

# **COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA**

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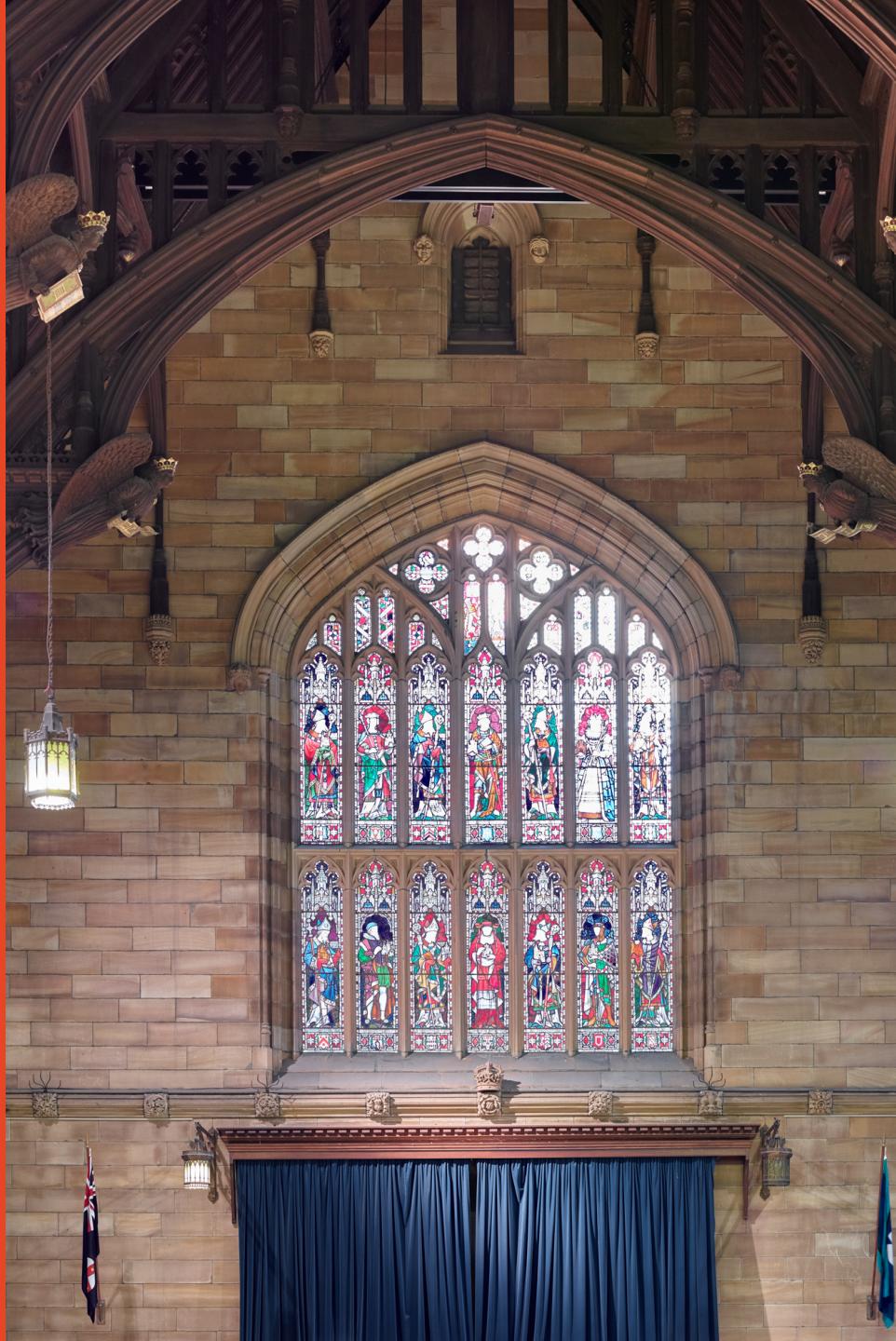
# **COMP2123**

## **Data structures and Algorithms**

Lecture 12: Randomized Algorithms  
[GT 19.1 and 19.6]

André van Renssen  
School of Computer Science

*Some content is taken from material  
provided by the textbook publisher Wiley.*



# Randomized algorithms

Randomized algorithms are algorithms where the behaviour doesn't depend solely on the input. It also depends (in part) on random choices or the values of a number of random bits.

