# Introduction to Randomized Algorithms: QuickSort

Lecture 2 January 17, 2019

## Outline

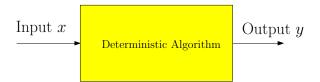
## Our goal

- Basics of randomization probability space, expectation, events, random variables, etc.
- Randomized Algorithms Two types
  - Las Vegas
  - Monte Carlo
- Randomized Quick Sort

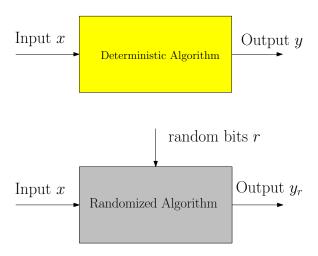
## Part I

# Introduction to Randomized Algorithms

# Randomized Algorithms



# Randomized Algorithms



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# Example: Randomized QuickSort

## QuickSort?

- Pick a pivot element from array
- Split array into 3 subarrays: those smaller than pivot, those larger than pivot, and the pivot itself.
- Recursively sort the subarrays, and concatenate them.

## Randomized QuickSort

- Pick a pivot element **uniformly at random** from the array
- Split array into 3 subarrays: those smaller than pivot, those larger than pivot, and the pivot itself.
- Recursively sort the subarrays, and concatenate them.

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# Example: Randomized Quicksort

Recall: QuickSort can take  $\Omega(n^2)$  time to sort array of size n.

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#### **Theorem**

Randomized QuickSort sorts a given array of length n in  $O(n \log n)$  expected time.

**Note:** On *every* input randomized **QuickSort** takes  $O(n \log n)$  time in expectation. On *every* input it may take  $\Omega(n^2)$  time with some small probability.

## **Problem**

Given three  $n \times n$  matrices A, B, C is AB = C?

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Deterministic algorithm:

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#### Deterministic algorithm:

- Multiply  $\boldsymbol{A}$  and  $\boldsymbol{B}$  and check if equal to  $\boldsymbol{C}$ .
- Running time?  $O(n^3)$  by straight forward approach.  $O(n^{2.37})$ with fast matrix multiplication (complicated and impractical).

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- Running time?

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#### Theorem

If AB = C then the algorithm will always say YES. If  $AB \neq C$  then the algorithm will say YES with probability at most 1/2. Can repeat the algorithm 100 times independently to reduce the probability of a false positive to  $1/2^{100}$ .

# Why randomized algorithms?

- Many many applications in algorithms, data structures and computer science!
- In some cases only known algorithms are randomized or randomness is provably necessary.
- Often randomized algorithms are (much) simpler and/or more efficient.
- Several deep connections to mathematics, physics etc.
- **5** ...
- Lots of fun!

# Average case analysis vs Randomized algorithms

#### Average case analysis:

- Fix a deterministic algorithm.
- Assume inputs comes from a probability distribution.
- Analyze the algorithm's average performance over the distribution over inputs.

#### Randomized algorithms:

- Algorithm uses random bits in addition to input.
- Analyze algorithms average performance over the given input where the average is over the random bits that the algorithm uses.
- On each input behaviour of algorithm is random. Analyze worst-case over all inputs of the (average) performance.

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## Part II

# Basics of Discrete Probability

# Discrete Probability

We restrict attention to finite probability spaces.

## **Definition**

A discrete probability space is a pair  $(\Omega, \Pr)$  consists of finite set  $\Omega$  of **elementary events** and function  $p:\Omega \to [0,1]$  which assigns a probability  $\Pr[\omega]$  for each  $\omega \in \Omega$  such that  $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \Pr[\omega] = 1$ .

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## Example

An unbiased coin.  $\Omega = \{H, T\}$  and Pr[H] = Pr[T] = 1/2.

## Example

A 6-sided unbiased die.  $\Omega=\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$  and  $\Pr[i]=1/6$  for  $1\leq i\leq 6$ .

