



Randomized Algorithms

CS-6th

Instructor: Dr. Ayesha Enayet

- These are algorithms that make use of randomness in their computation/logic.
- Random selection ensures that outcomes are not solely determined by the external inputs of the problem.
- By introducing randomness, we can avoid worst-case scenarios.
- Can give a better **expected time** complexity.

Quick Sort (Deterministic)

i=j-1	j				Pivot
index	1	2	3	4	5
Elements	2	8	3	5	7

1. Compare pivot with the element at j:
 - If $j > \text{pivot}$, increment j
 - If $j < \text{pivot}$, increment i swap the values of i and j<repeat till $j == \text{pivot}$ >
2. Increment i and swap i and pivot

Quick Sort (Deterministic)

$j < \text{pivot}$

$i=j-1=0$	j				Pivot
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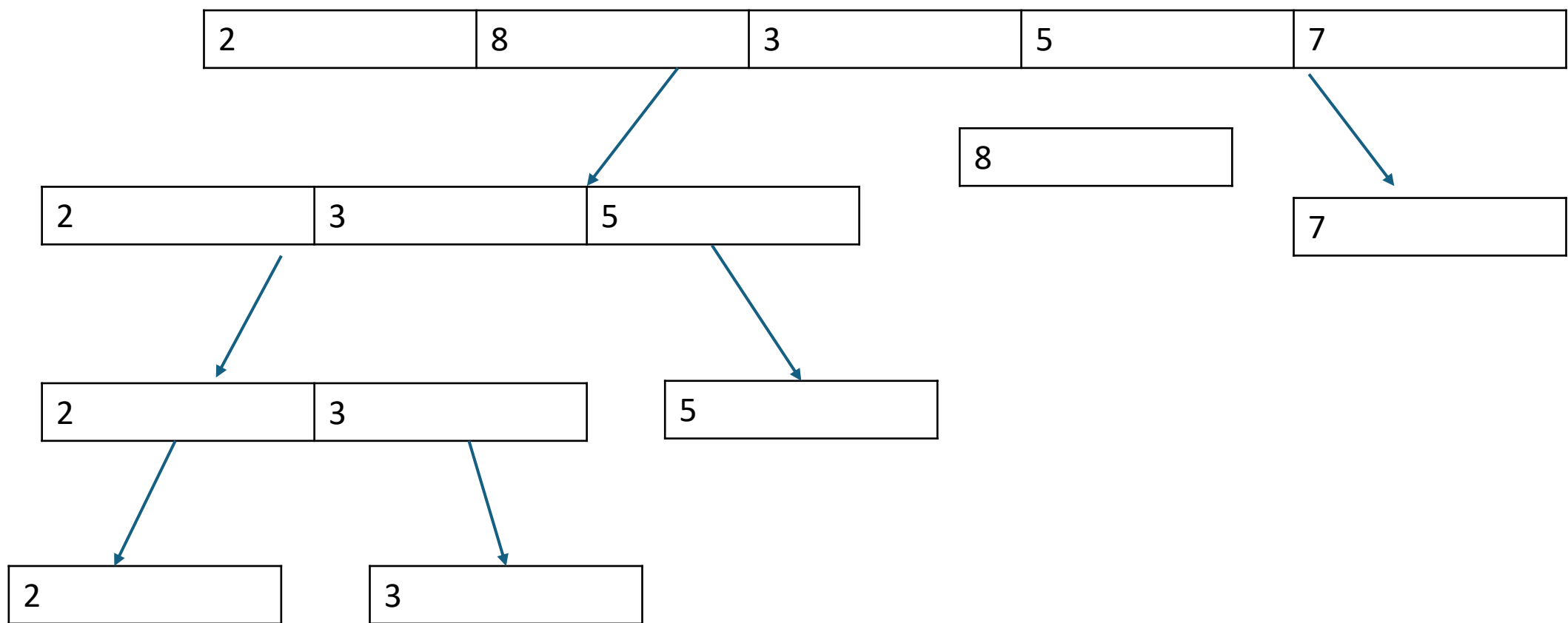
Recursive Divide-And-Conquer