Reasons for using randomization:

- Sampling data from a large population or dataset
- Avoid pathological worst-case examples
- Avoid predictable outcomes
- Allow for simpler algorithms

# Randomized algorithms

Randomized algorithms are algorithms where the behaviour doesn't depend solely on the input. It also depends (in part) on random choices or the values of a number of random bits.

Today:

- Generating random permutations
- Skip lists

# Generating random permutations

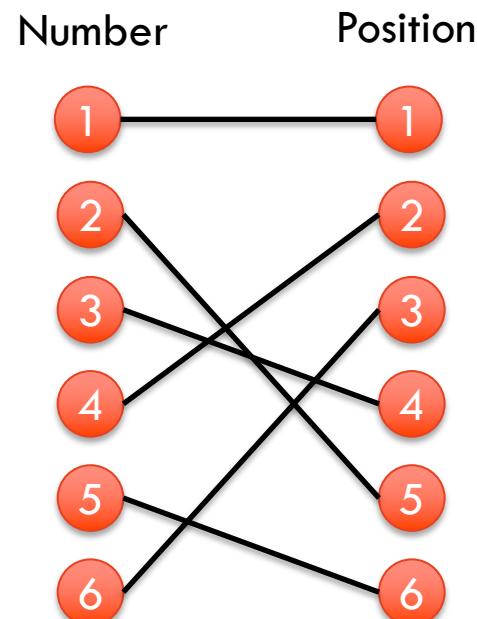
**Input:** An integer  $n$ .

**Output:** A permutation of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  chosen uniformly at random, i.e., every permutation has the same probability of being generated.

**Example:**

$n = 6$

$<1,4,6,3,2,5>$



# Generating random permutations

What are random permutations used for?

- Many algorithms whose input is an array perform better in practice after randomly permuting the input (for example, QuickSort).
- Can be used to sample  $k$  elements without knowing  $k$  in advance by picking the next element in the permuted order when needed.
- Can be used to assign scarce resources.  
稀缺资源
- Can be a building block for more complex randomized algorithms.

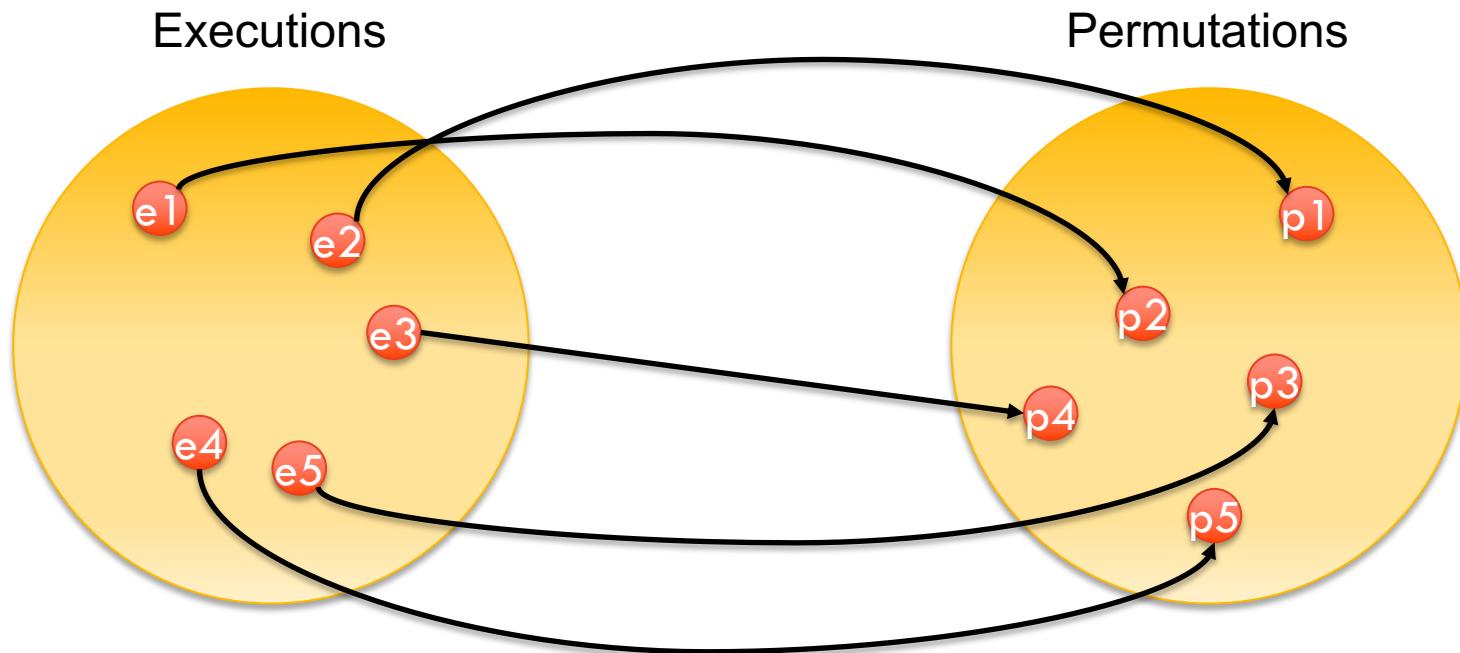
## First (incorrect) attempt

```
def permute(A):  
  
    # permute A in place  
    n ← length of array A  
  
    for i in {0, ..., n-1} do  
        # swap A[i] with random position  
        j ← random number in {0, ..., n-1}  
        A[i], A[j] ← A[j], A[i]  
  
    return A
```