## **Events**

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Given a probability space  $(\Omega, \Pr)$  an **event** is a subset of  $\Omega$ . In other words an event is a collection of elementary events. The probability of an event A, denoted by  $\Pr[A]$ , is  $\sum_{\omega \in A} \Pr[\omega]$ .

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## Example

A pair of independent dice.  $\Omega = \{(i,j) \mid 1 \le i \le 6, 1 \le j \le 6\}$ . Let A be the event that the sum of the two numbers on the dice is even.

Then 
$$A = \{(i,j) \in \Omega \mid (i+j) \text{ is even } \}$$
.  
 $Pr[A] = |A|/36 = 1/2$ .

#### **Definition**

Given a probability space  $(\Omega, Pr)$  and two events A, B are **independent** if and only if  $Pr[A \cap B] = Pr[A] Pr[B]$ . Otherwise they are *dependent*. In other words A, B independent implies one does not affect the other.

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Two coins. 
$$\Omega = \{HH, TT, HT, TH\}$$
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## Union bound

The probability of the union of two events, is no bigger than the probability of the sum of their probabilities.

#### Lemma

For any two events  $\mathcal{E}$  and  $\mathcal{F}$ , we have that

$$\Pr\!\left[\mathcal{E}\cup\mathcal{F}\right]\leq\Pr\!\left[\mathcal{E}\right]+\Pr\!\left[\mathcal{F}\right].$$

## Proof.

Consider  ${\mathcal E}$  and  ${\mathcal F}$  to be a collection of elmentery events (which they are). We have

$$\Pr[\mathcal{E} \cup \mathcal{F}] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{E} \cup \mathcal{F}} \Pr[x]$$

$$\leq \sum_{x \in \mathcal{E}} \Pr[x] + \sum_{x \in \mathcal{F}} \Pr[x] = \Pr[\mathcal{E}] + \Pr[\mathcal{F}].$$

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## Random Variables

## **Definition**

Given a probability space  $(\Omega, Pr)$  a (real-valued) random variable X over  $\Omega$  is a function that maps each elementary event to a real number. In other words  $X:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$ .

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#### **Definition**

Expectation For a random variable X over a probability space  $(\Omega, \Pr)$  the **expectation** of X is defined as  $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \Pr[\omega] X(\omega)$ . In other words, the expectation is the average value of X according to the probabilities given by  $\Pr[\cdot]$ .

# Expectation

## Example

A 6-sided unbiased die.  $\Omega=\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$  and  $\Pr[i]=1/6$  for  $1\leq i\leq 6$ .

**1**  $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  where  $X(i) = i \mod 2$ . Then  $\mathsf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^6 \mathsf{Pr}[i] \cdot X(i) = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{i=1}^6 X(i) = 1/2$ .

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- ②  $Y: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  where  $Y(i) = i^2$ . Then  $\mathsf{E}[Y] = \sum_{i=1}^6 \frac{1}{6} \cdot i^2 = 91/6$ .

# Expected number of vertices?

Let G = (V, E) be a graph with n vertices and m edges. Let H be the graph resulting from independently deleting every vertex of G with probability 1/2. Compute the expected number of vertices in H.

- (A) n/2.
- **(B)** n/4.
- (C) m/2.
- **(D)** m/4.
- (E) none of the above.

# Expected number of vertices is:

## Probability Space

- $\Omega = \{0,1\}^n$ . For  $\omega \in \{0,1\}^n$ ,  $\omega_{\nu} = 1$  if vertex  $\nu$  is present in H, else is zero.
- For each  $\omega \in \Omega$ ,  $\Pr[\omega] = \frac{1}{2^n}$ .

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$$E[X] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \Pr[\omega] X(\omega)$$

$$= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{1}{2^n} X(\omega)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{k=0}^n {n \choose k} k$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^n} (2^n \frac{n}{2})$$

$$= n/2$$

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How to compute  $\mathbf{E}[X]$ ?

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#### Definition

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Special type of random variables that are quite useful.

#### **Definition**

Given a probability space  $(\Omega, Pr)$  and an event  $A \subseteq \Omega$  the indicator random variable  $X_A$  is a binary random variable where  $X_A(\omega) = 1$  if  $\omega \in A$  and  $X_A(\omega) = 0$  if  $\omega \notin A$ .

