

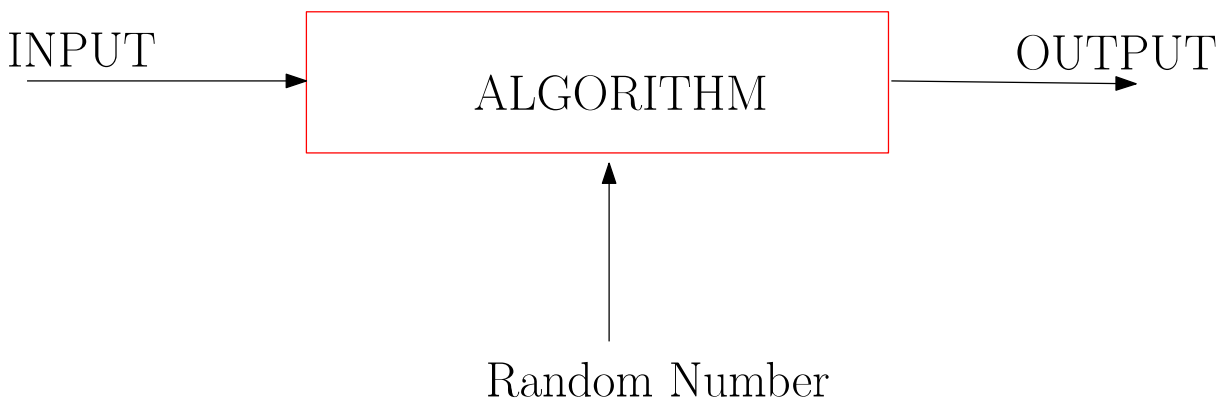
Introduction



Goal of a Deterministic Algorithm

- The solution produced by the algorithm is correct, and
- the number of computational steps is same for different runs of the algorithm with the same input.

Randomized Algorithm



Randomized Algorithm

- In addition to the input, the algorithm uses a source of pseudo random numbers. During execution, it takes random choices depending on those random numbers.
- The behavior (output) can vary if the algorithm is run multiple times on the same input.

Advantage of Randomized Algorithm

The Paradigm

Instead of making a **guaranteed good choice**, make a **random choice** and hope that it is good. This helps because guaranteeing a good choice becomes difficult sometimes.

Advantage of Randomized Algorithm

The Paradigm

Instead of making a **guaranteed good choice**, make a **random choice** and hope that it is good. This helps because guaranteeing a good choice becomes difficult sometimes.

Randomized Algorithms

make random choices. The expected running time depends on the random choices, not on any input distribution.

Advantage of Randomized Algorithm

The Paradigm

Instead of making a **guaranteed good choice**, make a **random choice** and hope that it is good. This helps because guaranteeing a good choice becomes difficult sometimes.

Randomized Algorithms

make random choices. The expected running time depends on the random choices, not on any input distribution.

Average Case Analysis

analyzes the expected running time of deterministic algorithms assuming a suitable random distribution on the input.

Pros and Cons of Randomized Algorithms

Pros

Pros and Cons of Randomized Algorithms

Pros

- Making a random choice is fast.

Pros and Cons of Randomized Algorithms

Pros

- Making a random choice is fast.
- An adversary is powerless; randomized algorithms have no worst case inputs.

Pros and Cons of Randomized Algorithms

Pros

- Making a random choice is fast.
- An adversary is powerless; randomized algorithms have no worst case inputs.
- Randomized algorithms are often simpler and faster than their deterministic counterparts.

Pros and Cons of Randomized Algorithms

Pros

- Making a random choice is fast.
- An adversary is powerless; randomized algorithms have no worst case inputs.
- Randomized algorithms are often simpler and faster than their deterministic counterparts.

Cons

Pros and Cons of Randomized Algorithms

Pros

- Making a random choice is fast.
- An adversary is powerless; randomized algorithms have no worst case inputs.
- Randomized algorithms are often simpler and faster than their deterministic counterparts.

Cons

- In the worst case, a randomized algorithm may be very slow.

Pros and Cons of Randomized Algorithms

Pros

- Making a random choice is fast.
- An adversary is powerless; randomized algorithms have no worst case inputs.
- Randomized algorithms are often simpler and faster than their deterministic counterparts.

