). As a consequence $\ln \left(\prod_{p, p \leq N} p\right) \geq N / 2$ and hence $\prod_{p, p \leq N} p \geq e^{N / 2}$. Let $0<x<a$ and $P_{x}$ be the set of all primes $p$ with $x \equiv 0 \bmod p$. Then $\prod_{p \in P_{x}} p$ is a divisor of $x$ and in particular $\prod_{p \in P_{x}} p<a$.
If $\left|P_{x}\right| \geq \pi(2 \ln a)$, then by our previous argument

$$
a \leq \prod_{p, p \leq 2 \ln a} p \leq \prod_{p \in P_{x}} p<a
$$

and hence $\left|P_{x}\right| \leq \pi(2 \ln a)$ follows.
We apply the prime number theorem and obtain $\pi(z) \sim z / \ln (z)$. As a consequence $\pi(c \cdot z) \sim c z / \ln (c z) \geq[c / \ln (e c)] \cdot[z / \ln (z)]$, provided $c, z \geq e$. Hence $\pi(c \cdot z) \geq[c / \ln (e c)] \cdot \pi(z)$. We set $z=\ln a$. If we choose a prime $p \leq c z$ at random, then we do not detect inequality of $x$ and $y$ with probability at most $\pi(z) / \pi(c z) \leq \ln (e c) / c$.

An alternative method is testing division modulo an arbitrary number $m$, which does not require to find prime numbers and saves a factor $|G|$ in the overall running time see Remark 4.5.
Fact 3.2. Let $a$ be a positive integer. For any two natural numbers $x, y<a$, if $x \neq y$ then

$$
x \equiv y \bmod m
$$

holds with probability at most 0.5 , provided a number $m \leq(2 \ln a)^{2}$ is selected uniformly at random, and $2 \ln a \geq 355991$.

Proof. The proof of Fact 3.1 shows that if $0<x<a$ and $P_{x}$ is the number of primes $p$ with $x \equiv 0 \bmod p$, then $\left|P_{x}\right| \leq \pi(2 \ln a)$.
In an interval $\left[k, k^{2}\right]$, the number of multiples $k^{\prime} p \in\left[k, k^{2}\right]$ of primes $p \in\left[k, k^{2}\right]$ has as lower bound $\int_{2 k}^{k^{2}} k^{2} /(x \ln (x)) d x=k^{2}\left(\ln \ln \left(k^{2}\right)-\ln \ln (2 k)\right)$ provided $k$ is sufficiently large ( $k \geq 355991$ ). (For a rigorous argument, taking into account that we use an approximation of the number of primes and their density see [SSS11]. Using the result that the probability that a number $m$ has a prime factor at least $\sqrt{m}$ approaches $\ln 2$, see e.g. [Dic30,D.E98], it is easy to derive that the estimation holds in the interval $\left[k, k^{4}\right]$ since the probability that numbers from $\left[k^{2}, k^{4}\right]$ have a prime factor at least $k$ approaches $\ln 2$.) Note that the multiples are unique in the interval. An easy computation shows that the ratio compared to all integers in the interval, which is $k^{2}-2 k+1$, is $>0.6$ for $k \geq 10^{6}$ and approaches $\ln 2=0.693$.. if $k \rightarrow \infty$.
Since some primes from $P_{x}$ may be in the interval, a lower bound for the number of integers in $\left[k, k^{2}\right]$ with a prime divisor not in $P_{x}$ is $0.6 k^{2}-|P| k$. For $k=(2 \ln a)$, we obtain a ratio $\left(0.6 k^{2}-\left|P_{x}\right| k\right) / k^{2}=0.6-1 /(2 \ln \ln a)>0.5$.
If we select $m \leq(2 \ln a)^{2}$ uniformly at random, then $x-y \equiv 0 \bmod m$ holds with probability at most 0.5 .