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### Example

A 6-sided unbiased die.  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  and  $\Pr[i] = 1/6$  for  $1 \le i \le 6$ . Let A be the even that i is divisible by a. Then  $A_i(i) = 1$  if a = 1, a = 1,

## Expectation of indicator random variable

### Proposition

For an indicator variable  $X_A$ ,  $E[X_A] = Pr[A]$ .

#### Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{E}[X_A] &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} X_A(\omega) \, \mathsf{Pr}[\omega] \\ &= \sum_{\omega \in A} \mathbf{1} \cdot \mathsf{Pr}[\omega] + \sum_{\omega \in \Omega \setminus A} \mathbf{0} \cdot \mathsf{Pr}[\omega] \\ &= \sum_{\omega \in A} \mathsf{Pr}[\omega] \\ &= \mathsf{Pr}[A] \, . \end{aligned}$$

## Linearity of Expectation

#### Lemma

Let X, Y be two random variables (not necessarily independent) over a probability space  $(\Omega, Pr)$ . Then E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y].

#### Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{E}[X+Y] &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mathsf{Pr}[\omega] \left( X(\omega) + Y(\omega) \right) \\ &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mathsf{Pr}[\omega] \, X(\omega) + \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mathsf{Pr}[\omega] \, Y(\omega) = \mathsf{E}[X] + \mathsf{E}[Y] \, . \end{aligned}$$



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#### Proof.

$$E[X + Y] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \Pr[\omega] (X(\omega) + Y(\omega))$$

$$= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \Pr[\omega] X(\omega) + \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \Pr[\omega] Y(\omega) = E[X] + E[Y].$$

### Corollary

$$E[a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \ldots + a_nX_n] = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i E[X_i].$$

- Event  $A_e = \text{edge } e \in E$  is present in H.
- $\Pr[A_{e=(u,v)}] = \Pr[u \text{ and } v \text{ both are present}] = \Pr[u \text{ is present}] \cdot \Pr[v \text{ is present}] = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$ .

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$$\mathsf{E}[X] = \mathsf{E}\left[\sum_{e \in \mathsf{E}} X_{A_e}\right] = \sum_{e \in \mathsf{E}} \mathsf{E}[X_{A_e}] = \sum_{e \in \mathsf{E}} \mathsf{Pr}[A_e] = \frac{m}{4}$$

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It is important to setup random variables carefully.

## Expected number of triangles?

Let G = (V, E) be a graph with n vertices and m edges. Assume G has t triangles (i.e., a triangle is a simple cycle with three vertices). Let H be the graph resulting from deleting independently each vertex of G with probability 1/2. The expected number of triangles in H is

- (A) t/2.
- **(B)** t/4.
- (C) t/8.
- **(D)** t/16.
- (E) none of the above.

#### **Definition**

Random variables X, Y are said to be independent if

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, \ \Pr[X = x \land Y = y] = \Pr[X = x] \Pr[Y = y]$$

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#### Examples

Two independent un-biased coin flips:  $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$ .

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### Examples

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- X = 1 if first coin is H else 0. Y = 1 if second coin is H else
  0. Independent.
- X = #H, Y = #T. Dependent. Why?

#### Lemma

If X and Y are independent then  $E[XY] = E[X] \cdot E[Y]$ 

#### Proof.

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{E}[X \cdot Y] &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mathsf{Pr}[\omega] \left( X(\omega) \cdot Y(\omega) \right) \\ &= \sum_{x,y \in \mathbb{R}} \mathsf{Pr}[X = x \wedge Y = y] \left( x \cdot y \right) \\ &= \sum_{x,y \in \mathbb{R}} \mathsf{Pr}[X = x] \cdot \mathsf{Pr}[Y = y] \cdot x \cdot y \\ &= (\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \mathsf{Pr}[X = x] x) (\sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} \mathsf{Pr}[Y = y] y) = \mathsf{E}[X] \, \mathsf{E}[Y] \end{split}$$

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## Types of Randomized Algorithms

Typically one encounters the following types:

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Typically one encounters the following types:

- Las Vegas randomized algorithms: for a given input x output of algorithm is always correct but the running time is a random variable. In this case we are interested in analyzing the expected running time.
- Monte Carlo randomized algorithms: for a given input x the running time is deterministic but the output is random; correct with some probability. In this case we are interested in analyzing the probability of the correct output (and also the running time).
- Algorithms whose running time and output may both be random.