Cons

- In the worst case, a randomized algorithm may be very slow.
- There is a finite probability of getting incorrect answer. However, the probability of getting a wrong answer can be made arbitrarily small by the repeated employment of randomness.

Pros and Cons of Randomized Algorithms

Pros

- Making a random choice is fast.
- An adversary is powerless; randomized algorithms have no worst case inputs.
- Randomized algorithms are often simpler and faster than their deterministic counterparts.

Cons

- In the worst case, a randomized algorithm may be very slow.
- There is a finite probability of getting incorrect answer. However, the probability of getting a wrong answer can be made arbitrarily small by the repeated employment of randomness.
- Getting true random numbers is almost impossible.

Types of Randomized Algorithms

Definition

Las Vegas: a randomized algorithm that always returns a correct result. But the running time may vary between executions.

Example: Randomized QUICKSORT Algorithm

Definition

Monte Carlo: a randomized algorithm that terminates in polynomial time, but might produce erroneous result.

Example: Randomized MINCUT Algorithm

Some basic ideas from Probability

Expectation

Random variable

A function defined on a sample space is called a random variable. Given a random variable X , $Pr[X = j]$ means X 's probability of taking the value j .

Expectation – “the average value”

The expectation of a random variable X is defined as:

$$E[X] = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} j \cdot Pr[X = j]$$

Waiting for the first success

- Let p be the probability of success and $1 - p$ be the probability of failure of a random experiment.

Waiting for the first success

- Let p be the probability of success and $1 - p$ be the probability of failure of a random experiment.
- If we continue the random experiment till we get success, what is the expected number of experiments we need to perform?

Waiting for the first success

- Let p be the probability of success and $1 - p$ be the probability of failure of a random experiment.
- If we continue the random experiment till we get success, what is the expected number of experiments we need to perform?
- Let X : random variable that equals the number of experiments performed.

Waiting for the first success

- Let p be the probability of success and $1 - p$ be the probability of failure of a random experiment.
- If we continue the random experiment till we get success, what is the expected number of experiments we need to perform?
- Let X : random variable that equals the number of experiments performed.
- For the process to perform exactly j experiments, the first $j - 1$ experiments should be failures and the j -th one should be a success. So, we have $Pr[X = j] = (1 - p)^{j-1} \cdot p$.

Waiting for the first success

- Let p be the probability of success and $1 - p$ be the probability of failure of a random experiment.
- If we continue the random experiment till we get success, what is the expected number of experiments we need to perform?
- Let X : random variable that equals the number of experiments performed.
- For the process to perform exactly j experiments, the first $j - 1$ experiments should be failures and the j -th one should be a success. So, we have $Pr[X = j] = (1 - p)^{j-1} \cdot p$.
- So, the expectation of X , $E[X] = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} j \cdot Pr[X = j] = \frac{1}{p}$.

Conditional Probability and Independent Event

Conditional Probability

The conditional probability of X given Y is

$$Pr[X = x \mid Y = y] = \frac{Pr[(X = x) \cap (Y = y)]}{Pr[Y = y]}$$

Conditional Probability and Independent Event

Conditional Probability

The conditional probability of X given Y is

$$Pr[X = x \mid Y = y] = \frac{Pr[(X = x) \cap (Y = y)]}{Pr[Y = y]}$$

An Equivalent Statement

$$Pr[(X = x) \cap (Y = y)] = Pr[X = x \mid Y = y] \cdot Pr[Y = y]$$

Conditional Probability and Independent Event

Conditional Probability

The conditional probability of X given Y is

$$Pr[X = x \mid Y = y] = \frac{Pr[(X = x) \cap (Y = y)]}{Pr[Y = y]}$$

An Equivalent Statement

$$Pr[(X = x) \cap (Y = y)] = Pr[X = x \mid Y = y] \cdot Pr[Y = y]$$

Independent Events

Two events X and Y are **independent**, if

$Pr[(X = x) \cap (Y = y)] = Pr[X = x] \cdot Pr[Y = y]$. In particular, if X and Y are **independent**, then

$$Pr[X = x \mid Y = y] = Pr[X = x]$$

A Result on Intersection of events

Let $\eta_1, \eta_2, \dots, \eta_n$ be n events not necessarily independent. Then,

$$Pr[\cap_{i=1}^n \eta_i] = Pr[\eta_1] \cdot Pr[\eta_2 \mid \eta_1] \cdot Pr[\eta_3 \mid \eta_1 \cap \eta_2] \cdots Pr[\eta_n \mid \eta_1 \cap \dots \cap \eta_{n-1}].$$

The proof is by induction on n .