## 4 Equality-Test Algorithms

By utilizing a table with $B_{i} \mapsto\left|\operatorname{val}\left(B_{i}\right)\right|$ computed as $\left|\operatorname{val}\left(B_{i}\right)\right|:=1$ if $B_{i} \rightarrow a$ is the production, and $\left|\operatorname{val}\left(B_{i}\right)\right|:=\left|\operatorname{val}\left(B_{j}\right)\right|+\left|\operatorname{val}\left(B_{j^{\prime}}\right)\right|$ if $B_{i} \rightarrow B_{j} B_{j^{\prime}}$ is the production for $B_{i}$, and taking care of the logarithmic cost measure, we obtain:

Observation 4.1. For an SLCFG $G$ the length of $\operatorname{val}(A)$ can be determined simultaneously for all nonterminals $A$ in time $O(|G| \cdot \log |\operatorname{val}(G)|)$.
Given a positive integer $m$, we store the values $\left(b^{|\operatorname{val}(A)|} \bmod m\right)$ in a table $\tau$ computed as follows: $\tau\left(B_{i}\right):=(b \bmod m)$ for $B_{i} \rightarrow a$, and $\tau\left(B_{i}\right):=$ $\left(\tau\left(B_{j}\right) \cdot \tau\left(B_{j^{\prime}}\right) \bmod m\right)$ for $B_{i} \rightarrow B_{j} B_{j^{\prime}}$. We also determine $\left(\operatorname{num}_{b}(B) \bmod m\right)$ for all nonterminals $B$ using another table $\sigma$ computed as follows: $\sigma\left(B_{i}\right):=$ $(\operatorname{num}(a) \bmod m)$ if $B_{i} \rightarrow a$ and $\sigma\left(B_{i}\right):=\left(\left(\left(\sigma\left(B_{j}\right) \cdot \tau\left(B_{j^{\prime}}\right) \bmod m\right)+\right.\right.$ $\left.\left.\sigma\left(B_{j^{\prime}}\right)\right) \bmod m\right)$ if $B_{i} \rightarrow B_{j} B_{j^{\prime}}$. Since addition and multiplication are modulo $m$, the entries in $\sigma, \tau$ are smaller than $m$.

Observation 4.2. Assume that an SLCFG $G=(\Sigma, \mathcal{N}, S, \mathcal{R})$ and a positive integer $m \geq b$ is given. Then the numbers $\left(b^{|v a l(B)|} \bmod m\right)$ and $\left(\operatorname{num}_{b}(B) \bmod m\right)$ can be determined simultaneously for all $B \in \mathcal{N}$ in time $O(|G| \cdot \log m)$.

Algorithm 4.3 (Equality Test by Modulo). Checking whether $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right)=$ $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)$ holds requires first to determine the lengths $|\operatorname{val}(A)|$ for all nonterminals A with Observation 4.1. We then randomly select a number $m \leq$ $\left(2 \cdot \ln \left(b^{|\operatorname{val}(G)|}\right)\right)^{2}=(2 \cdot \ln b)^{2}|\operatorname{val}(G)|^{2}$ and determine $\left(\operatorname{num}_{b}\left(A_{1}\right) \bmod m\right)$ and $\left(\operatorname{num}_{b}\left(A_{2}\right) \bmod m\right)$ with Observation 4.2, and then compare the outcomes.

Theorem 4.4 (Modulo-test). Assume that an SLCFG $G$ and two nonterminals $A_{1}, A_{2}$ of $G$ are given. Using Algorithm 4.3: if the answer is "no", then $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right) \neq \operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)$. If the answer is "yes", then the answer is correct if $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right)=\operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)$; in case $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right) \neq \operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)$, then we do not detect inequality with probability at most 0.5 . The running time is bounded by $O(|G| \cdot \log |\operatorname{val}(G)|)$.

Since $|\operatorname{val}(G)| \leq 2^{|G|}$, the running time is at most quadratic.

Remark 4.5 (Equality Test by Modulo Primes). Using Fact 3.1 allows to modify Algorithm 4.3 using primes in the range up to $2 \cdot \ln \left(b^{|v a l(G)|}\right)$. However, randomly selecting primes requires first to select numbers, and check them for being prime, and iterating this until a prime is found. The density of primes in this range is $(\ln |\operatorname{val}(G)|)^{-1}$, hence in the worst case $O(|G|)$ numbers have to be tried. The computational cost (using the logarithmic cost measure) for primality testing of $m$ are for the known tests at least $O\left(\log ^{2} m\right)$, which sums up in the worst case to at least $O\left(|G|^{3}\right)$.

