## ALGORITHMS AND DATA STRUCTURES II

Lecture 12
Randomized Algorithms,

1/25

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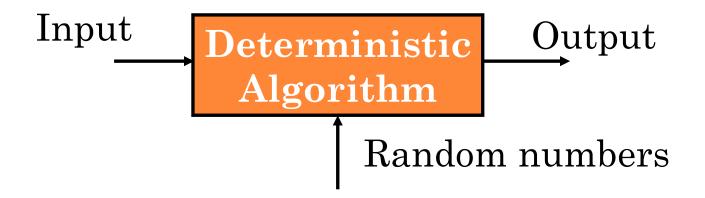
- An algorithm is called randomized if it uses:
  - a random number to make a decision at least once during the computation and

 its computation time is determined not only by the input data but also by the values of a random number generator.

#### **DETERMINISTIC ALGORITHMS**



- Deterministic algorithm always solves the problem correctly.
- Deterministic algorithm runs at least
   O(...) fast, i.e. for the worst case.



- Randomized algorithm takes a source of random numbers and makes random choices during execution.
- Behavior (running time) can vary even with a fixed input.

• Why use randomness?

 To avoid worst-case behavior: randomness can (probabilistically) guarantee average case behavior.

 To achieve efficient approximate solutions to intractable problems.

## • Two main types:

#### Monte Carlo

- Runs for a fixed number of steps.
- If there is no solution, returns "no".
- If there is a solution, finds it with some probability (i.e. > 0.5).

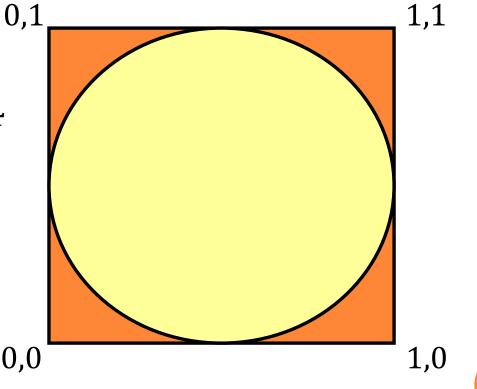
## Las Vegas

- Always produces the correct answer.
- Running time is random.

o Example: Find  $\pi$  using randomized algorithm.

Square area = 1 Circle area =  $\pi/4$ 

The probability a random point in square is in circle =  $\pi/4$ 



 $\pi = 4 \times \text{points in circle / points}$ 

o Example: Find  $\pi$  using randomized algorithm.

```
def PI (n):
   inCircle = 0
   for i = 1 to n:
      x = rand()
      y = rand()
      d = (x - 0.5)^2 + (y - 0.5)^2
      if d < 0.25:
          inCircle = inCircle + 1
   return 4 \times \text{inCircle} / n
```

# o Example: Find $\pi$ using randomized algorithm (result)

n: 1	4.0	4.0	0.0
n: 2	2.0	4.0	4.0
n: 4	3.0	4.0	3.0
n: 64	3.0625	3.125	3.0625
•••			
n: 1024	3.16796875	3.13671875	3.1640625
n: 16384	3.12622070	3.14038085	3.1279296
n: 131072	3.13494873	3.14785766	3.1376647 9/25
n: 1048576	3.14015579	3.14387893	3.1411247

 Example: Randomized quicksort algorithm.

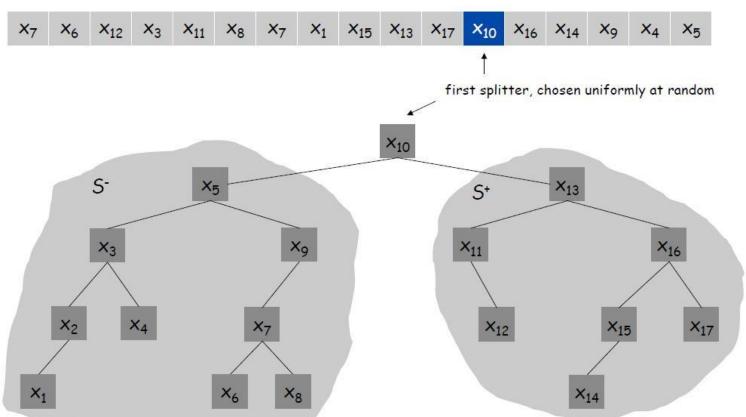
- It is a divide-and-conquer method of sorting.
- It works by partitioning the sequence S into two parts, then sorting the parts independently.

o Example: Randomized quicksort.

```
def quicksort (S):
   if |S| = 0: return
   choose a_i \in S randomly
   for each a \in S:
      if a < a_i: put a in S
      if a > a_i: put a in S^+
   quicksort (S )
   print a_i
   quicksort (S<sup>+</sup>)
```

• Example: Randomized quicksort.