Note that since  $j$  is picked at random, different executions lead to different outcomes

## So, why is this incorrect?

For all permutations to be equally likely, we want that every permutation is generated by the same number of possible executions.



# First (incorrect) attempt: Analysis

Number of executions:

$$n * n * n * \dots * n = n^n$$

  
n times

Number of permutations:

$$1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * n = n!$$

$n^n$  isn't divisible by  $n!$

Example:

$$n = 3$$

$$n^n = 27$$

$$n! = 6$$

27 isn't a multiple of 6, so some permutations are more likely than others.

```
def permute(A):  
    # permute A in place  
    n ← length of array A  
  
    for i in {0, ..., n-1} do  
        # swap A[i] with random position  
        j ← random number in {0, ..., n-1}  
        A[i], A[j] ← A[j], A[i]  
  
    return A
```

## Second attempt

```
def FisherYates(A):  
  
    # permute A in place  
    n ← length of array A  
  
    for i in {0, ..., n-1} do  
        # swap A[i] with random position  
        j ← random number in {i, ..., n-1}  
        A[i], A[j] ← A[j], A[i]  
  
    return A
```

Note that since  $j$  is picked at random, different executions lead to different outcomes

## Second attempt: Analysis

```
def FisherYates(A):
```

Number of executions:

$$1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * n = n!$$

Number of permutations:

$$1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * n = n!$$

Observation: Every execution leads to a different permutation.

```
# permute A in place  
n ← length of array A  
  
for i in {0, ..., n-1} do  
    # swap A[i] with random position  
    j ← random number in {i, ..., n-1}  
    A[i], A[j] ← A[j], A[i]  
  
return A
```

Example: To generate  $\langle 3,2,4,1 \rangle$  starting from  $\langle 1,2,3,4 \rangle$

$\langle 1,2,3,4 \rangle \rightarrow \langle 3,2,1,4 \rangle$ ,  $i=0$  and  $j=2$

$\langle 3,2,1,4 \rangle \rightarrow \langle 3,2,1,4 \rangle$ ,  $i=1$  and  $j=1$

$\langle 3,2,1,4 \rangle \rightarrow \langle 3,2,4,1 \rangle$ ,  $i=2$  and  $j=3$

$\langle 3,2,4,1 \rangle \rightarrow \langle 3,2,4,1 \rangle$ ,  $i=3$  and  $j=3$

## Second attempt: Analysis

**Theorem:**

The Fisher-Yates algorithm generates a permutation uniformly at random.

**Proof:**

- Every execution of the algorithm happens with probability  $1/n!$ .
- Each execution generates a different permutation.
- Hence, the probability that a specific permutation is generated is  $1/n!$ , for all possible permutations of  $\langle 1, 2, \dots, n \rangle$ .

## Skip lists

Another way to implement a Map.

So, why are we looking at another different way of doing this?