As a special case, let $\Sigma$ be a one-letter alphabet. If we have to check whether $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right)=\operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)$ holds it is sufficient to check whether $\left|\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right)\right|=\left|\operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)\right|$. Therefore, given a number $m \geq b$, we compute a table with $\operatorname{lmod}\left(B_{i}\right)=1$ for rules $B_{i} \rightarrow a$, and $\operatorname{lmod}\left(B_{i}\right)=\left(\left(\bmod \left(B_{j}\right)+\operatorname{lmod}\left(B_{j^{\prime}}\right)\right) \bmod m\right)$ for rules $B_{i} \rightarrow$ $B_{j} B_{j^{\prime}}$. In analogy to Observation 4.2, this can be done in time $O(|G| \log m)$. We use Fact 3.2 with $a=|\operatorname{val}(G)|$, and exploit $\ln a \leq|G|$.
We randomly select a number $m \leq(2 \cdot|G|)^{2}$. Finally, with Fact 3.2 , we do not detect inequality with probability at most 0.5 .

Theorem 4.6. For a one-letter alphabet $\Sigma$ Theorem 4.4 holds with a running time $O(|G| \cdot \log |G|)$.

Note that this is faster than the naive comparison $\left|\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right)\right|=\left|\operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)\right|$, which runs in time $O(|G| \cdot \log |\operatorname{val}(G)|)$, resp. quadratic in the worst-case.

Remark 4.7 (Some Practical Hints). The theoretical results may require large modulo-numbers, seen from a practical viewpoint, for a safe randomized test. However, since SLCFGs-generated numbers are rare, in practice smaller modulobases may be sufficient. However, it is not hard to see that the selection of prime numbers $\leq|G| \ln 2$ is unsafe (see [SSS11]).

Assuming ideal properties, the following computation is possible and gives a rough estimate for the practically necessary range of tiny numbers (or primes) (mathematically unsafe, but useful as a practical hint). Given $|G|$ and assuming $|G| \geq b$, there are at most $|G|^{|G|^{2}}$ different grammars of size $|G|$. Assuming that the generated numbers are all different and are exactly $1, \ldots,|G|^{|G|^{2}}$, then using Fact 3.1, we obtain that primes in the range up to $2 \log (|G|) \cdot|G|^{2}$ (resp. modulo numbers $m$ up to $\left.\left(2 \log (|G|) \cdot|G|^{2}\right)^{4}\right)$ have to be chosen for a useful modulo test with tiny primes.

Algorithm 4.8. Modulo-test with tiny numbers. Use the randomized algorithm 4.3, but use numbers in the range up to $\left(2 \log (|G|) \cdot|G|^{2}\right)^{2}$.

Conjecture 4.9. Algorithm 4.8 is correct in the sense of Theorem 4.4, perhaps with another polynomial upper bound for the range of $m$.

Remark 4.10. Our algorithm can also be applied to the EQPREF-problem. This problem was also considered in [GKPR96]. The EQPREF problem for SLCFGs is: given an SLCFG $G$ and two nonterminals $A_{1}, A_{2}$ determine whether $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right)=\operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)$ and if $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right) \neq \operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)$ then determine the length of the longest common prefix of $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right)$ and $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{2}\right)$.
We perform an interval bisection method. Given an SLCFG $G$, a single bisection step requires to compute the length, and two grammars $G_{1}, G_{2}$ according to the bisection, where $G_{1}, G_{2}$ are smaller than $G$. The number of bisection steps is $O(\log |\operatorname{val}(G)|)$. The construction can be done in running time $O(|G| \cdot \log |\operatorname{val}(G)|)$ and the test in time $O(|G| \cdot \log |\operatorname{val}(G)|)$. The test must be repeated several times in every step, where a fixed number like 20 or 50 may be used. This sums up to $O\left(|G| \cdot \log ^{2}|\operatorname{val}(G)|\right)$ using a logarithmic cost measure. Under a uniform cost measure we obtain $O(|G| \cdot \log |\operatorname{val}(G)|)$.