				Pivot	
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Elements	2	3	5	7	8

j		Pivot
1	2	3
2	3	5

Pivot
4
7

j,pivot
5
8



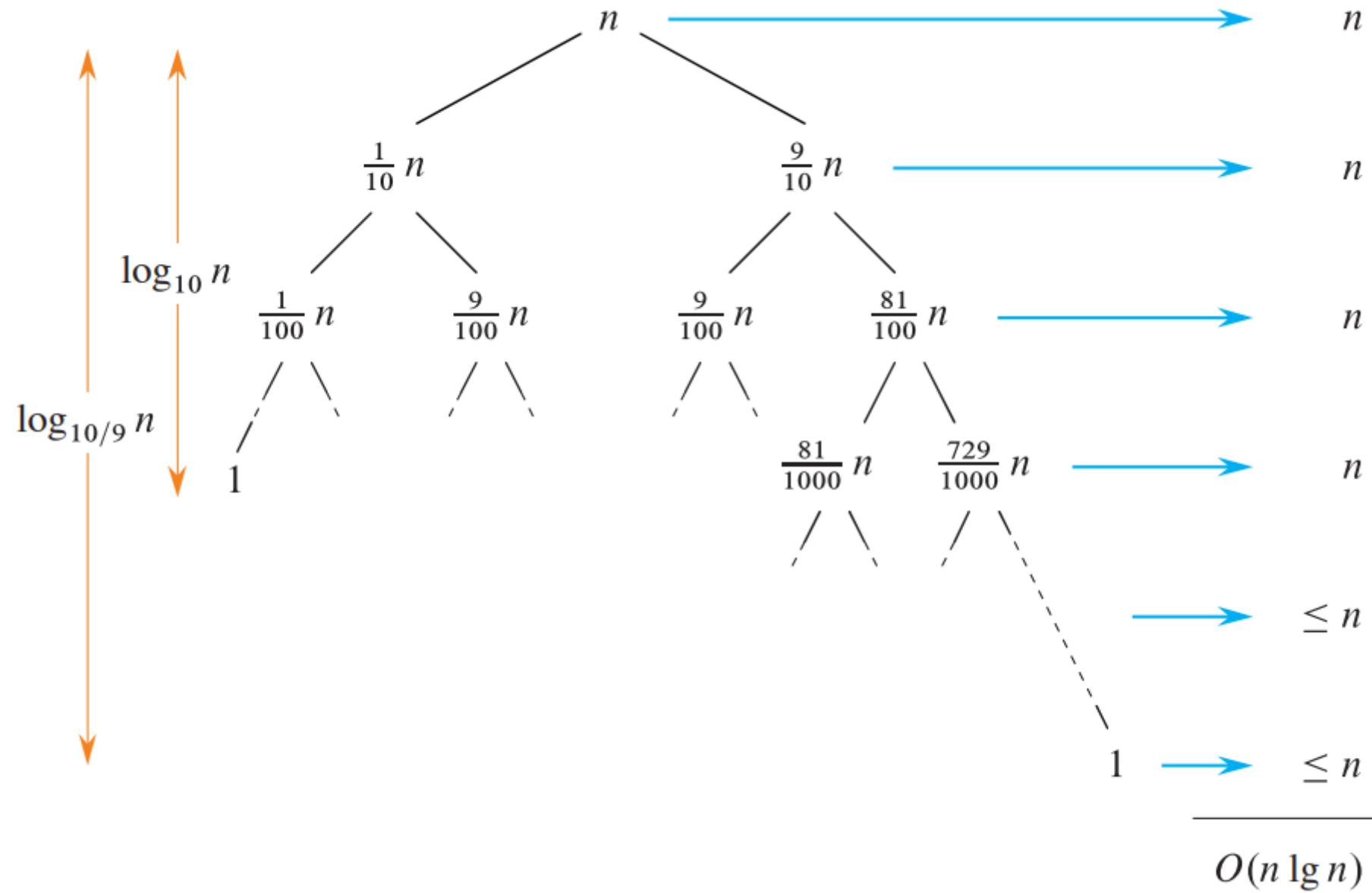
Worst case Time Complexity?