## Analyzing Las Vegas Algorithms

Deterministic algorithm Q for a problem  $\Pi$ :

- Let Q(x) be the time for Q to run on input x of length |x|.
- Worst-case analysis: run time on worst input for a given size n.

$$T_{wc}(n) = \max_{x:|x|=n} Q(x).$$

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Randomized algorithm R for a problem  $\Pi$ :

- Let R(x) be the time for Q to run on input x of length |x|.
- **3** E[R(x)] is the expected running time for R on x
- Worst-case analysis: expected time on worst input of size n

$$T_{rand-wc}(n) = \max_{x:|x|=n} \mathbf{E}[R(x)].$$

## Analyzing Monte Carlo Algorithms

#### Randomized algorithm M for a problem $\Pi$ :

- Let M(x) be the time for M to run on input x of length |x|. For Monte Carlo, assumption is that run time is deterministic.
- ② Let Pr[x] be the probability that M is correct on x.
- **Pr**[x] is a random variable: depends on random bits used by M.
- Worst-case analysis: success probability on worst input

$$P_{rand-wc}(n) = \min_{x:|x|=n} \Pr[x].$$

### Part III

# Randomized Quick Sort

### Randomized QuickSort

### Randomized QuickSort

- Pick a pivot element uniformly at random from the array.
- Split array into 3 subarrays: those smaller than pivot, those larger than pivot, and the pivot itself.
- Recursively sort the subarrays, and concatenate them.

What events to count?

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All the coin tosses at all levels and parts of recursion.

Too Big!!

What random variables to define? What are the events of the algorithm?

## Analysis via Recurrence

- Given array A of size n, let Q(A) be number of comparisons of randomized QuickSort on A.
- **2** Note that Q(A) is a random variable.
- **1** Let  $A_{\text{left}}^{i}$  and  $A_{\text{right}}^{i}$  be the left and right arrays obtained if:

Let  $X_i$  be indicator random variable, which is set to 1 if pivot is of rank i in A, else zero.

$$Q(A) = n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \cdot \left( Q(A_{\text{left}}^i) + Q(A_{\text{right}}^i) \right).$$

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$$Q(A) = n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \cdot \left( Q(A_{\text{left}}^i) + Q(A_{\text{right}}^i) \right).$$

Since each element of  $\boldsymbol{A}$  has probability exactly of 1/n of being chosen:

$$E[X_i] = Pr[pivot has rank i] = 1/n$$
.

### Independence of Random Variables

#### Lemma

Random variables  $X_i$  is independent of random variables  $Q(A_{left}^i)$  as well as  $Q(A_{right}^i)$ , i.e.

$$E[X_i \cdot Q(A_{left}^i)] = E[X_i] E[Q(A_{left}^i)]$$

$$E[X_i \cdot Q(A_{right}^i)] = E[X_i] E[Q(A_{right}^i)]$$

#### Proof.

This is because the algorithm, while recursing on  $Q(A_{left}^i)$  and  $Q(A_{right}^i)$  uses new random coin tosses that are independent of the coin tosses used to decide the first pivot. Only the latter decides value of  $X_i$ .

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Let  $T(n) = \max_{A:|A|=n} E[Q(A)]$  be the worst-case expected running time of randomized QuickSort on arrays of size n.