## 5 Summary

The following table summarizes the complexities of the different randomized or sample equality tests, where we use the logarithmic cost measure.

| Modulo-Test Algorithm | worst case | general case |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| modulo small $m$ (Alg. 4.3) | $O\left(\|G\|^{2}\right)$ | $O(\|G\| \log (\mid$ val $(G) \mid))$ |
| modulo tiny $m$ (Alg. 4.8) | $O(\|G\| \log (\|G\|))$ | $O(\|G\| \log \log m)$ |
| $\|\Sigma\|=1$ (Theorem 4.6) | $O(\|G\| \log \|G\|)$ | $O(\|G\| \log \|G\|)$ |

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## A An Estimation of the Number of Multiples of Primes

Let $\mathbb{P}$ be the set of primes and $\pi(x)$ be the number of primes smaller than $x$. An estimation for $\pi(x)$ is (see [BS96,Dus98]):

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\frac{x}{\ln x}\left(1+\frac{1}{\ln x}\right) & <\pi(x) & \text { for } x \leq 599 \\
\pi(x) & <\frac{x}{\ln x}\left(1+\frac{1}{\ln x}+\frac{2.51}{(\ln x)^{2}}\right) & \text { for } x \leq 355991
\end{array}
$$

The goal is to prove that asymptotically, the ratio of multiples of primes from [ $k, k^{2}$ ] that are also in the interval [ $k, k^{2}$ ] approaches $\ln 2 \approx 0.69$. This has similarity to the result that the probability that a number $m$ has a prime factor at least $\sqrt{m}$ approaches $\ln 2$ (see e.g. [Dic30,D.E98]). This result implies that our estimation holds in the interval $\left[k, k^{4}\right]$ since the probability that numbers from [ $k^{2}, k^{4}$ ] have a prime factor at least $k$ approaches $\ln 2$.
In the following paragraph, we make a rigorous, but elementary, estimation for the interval $\left.5 k, k^{2}\right]$.

## A. 1 An Estimation under Uncertainty

Let there be a real (positive) interval $[a, b]$, a monotone ascending function $f$ : $[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, such that $\pi(x) \geq f(x)>0$ for all $x \in[a, b]$, a positive, monotone descending function $g:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Note that $\pi(x)$ is also monotone ascending. Assume that the derivative $f^{\prime}$ exists, is continuous and monotone.
The goal is to determine a lower bound of

$$
S_{0}:=\sum_{x \in \mathbb{P} \cap[a, b]} g(x)
$$

We select a sequence $a=a_{0}<a_{1}<\ldots<a_{n}=b$. Let us assume that it is possible to select $a_{1}$ such that $\rho:=\pi\left(a_{1}\right)-\pi\left(a_{0}\right) \geq \pi\left(a_{1}\right)-f\left(a_{1}\right)$.
The idea is to omit the sum $\sum_{\left.x \in \mathbb{P} \cap] a_{0}, a_{1}\right]} g(x)$ from the sum $S_{0}$ above and use this to smooth the other sum contributions.
We use a step function w.r.t. the chosen sequence:

$$
\left(\sum_{i=1, \ldots, n}\left(\pi\left(a_{i}\right)-\pi\left(a_{i-1}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i}\right)\right) \leq \sum_{x \in \mathbb{P} \cap[a, b]} g(x)
$$