$$T(n)=T(n-1)+n=O(n^2)$$

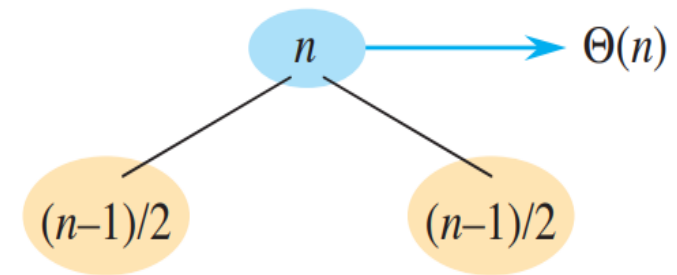
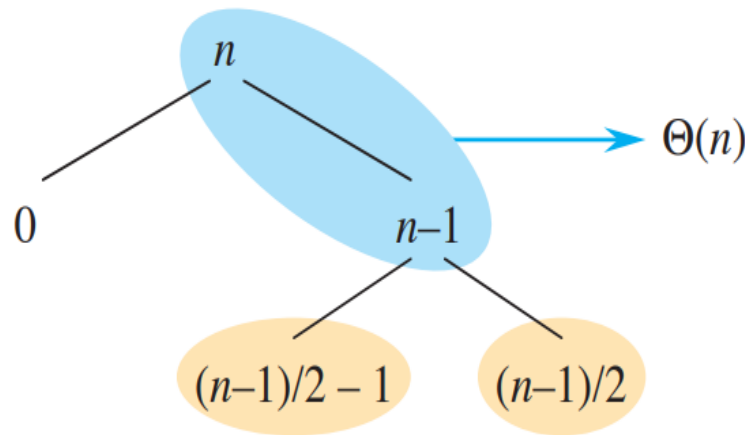
Best case Time Complexity?

Balanced Partitioning
 $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n) = O(n \lg n)$

Average case Time Complexity?



- In the average case, PARTITION produces a mix of “good” and “bad” splits.
- In a recursion tree for an average-case execution of PARTITION, the good and bad splits are distributed randomly throughout the tree.