- Relatively simple data structure that's built in a randomized way
- No need for rebalancing like in AVL trees
- Still has  $O(\log n)$  expected worst-case time (this is NOT average case)

Applications:

- Various database systems use it
- Concurrent/parallel computing environments

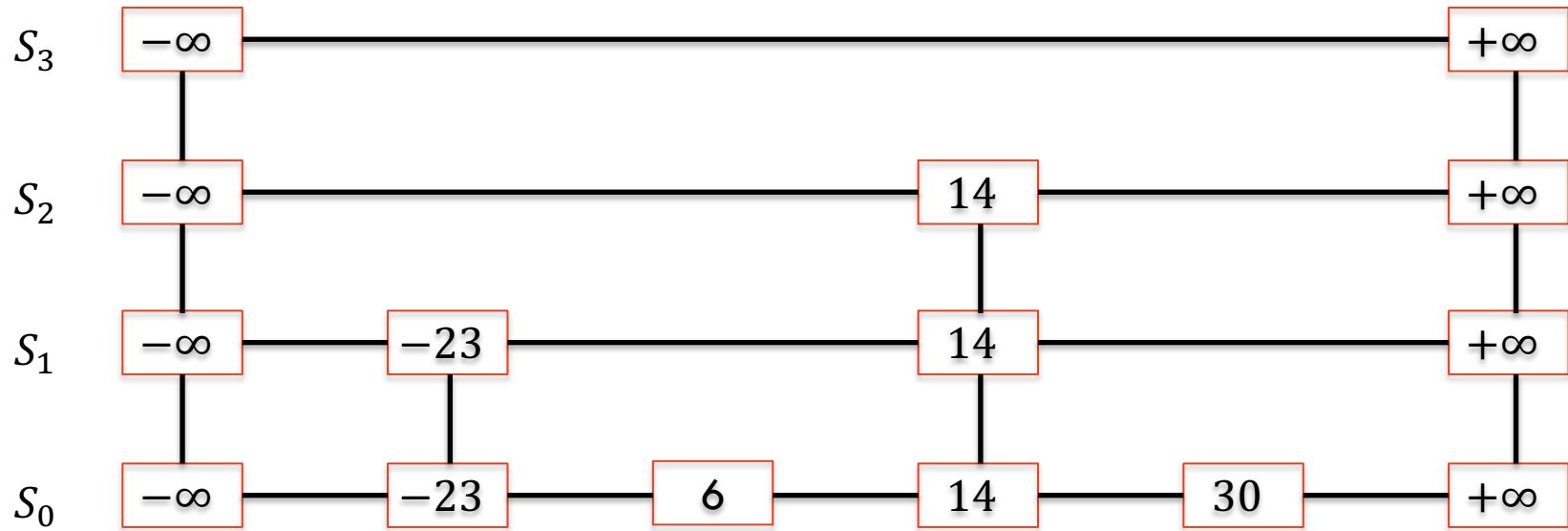
# The Map ADT (recap)

- **get( $k$ ):** if the map  $M$  has an entry with key  $k$ , return its associated value
- **put( $k, v$ ):** if key  $k$  is not in  $M$ , then insert  $(k, v)$  into the map  $M$ ; else, replace the existing value associated to  $k$  with  $v$
- **remove( $k$ ):** if the map  $M$  has an entry with key  $k$ , remove it
- **size(), isEmpty()**
- **entrySet():** return an iterable collection of the entries in  $M$
- **keySet():** return an iterable collection of the keys in  $M$
- **values():** return an iterable collection of the values in  $M$

# Skip lists

Leveled structure, where every level is a subset of the one below it.