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By linearity of expectation, and independence random variables:

$$\mathsf{E}\big[Q(A)\big] = n + \sum_{i=1}^n \mathsf{E}[X_i] \Big(\mathsf{E}\big[Q(A_{\mathsf{left}}^i)\big] + \mathsf{E}\big[Q(A_{\mathsf{right}}^i)\big]\Big).$$

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$$\mathsf{E}\big[Q(A)\big] = n + \sum_{i=1}^n \mathsf{E}[X_i] \Big(\mathsf{E}\big[Q(A^i_{\mathsf{left}})\big] + \mathsf{E}\big[Q(A^i_{\mathsf{right}})\big]\Big).$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \mathsf{E}\!\left[Q(A)\right] \leq n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} \left(T(i-1) + T(n-i)\right).$$

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$$\mathsf{E}\!\left[Q(A)\right] \leq n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} \left(T(i-1) + T(n-i)\right).$$

Note that above holds for any A of size n. Therefore

$$\max_{A:|A|=n} \mathsf{E}[Q(A)] = T(n) \le n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} \left( T(i-1) + T(n-i) \right).$$

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### Solving the Recurrence

$$T(n) \le n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} (T(i-1) + T(n-i))$$

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#### Lemma

$$T(n) = O(n \log n).$$

### Proof.

(Guess and) Verify by induction.



### Part IV

# Slick analysis of QuickSort

Let Q(A) be number of comparisons done on input array A:

- For  $1 \le i < j < n$  let  $R_{ij}$  be the event that rank i element is compared with rank j element.
- ②  $X_{ij}$  is the indicator random variable for  $R_{ij}$ . That is,  $X_{ij} = 1$  if rank i is compared with rank j element, otherwise 0.

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$$Q(A) = \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} X_{ij}$$

and hence by linearity of expectation,

$$\mathbf{E}\Big[Q(A)\Big] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \mathbf{E}\Big[X_{ij}\Big] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \Pr\Big[R_{ij}\Big].$$

 $R_{ij} = \text{rank } i \text{ element is compared with rank } j \text{ element.}$ 

**Question:** What is  $Pr[R_{ij}]$ ?

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7 5 9 1 3 4 8 6

With ranks: 6 4 8 1 2 3 7 5

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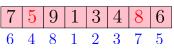
If pivot too small (say 3 [rank 2]). Partition and call recursively:

Decision if to compare **5** to **8** is moved to subproblem.

② If pivot too large (say 9 [rank 8]):

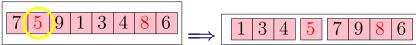
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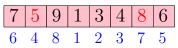


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1 If pivot is 5 (rank 4). Bingo!

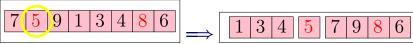


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If pivot is 8 (rank 7). Bingo!

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• If pivot is 5 (rank 4). Bingo!

If pivot is 8 (rank 7). Bingo!

If pivot in between the two numbers (say 6 [rank 5]):

5 and 8 will never be compared to each other.

**Question:** What is  $Pr[R_{i,j}]$ ?

### Conclusion:

 $R_{i,j}$  happens if and only if:

ith or jth ranked element is the first pivot out ofith to jth ranked elements.

### How to analyze this?

Thinking acrobatics!

- Assign every element in the array a random priority (say in [0, 1]).
- Choose pivot to be the element with lowest priority in subproblem.
- Equivalent to picking pivot uniformly at random (as QuickSort do).

**Question:** What is  $Pr[R_{i,j}]$ ?

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Thinking acrobatics!

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 $\implies$   $R_{i,j}$  happens if either i or j have lowest priority out of elements rank i to j,

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 $\implies$   $R_{i,j}$  happens if either i or j have lowest priority out of elements rank i to j,

There are k = j - i + 1 relevant elements.

$$\Pr\left[R_{i,j}\right] = \frac{2}{k} = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

**Question:** What is  $Pr[R_{ij}]$ ?

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#### Lemma

$$\Pr\left[R_{ij}\right] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

### Proof.

Let  $a_1, \ldots, a_i, \ldots, a_j, \ldots, a_n$  be elements of A in sorted order.