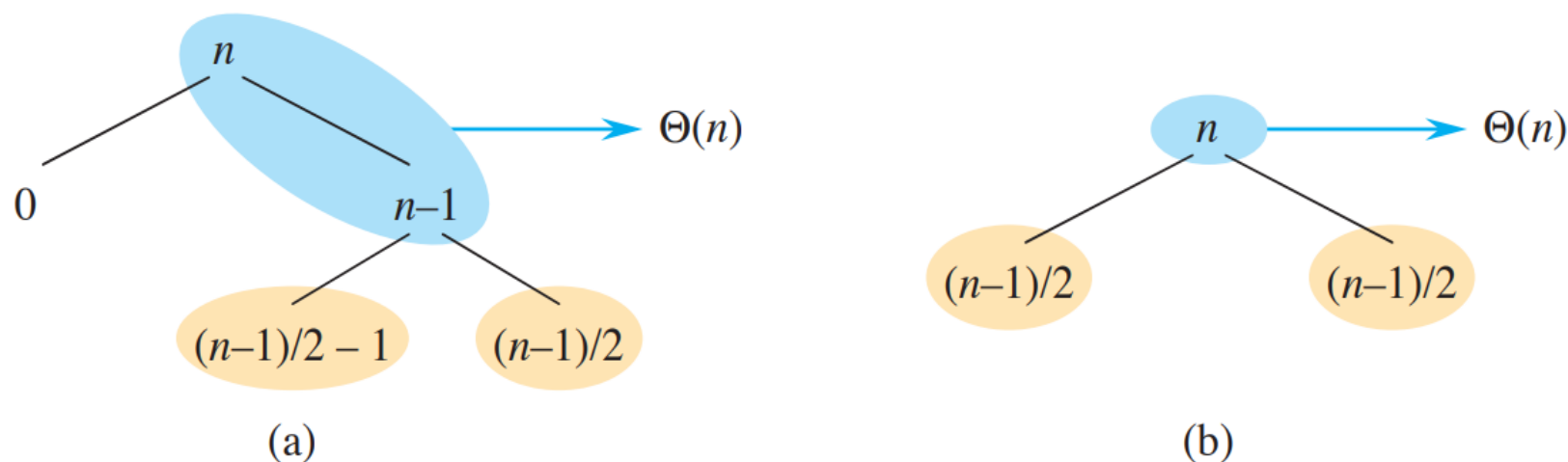


Figure 7.5 (a) Two levels of a recursion tree for quicksort. The partitioning at the root costs n and produces a “bad” split: two subarrays of sizes 0 and $n - 1$. The partitioning of the subarray of size $n - 1$ costs $n - 1$ and produces a “good” split: subarrays of size $(n - 1)/2 - 1$ and $(n - 1)/2$. (b) A single level of a recursion tree that is well balanced. In both parts, the partitioning cost for the subproblems shown with blue shading is $\Theta(n)$. Yet the subproblems remaining to be solved in (a), shown with tan shading, are no larger than the corresponding subproblems remaining to be solved in (b).

- We assume that all the permutations of the input are equally likely.
- Thus, the running time of quicksort, when levels alternate between good and bad splits, is like the running time for good splits alone: still $O(n \lg n)$, but with a slightly larger constant hidden by the O -notation.

QUICKSORT(A, p, r)

```
1  if  $p < r$   
2      // Partition the subarray around the pivot, which ends up in  $A[q]$ .  
3       $q = \text{PARTITION}(A, p, r)$   
4      QUICKSORT( $A, p, q - 1$ ) // recursively sort the low side  
5      QUICKSORT( $A, q + 1, r$ ) // recursively sort the high side
```

PARTITION(A, p, r)

```
1   $x = A[r]$  // the pivot
2   $i = p - 1$  // highest index into the low side
3  for  $j = p$  to  $r - 1$  // process each element other than the pivot
4      if  $A[j] \leq x$  // does this element belong on the low side?
5           $i = i + 1$  // index of a new slot in the low side
6          exchange  $A[i]$  with  $A[j]$  // put this element there
7  exchange  $A[i + 1]$  with  $A[r]$  // pivot goes just to the right of the low side
8  return  $i + 1$  // new index of the pivot
```

Randomized Quick Sort

RANDOMIZED-PARTITION(A, p, r)

- 1 $i = \text{RANDOM}(p, r)$
- 2 exchange $A[r]$ with $A[i]$
- 3 **return** PARTITION(A, p, r)

RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A, p, r)

- 1 **if** $p < r$
- 2 $q = \text{RANDOMIZED-PARTITION}(A, p, r)$
- 3 RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT($A, p, q - 1$)
- 4 RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT($A, q + 1, r$)

Randomized Quick Sort

- We want to reduce the probability of the occurrence of the worst case by introducing randomization.
- Judicious randomization can sometimes be added to an algorithm to obtain good expected performance over all inputs.
- The pivot is chosen randomly, we expect the split of the input array to be reasonably well balanced on average.
- For quicksort, randomization yields a fast and practical algorithm.

Expected running time

The expected running time of RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT on an input of n distinct elements is $O(n \lg n)$.