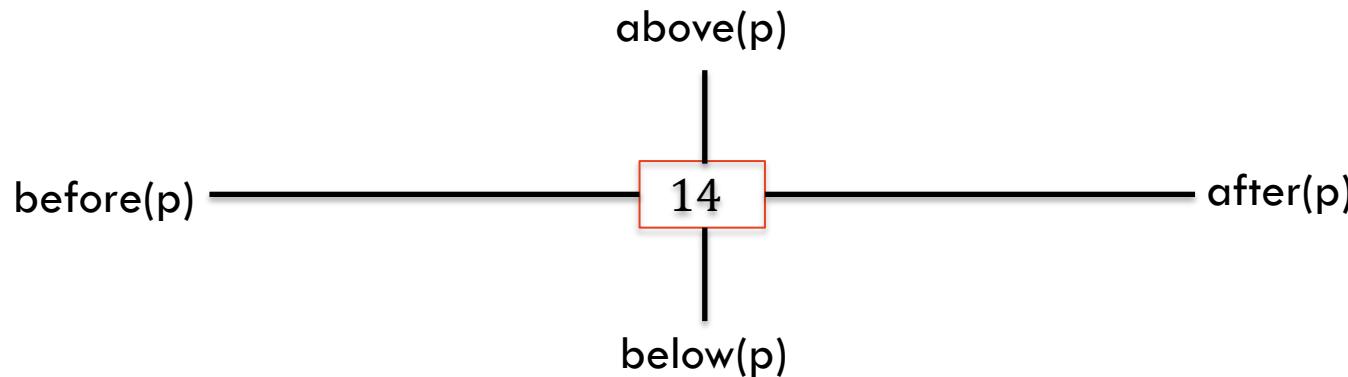
Next level's elements determined by coin flips.



# Skip lists

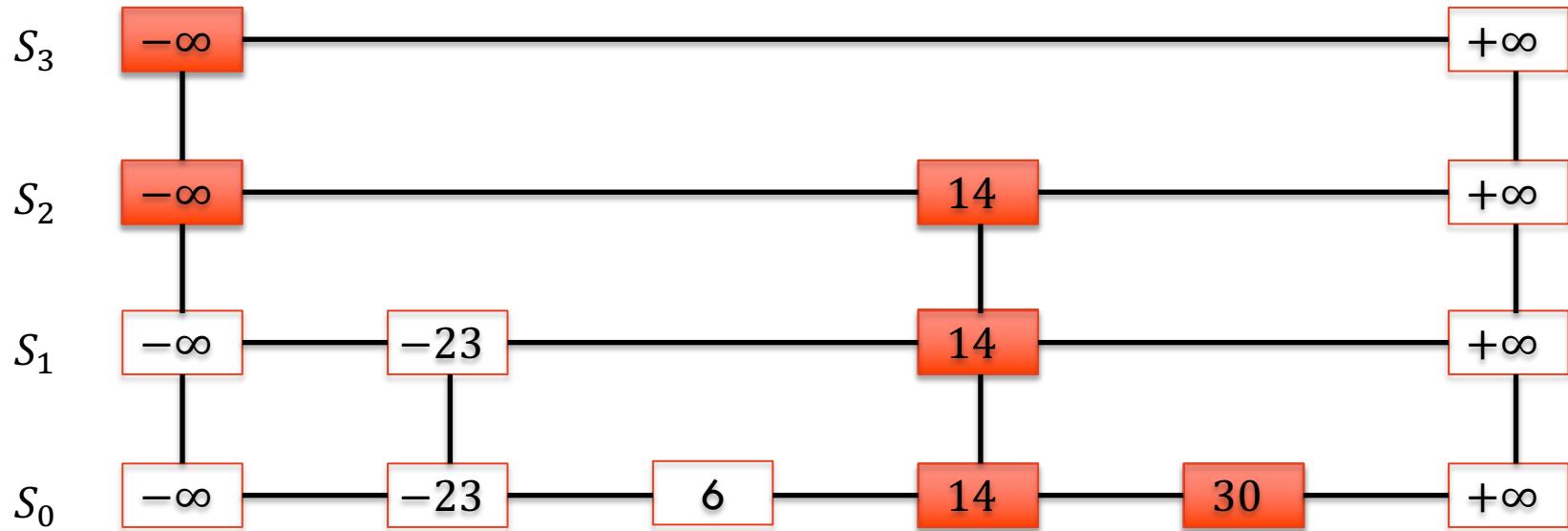
A node  $p$  has pointer to:

- $\text{after}(p)$ : Node following  $p$  on same level.
- $\text{before}(p)$ : Node preceding  $p$  in the same level.
- $\text{above}(p)$ : Node above  $p$  in the same tower.
- $\text{below}(p)$ : Node below  $p$  in the same tower.