Let $R_{0}:=\sum_{x \in \mathbb{P} \cap\left[a_{0}, a_{1}\right]} g(x)$ and $S:=\left(\sum_{i=2, \ldots, n}\left(\pi\left(a_{i}\right)-\pi\left(a_{i-1}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i}\right)\right)$.
For $i=1, \ldots, n-1$ let:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R_{i}:=\left(\pi\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\pi\left(a_{i}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\left(f\left(a_{i+1}\right)-f\left(a_{i}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)+R_{i-1} \\
& R_{i}^{\prime}:=\left(\pi\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\pi\left(a_{1}\right)+\rho\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\left(f\left(a_{i+1}\right)-f\left(a_{1}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma A.1. The following estimations hold:
$-R_{0} \geq \rho g\left(a_{1}\right)$.
$-R_{i} \geq R_{i}^{\prime} \geq 0$ for all $i \geq 1$.
Proof. Since $\pi\left(a_{1}\right)-\pi\left(a_{0}\right)=\rho$ and $g$ is positive and monotone decreasing, we obtain $R_{0} \geq \rho g\left(a_{1}\right)$.
Since $\pi\left(a_{2}\right) \geq f\left(a_{2}\right), R_{0} \geq \rho g\left(a_{1}\right) \geq \rho g\left(a_{2}\right)$, and $\rho \geq \pi\left(a_{1}\right)-f\left(a_{1}\right)$, we obtain:

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{1} & =\quad\left(\left(\pi\left(a_{2}\right)-\pi\left(a_{1}\right)\right)-\left(f\left(a_{2}\right)-f\left(a_{1}\right)\right)\right) g\left(a_{2}\right)+R_{0} \\
& \geq R_{1}^{\prime}=\left(\left(\pi\left(a_{2}\right)-\pi\left(a_{1}\right)+\rho\right)-\left(f\left(a_{2}\right)-f\left(a_{1}\right)\right)\right) g\left(a_{2}\right) \\
& \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\pi\left(a_{i+1}\right) \geq f\left(a_{i+1}\right)$ and $\rho \geq \pi\left(a_{1}\right)-f\left(a_{1}\right)$, we see that for all $i \geq 1$, the inequation $R_{i}^{\prime}=\left(\pi\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\pi\left(a_{1}\right)+\rho\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\left(f\left(a_{i+1}\right)-f\left(a_{1}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right) \geq 0$ holds.
For $i=2, \ldots, n-1$ : we show the inequation $R_{i} \geq R_{i}^{\prime}$ by induction on $i$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{i}= & \left(\pi\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\pi\left(a_{i}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\left(f\left(a_{i+1}\right)-f\left(a_{i}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)+R_{i-1} \\
\geq & \left(\pi\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\pi\left(a_{i}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\left(f\left(a_{i+1}\right)-f\left(a_{i}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)+R_{i-1}^{\prime} \\
= & \left(\pi\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\pi\left(a_{i}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\left(f\left(a_{i+1}\right)-f\left(a_{i}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right) \\
& +\left(\pi\left(a_{i}\right)-\pi\left(a_{1}\right)+\rho\right) g\left(a_{i}\right)-\left(f\left(a_{i}\right)-f\left(a_{1}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $R_{i-1}^{\prime}$ is positive, we can replace $g\left(a_{i}\right)$ by $g\left(a_{i+1}\right)$ and obtain:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \geq \quad\left(\pi\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\pi\left(a_{i}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\left(f\left(a_{i+1}\right)-f\left(a_{i}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right) \\
& \quad+\left(\pi\left(a_{i}\right)-\pi\left(a_{1}\right)+\rho\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\left(f\left(a_{i}\right)-f\left(a_{1}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right) \\
& =\left(\pi\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\pi\left(a_{1}\right)+\rho\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right)-\left(f\left(a_{i+1}\right)-f\left(a_{1}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i+1}\right) \\
& =R_{i}^{\prime} \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

The previous lemma shows that

$$
\left(\sum_{i=1, \ldots, n}\left(\pi\left(a_{i}\right)-\pi\left(a_{i-1}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i}\right)\right) \geq\left(\sum_{i=2, \ldots, n}\left(f\left(a_{i}\right)-f\left(a_{i-1}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i}\right)\right)
$$

Using a sequence $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ with $a_{i}=a_{1}+i h$, we obtain using $h \rightarrow 0$ :

$$
\sum_{i=1, \ldots, n}\left(f\left(a_{i}\right)-f\left(a_{i-1}\right)\right) g\left(a_{i}\right) \geq \int_{a_{1}}^{b} f^{\prime}(x) g(x) d x
$$