Let  $S = \{a_i, a_{i+1}, \ldots, a_j\}$ 

**Observation:** If pivot is chosen outside S then all of S either in left array or right array.

**Observation:**  $a_i$  and  $a_j$  separated when a pivot is chosen from S for the first time. Once separated no comparison.

**Observation:**  $a_i$  is compared with  $a_j$  if and only if either  $a_i$  or  $a_j$  is chosen as a pivot from S at separation...

Continued...

#### Lemma

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### Proof.

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$$a_1, \ldots, a_i, \ldots, a_j, \ldots, a_n$$
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**Observation:**  $a_i$  is compared with  $a_j$  if and only if either  $a_i$  or  $a_j$  is chosen as a pivot from S at separation.

**Observation:** Given that pivot is chosen from S the probability that it is  $a_i$  or  $a_j$  is exactly 2/|S| = 2/(j-i+1) since the pivot is chosen uniformly at random from the array.

### How much is this?

 $H_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}$  is the **n**'th harmonic number

- (A)  $H_n = \Theta(1)$ .
- (B)  $H_n = \Theta(\log \log n)$ .
- (C)  $H_n = \Theta(\sqrt{\log n})$ .
- (D)  $H_n = \Theta(\log n)$ .
- (E)  $H_n = \Theta(\log^2 n)$ .

### And how much is this?

$$T_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n-i} \frac{1}{j}$$

is equal to

(A) 
$$T_n = \Theta(n)$$
.

(B) 
$$T_n = \Theta(n \log n)$$
.

(C) 
$$T_n = \Theta(n \log^2 n)$$
.

(D) 
$$T_n = \Theta(n^2)$$
.

(E) 
$$T_n = \Theta(n^3)$$
.

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Continued...

$$\mathsf{E}\big[Q(A)\big] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \mathsf{E}[X_{ij}] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \mathsf{Pr}[R_{ij}].$$

$$\Pr[R_{ij}] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

Continued...

$$\Pr[R_{ij}] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

$$\mathsf{E}\Big[Q(A)\Big] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \mathsf{Pr}\Big[R_{ij}\Big] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \frac{2}{j - i + 1}$$

Continued...

$$\Pr[R_{ij}] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

$$\mathsf{E}\big[Q(A)\big] = \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} \frac{2}{j-i+1}$$

Continued...

$$\Pr[R_{ij}] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

$$E[Q(A)] = \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} \frac{2}{j - i + 1}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \frac{2}{j - i + 1}$$

Continued...

$$\Pr[R_{ij}] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

$$E[Q(A)] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{i=i+1}^{n} \frac{2}{j-i+1}$$

Continued...

$$\Pr[R_{ij}] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

$$E[Q(A)] = 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{i< j}^{n} \frac{1}{j-i+1}$$

Continued...

$$\Pr[R_{ij}] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

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Continued...

$$\Pr[R_{ij}] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

$$E[Q(A)] = 2\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{i< j}^{n} \frac{1}{j-i+1} \le 2\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{\Delta=2}^{n-i+1} \frac{1}{\Delta}$$

Continued...

$$\Pr[R_{ij}] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}.$$

$$E[Q(A)] = 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{i< j}^{n} \frac{1}{j-i+1} \le 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{\Delta=2}^{n-i+1} \frac{1}{\Delta}$$

$$\le 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (H_{n-i+1} - 1) \le 2 \sum_{1 \le i \le n} H_n$$

Continued...

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$$\le 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (H_{n-i+1} - 1) \le 2 \sum_{1 \le i < n} H_n$$

$$\le 2nH_n = O(n \log n)$$

### Where do I get random bits?

**Question:** Are true random bits available in practice?

- Buy them!
- OPUs use physical phenomena to generate random bits.
- Can use pseudo-random bits or semi-random bits from nature. Several fundamental unresolved questions in complexity theory on this topic. Beyond the scope of this course.
- In practice pseudo-random generators work quite well in many applications.
- The model is interesting to think in the abstract and is very useful even as a theoretical construct. One can derandomize randomized algorithms to obtain deterministic algorithms.