# Search

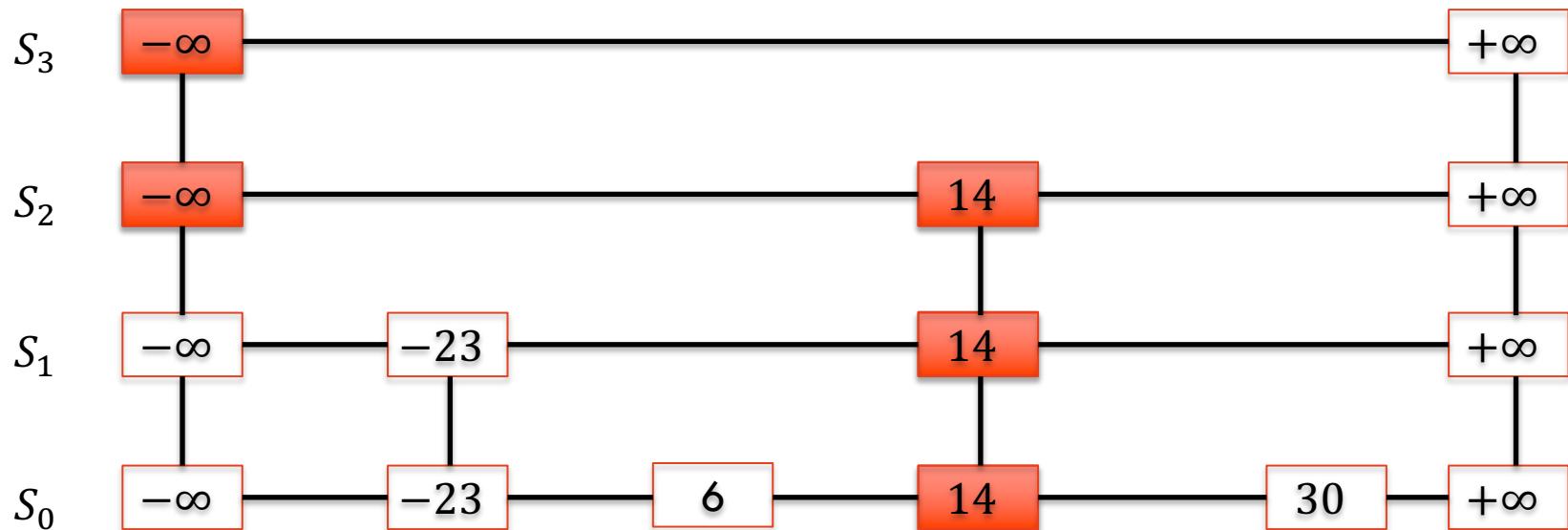
```
def search(p, k):
    while below(p) ≠ null do
        p ← below(p)
        while key(after(p)) ≤ k do
            p ← after(p)
    return p
```



Example: `search(topleft node, 30)`

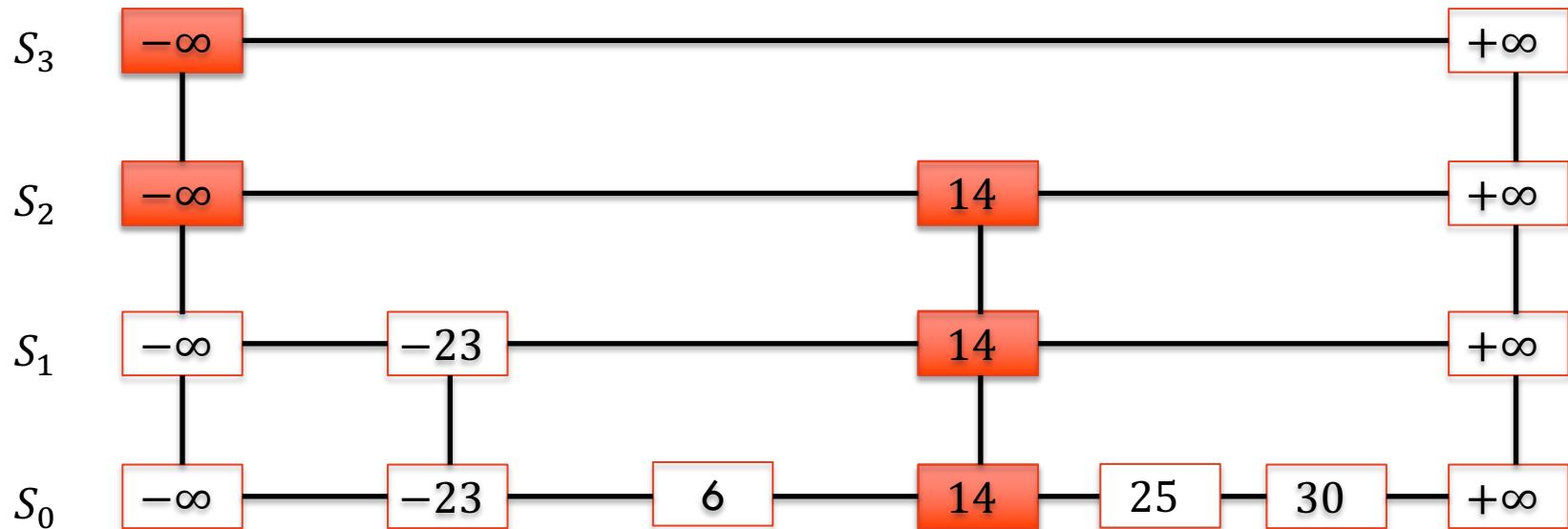
## Insertion

```
def insert(p,k):
    p ← search(p,k)
    q ← insertAfterAbove(p,null,k)
    while coin flip is heads do
        while above(p) = null do
            p ← before(p)
        p ← above(p)
    q ← insertAfterAbove(p,q,k)
```