Coupon Collection

Coupon Collection

The Problem

A company selling jeans gives a coupon with each jeans. There are n different coupons. Collecting n different coupons would give you a free jeans. How many jeans do you expect to buy before you get a free jeans?

Coupon Collection

The Problem

A company selling jeans gives a coupon with each jeans. There are n different coupons. Collecting n different coupons would give you a free jeans. How many jeans do you expect to buy before you get a free jeans?

- The coupon collection process in phase j when you have already collected j different coupons and are buying to get a new type.

Coupon Collection

The Problem

A company selling jeans gives a coupon with each jeans. There are n different coupons. Collecting n different coupons would give you a free jeans. How many jeans do you expect to buy before you get a free jeans?

- The coupon collection process in phase j when you have already collected j different coupons and are buying to get a new type.
- A new type of coupon ends phase j and you enter phase $j + 1$.

Coupon Collection

- Let X_j be the random variable equal to the number of jeans you buy in phase j .

Coupon Collection

- Let X_j be the random variable equal to the number of jeans you buy in phase j .
- Then, $X = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} X_j$ is the number of jeans bought to have n different coupons.

Coupon Collection

- Let X_j be the random variable equal to the number of jeans you buy in phase j .
- Then, $X = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} X_j$ is the number of jeans bought to have n different coupons.

Lemma

The expected number of jeans bought in phase j , $E[X_j] = \frac{n}{n-j}$.

Coupon Collection

- Let X_j be the random variable equal to the number of jeans you buy in phase j .
- Then, $X = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} X_j$ is the number of jeans bought to have n different coupons.

Lemma

The expected number of jeans bought in phase j , $E[X_j] = \frac{n}{n-j}$.

- The success probability, p in the j -th phase is $\frac{n-j}{n}$.

Coupon Collection

- Let X_j be the random variable equal to the number of jeans you buy in phase j .
- Then, $X = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} X_j$ is the number of jeans bought to have n different coupons.

Lemma

The expected number of jeans bought in phase j , $E[X_j] = \frac{n}{n-j}$.

- The success probability, p in the j -th phase is $\frac{n-j}{n}$.
- By the bound on waiting for success, the expected number of jeans bought $E[X_j]$ is $\frac{1}{p} = \frac{n}{n-j}$.

The expectation

Theorem

The expected number of jeans bought before all n types of coupons are collected is $E[X] = nH_n = \Theta(n \log n)$.

The expectation

Theorem

The expected number of jeans bought before all n types of coupons are collected is $E[X] = nH_n = \Theta(n \log n)$.

Proof

$$E[X] = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} E[X_j] = n \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{n-j} = n \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} = nH_n = \Theta(n \log n)$$

Randomized Quick Sort

Deterministic Quick Sort

The Problem:

Given an array $A[1 \dots n]$ containing n (comparable) elements, sort them in increasing/decreasing order.

QSORT(A, p, q)

- If $p \geq q$, EXIT.
- Compute $s \leftarrow$ correct position of $A[p]$ in the sorted order of the elements of A from p -th location to q -th location.
- Move the pivot $A[p]$ into position $A[s]$.
- Move the remaining elements of $A[p - q]$ into appropriate sides.
- QSORT($A, p, s - 1$);
- QSORT($A, s + 1, q$).

Complexity Results of QSORT

- An **INPLACE** algorithm
- The worst case time complexity is $O(n^2)$.
- The average case time complexity is $O(n \log n)$.

Randomized Quick Sort

An Useful Concept - The **Central Splitter**

It is an index s such that the number of elements less (resp. greater) than $A[s]$ is at least $\frac{n}{4}$.