Binary tree representation of splitters.



- Example: Randomized quicksort.
  - Running time for deterministic QS.
    - o[Best case.] Select the median element as the splitter: quicksort makes  $\Theta(n \log n)$  comparisons.
    - •[Worst case.] Select the smallest element as the splitter: quicksort makes  $\Theta(n^2)$  comparisons.
  - Randomized QS. Protect against worst case by choosing splitter at random.

- o Example: Primality test.
  - The primality test provides the probability of whether or not a large number is prime.
  - Several theorems including Fermat's theorem provide idea of primality test.
  - Cryptography schemes such as RSA algorithm are heavily based on primality test.

- o Example: Primality test.
  - A Naïve Algorithm (trial test):
    - $\circ$  Pick any integer P that is greater than 2.
    - Try to divide P by all odd integers starting from 3 to square root of P.
    - ullet If P is divisible by any one of these odd integers, we can conclude that P is not prime.
    - The worst case is that we have to go through all odd number testing cases up to square root of P.
    - Time complexity is  $O(\sqrt{n})$

- o Example: Primality test.
  - Is 100 prime?
    - All the integer divisors of 100 are:

$$100 = 2 \times 50 = 4 \times 25 = 5 \times 20 = 10 \times 10$$
  
=  $20 \times 5 = 25 \times 4 = 50 \times 2$ 

- Factors 20, 25, 50 are redundant
- Largest factor  $10 = \sqrt{100}$



- o Example: Primality test.
  - Is 17 prime?
    - All the integer divisors up to  $\sqrt{17} \approx 4.12$ :

2, 3, 4

- If 4 divides 17, then 2 can divide it as well.
  - All even dividers greater than 2 can be removed!
- o17/2 = 8.5, 17/3 = 5.66(6), therefore 17 is a prime number!

- o Example: Primality test.
  - Fermat's Theorem: If P is prime and 0 < A < P then  $A^{P-1} = 1 \pmod{P}$ .
  - Given a number P, we can choose a particular A (e.g., 2) with 0 < A < P and calculate  $A^{P-1}$  (mod P):
    - If  $A^{P-1} \neq 1 \pmod{P}$  then P is not prime.
    - If  $A^{P-1} = 1 \pmod{P}$  then P is probably prime.

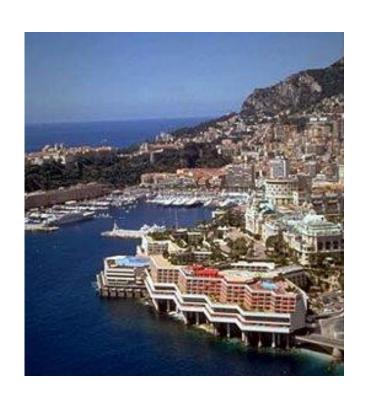


# o Example: Primality test.

- We can randomize the above algorithm by choosing 1 < A < P at random.
- For an A chosen at random if  $A^{P-1} \neq 1 \pmod{P}$  then we say P is not prime otherwise we accept P is prime.
  - $\circ$  If actually P is not a prime it is a mistake.
  - The probability of mistake is k in each computation. If for m independent computations the algorithm says that P is prime, the probability that P is a prime is at least  $1 k^m$ .

 Advantages of randomized algorithms:

- Simplicity.
- Performance.
- For many problems, a randomized algorithm is the simplest, the fastest, or both.





Monte Carlo or

Las Vegas?



# Applications and scope:

- Number-theoretic algorithms:
  - Primality testing (Monte Carlo).
- Data structures:
  - Sorting quicksort (Las Vegas)
  - Order statistics, searching, computational geometry.
- Algebraic identities:
  - Polynomial and matrix identity verification.
     Interactive proof systems.

# Applications and scope:

- Mathematical programming:
  - Faster algorithms for linear programming.
     Rounding linear program solutions to integer program solutions.
- Graph algorithms:
  - Minimum spanning trees, shortest paths, minimum cuts.
- Counting and enumeration:
  - Matrix permanent. Counting combinatorial structures.



- Applications and scope:
  - Parallel and distributed computing:
    - Deadlock avoidance, distributed consensus.

- Probabilistic existence proofs:
  - Show that a combinatorial object arises with non-zero probability among objects drawn from a suitable probability space.



## THAT'S ALL FOR TODAY!