Number of Multiples of Primes in an Interval Now we apply this to the following problem concerning prime numbers and their multiples. Let $k \geq$ 355991. A lower bound on the the following number is required:

$$
\mid\left\{x \mid x \in\left[k, k^{2}\right], x \text { has a prime-factor in }\left[k, k^{2}\right]\right\} \mid
$$

This is the same as the number of multiples of the primes $p \in\left[k, k^{2}\right]$ that are also in $\left[k, k^{2}\right]$. If $p \in\left[k, k^{2}\right]$ is any prime, then for a multiple $i p \in\left[k, k^{2}\right]$, we obtain $i<k$, hence the multiples are all distinct. We use $\frac{x}{\ln x}\left(1+\frac{1}{\ln x}\right)$ as the
function $f$, and $g=\frac{k^{2}}{x}$ for counting the number of multiples of $x$ in the interval. For the integral we use a further estimation: $\frac{x}{\ln x}\left(1+\frac{1}{\ln x}\right) \geq \frac{x}{\ln x}=: f_{1}$, and thus $\frac{1}{\ln x}$ as the density $f_{1}^{\prime}$.
For a safe estimation, we have to cut away a prefix of the interval $\left[k, k^{2}\right]$. For large numbers $k, \rho$ is roughly $\frac{2 k}{\ln (2 k)}-\frac{k}{\ln k}$ which for $k \geq 355991$ is larger than $\frac{3 k}{(\ln k)^{3}}$. Thus, using Dusart's formula, it is sufficient to cut away the interval [ $k, 2 k]$ and use [ $2 k, k^{2}$ ] for the integral.
According to the above estimation method, we obtain the following lower bound on the number of multiples:

$$
\int_{2 k}^{k^{2}} k^{2} /(x \ln (x)) d x=k^{2}\left(\ln \ln \left(k^{2}\right)-\ln \ln (2 k)\right)
$$

An easy computation shows the following: the ratio is $\approx \ln \ln \left(k^{2}\right)-\ln \ln (2 k)$ which is $>0.55$ and approaches $\ln 2=0.693 \ldots$ if $k \rightarrow \infty$.

## B On Minimal Number of Primes

Remark B. 1 (Lower Bound for Primes).
We show that prime factors greater than $(\ln 2) \cdot|G|$ are required for the equality test. More rigorously:
Let $\Sigma=\{0, \ldots, b-1\}, n$ be an integer and let $G$ be an SLCFG such that $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{0}\right)$ is a string of only 0 's of length $n$, and $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right)$ is a string of only 1 's of length $n$. $G$ can be chosen such that $|G| \leq 2\left\lceil\log _{2}(n)\right\rceil$. Let $b<p_{1}<p_{2}<\ldots p_{k} \leq N$ be the sequence of all primes greater than $b$ and bounded by $N$, and let $n=$ $\left(p_{1}-1\right) \cdot \ldots \cdot\left(p_{k}-1\right)$. For all $p \in\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}\right\}:\left(\sum_{i=0}^{p-2} b^{i}\right) \cdot(b-1)=b^{p-1}-1 \equiv 0$ $\bmod p$, since $p>b$. Hence $\left(\sum_{i=0}^{p-2} b^{i}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod p$, and $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{0}\right)$ and $\operatorname{val}\left(A_{1}\right)$ are indistinguishable by the modulo algorithm for all primes $p \in\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}\right\}$. Using the equations in the proof of Fact 3.1 we obtain $\ln n=\ln \prod_{p, b<p \leq N}(p-1) \leq$ $\ln \prod_{p, p<N} p \sim N$. Thus $\ln \prod_{p, p \leq N} p<1.1 N$, for $N$ not too small, and also $\ln n=(\ln 2) \cdot \log _{2}(n) \geq(\ln 2) \cdot(|G|-1)$. Thus $N>c \cdot|G|$ with $c \approx \ln 2 / 1.1 \approx 0.6$. Hence, it must be possible to select prime factors larger than $(\ln 2) \cdot|G|$.