- The algorithm randomly chooses a key, and checks whether it is a **central splitter** or not.
- If it is a **central splitter**, then the array is split with that key as was done in the QSORT algorithm.
- It can be shown that the expected number of trials needed to get a **central splitter** is constant.

Randomized Quick Sort

RandQSORT(A, p, q)

- 1: If $p \geq q$, then EXIT.
- 2: While no **central splitter** has been found, execute the following steps:
 - 2.1: Choose uniformly at random a number $r \in \{p, p+1, \dots, q\}$.
 - 2.2: Compute $s =$ number of elements in A that are less than $A[r]$,
and
 $t =$ number of elements in A that are greater than $A[r]$.
 - 2.3: If $s \geq \frac{q-p}{4}$ and $t \geq \frac{q-p}{4}$, then $A[r]$ is a **central splitter**.
- 3: Position $A[r]$ in $A[s+1]$, put the members in A that are smaller than the **central splitter** in $A[p \dots s]$ and the members in A that are larger than the **central splitter** in $A[s+2 \dots q]$.
- 4: RandQSORT(A, p, s);
- 5: RandQSORT($A, s+2, q$).

Analysis of RandQSORT

Fact: One execution of Step 2 needs $O(q - p)$ time.

Question: How many times Step 2 is executed for finding a **central splitter** ?

Result:

The probability that the randomly chosen element is a **central splitter** is $\frac{1}{2}$.

Recall “Waiting for success”

If p be the probability of success of a random experiment, and we continue the random experiment till we get success, the expected number of experiments we need to perform is $\frac{1}{p}$.

Implication in Our Case

- The expected number of times Step 2 needs to be repeated to get a **central splitter** (success) is 2 as the corresponding success probability is $\frac{1}{2}$.
- Thus, the expected time complexity of Step 2 is $O(n)$

Analysis of RandQSORT

Time Complexity

- The expected running time for the algorithm on a set A , excluding the time spent on recursive calls, is $O(|A|)$.

Analysis of RandQSORT

Time Complexity

- The expected running time for the algorithm on a set A , excluding the time spent on recursive calls, is $O(|A|)$.
- Worst case size of each partition in j -th level of recursion is $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$, So, the expected time spent excluding recursive calls is $O(n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j)$ for each partition.

Analysis of RandQSORT

Time Complexity

- The expected running time for the algorithm on a set A , excluding the time spent on recursive calls, is $O(|A|)$.
- Worst case size of each partition in j -th level of recursion is $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$, So, the expected time spent excluding recursive calls is $O(n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j)$ for each partition.
- The number of partitions of size $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$ is $O((\frac{4}{3})^j)$.

Analysis of RandQSORT

Time Complexity

- The expected running time for the algorithm on a set A , excluding the time spent on recursive calls, is $O(|A|)$.
- Worst case size of each partition in j -th level of recursion is $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$, So, the expected time spent excluding recursive calls is $O(n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j)$ for each partition.
- The number of partitions of size $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$ is $O((\frac{4}{3})^j)$.
- By linearity of expectations, the expected time for all partitions of size $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$ is $O(n)$.

Analysis of RandQSORT

Time Complexity

- The expected running time for the algorithm on a set A , excluding the time spent on recursive calls, is $O(|A|)$.
- Worst case size of each partition in j -th level of recursion is $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$, So, the expected time spent excluding recursive calls is $O(n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j)$ for each partition.
- The number of partitions of size $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$ is $O((\frac{4}{3})^j)$.
- By linearity of expectations, the expected time for all partitions of size $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$ is $O(n)$.
- Number of levels of recursion $= \log_{\frac{4}{3}} n = O(\log n)$.

Analysis of RandQSORT

Time Complexity

- The expected running time for the algorithm on a set A , excluding the time spent on recursive calls, is $O(|A|)$.
- Worst case size of each partition in j -th level of recursion is $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$, So, the expected time spent excluding recursive calls is $O(n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j)$ for each partition.
- The number of partitions of size $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$ is $O((\frac{4}{3})^j)$.
- By linearity of expectations, the expected time for all partitions of size $n \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^j$ is $O(n)$.
- Number of levels of recursion $= \log_{\frac{4}{3}} n = O(\log n)$.
- Thus, the expected running time is $O(n \log n)$.