Proof

- Let the n distinct elements be $z_1 < z_2 < \dots < z_n$, and for $1 \leq i < j \leq n$, define the indicator random variable $X_{ij} = 1$ { iff z_i is compared to z_j }. Each pair is compared at most once, and so we can express X as follows:

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n X_{ij} .$$

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$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n X_{ij} \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_{ij}]$$

Taking the expectation on both sides.
Informally, the expected value is the arithmetic mean of the possible values a random variable can take, weighted by the probability of those outcomes (weighted average).

(by linearity of expectation)

the expected value of a sum of random variables is the sum of the expected values of the variables

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \Pr \{z_i \text{ is compared with } z_j\} \quad (\text{by Lemma 5.1})$$

Lemma 5.1

Given a sample space S and an event A in the sample space S , let $X_A = I\{A\}$. Then $E[X_A] = \Pr\{A\}$.

Proof By the definition of an indicator random variable from equation (5.1) and the definition of expected value, we have

$$\begin{aligned} E[X_A] &= E[I\{A\}] \\ &= 1 \cdot \Pr\{A\} + 0 \cdot \Pr\{\overline{A}\} \\ &= \Pr\{A\} , \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 7.3

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr\{z_i \text{ is compared with } z_j\} &= \Pr\{z_i \text{ or } z_j \text{ is the first pivot chosen from } Z_{ij}\} \\ &= \Pr\{z_i \text{ is the first pivot chosen from } Z_{ij}\} \\ &\quad + \Pr\{z_j \text{ is the first pivot chosen from } Z_{ij}\} \\ &= \frac{2}{j-i+1},\end{aligned}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \Pr \{z_i \text{ is compared with } z_j\} \quad (\text{by Lemma 5.1})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \frac{2}{j-i+1} \quad (\text{by Lemma 7.3}) .$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \frac{2}{j-i+1}$$

$$\mathbb{E} [X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \frac{2}{j-i+1}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n-i} \frac{2}{k+1}$$

$$< \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{2}{k}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&< \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{2}{k} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} O(\lg n) \quad \text{By Harmonic series} \\
&= O(n \lg n) .
\end{aligned}$$

Quick Select

- Input: A list of numbers S ; an integer k
- Output: The k th smallest element of S

- Here's a divide-and-conquer approach to selection. For any number v , imagine splitting list S into three categories: elements smaller than v , those equal to v (there might be duplicates), and those greater than v . Call these S_L , S_v , and S_R respectively. For instance, if the array

S :

2	36	5	21	8	13	11	20	5	4	1
---	----	---	----	---	----	----	----	---	---	---

is split on $v = 5$, the three subarrays generated are

S_L :

2	4	1
---	---	---

S_v :

5	5
---	---

S_R :

36	21	8	13	11	20
----	----	---	----	----	----

The three cases

$$\text{selection}(S, k) = \begin{cases} \text{selection}(S_L, k) & \text{if } k \leq |S_L| \\ v & \text{if } |S_L| < k \leq |S_L| + |S_v| \\ \text{selection}(S_R, k - |S_L| - |S_v|) & \text{if } k > |S_L| + |S_v|. \end{cases}$$

Time Complexity analysis

- Worst Case: $O(n^2)$
- Best Case: $T(n)=T(n/2)+ O(n)=O(n)$

Average Case

- To distinguish between lucky and unlucky choices of v , we will call v good if it lies within the **25th to 75th** percentile of the array that it is chosen from.



Average Case

- Given that a randomly chosen v has a 50% chance of being good, how many v 's do we need to pick on average before getting a good one?
- **Lemma** On average a fair coin needs to be tossed two times before a “heads” is seen.
- $E = 1 + \frac{1}{2}E = 2$

Average Case

- Therefore, after two split operations on average, the array will shrink to at most three fourths of its size. Letting $T(n)$ be the expected running time on an array of size n , we get:

$$T(n) \leq T(3n/4) + O(n).$$



- $T(n) = T(3n/4) + O(n)$
- $= O(n)$

Time taken on an array of size n

$$\leq (\text{time taken on an array of size } 3n/4) + (\text{time to reduce array size to } \leq 3n/4),$$