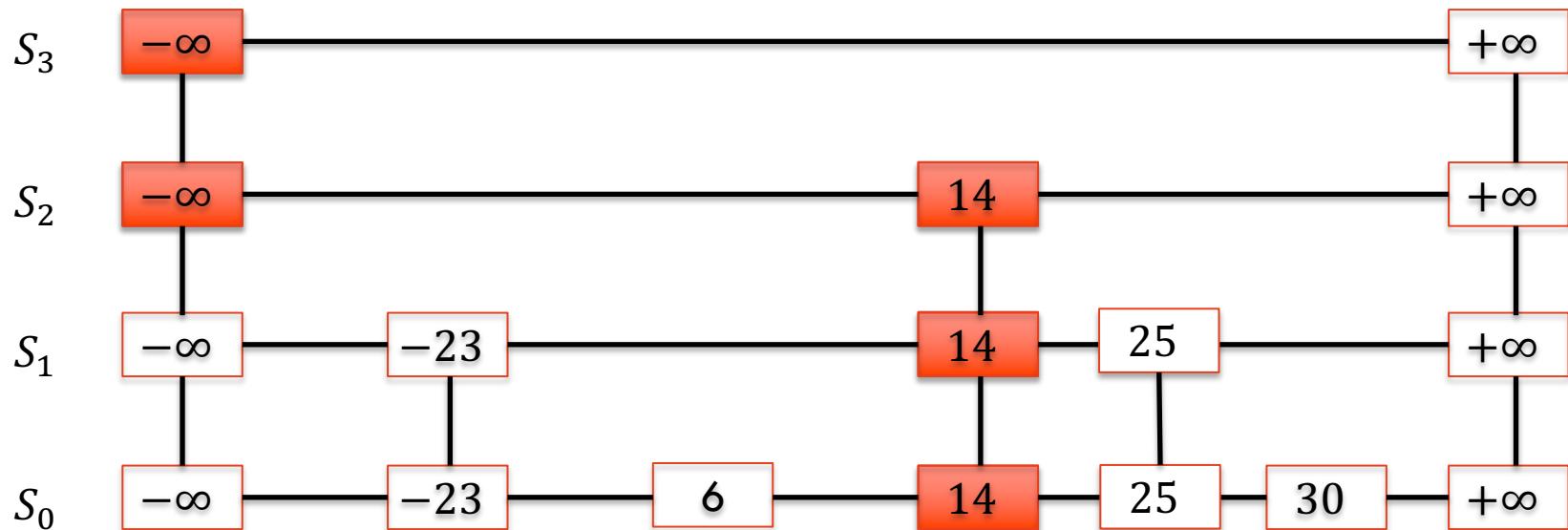
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        p ← above(p)
    q ← insertAfterAbove(p,q,k)
```



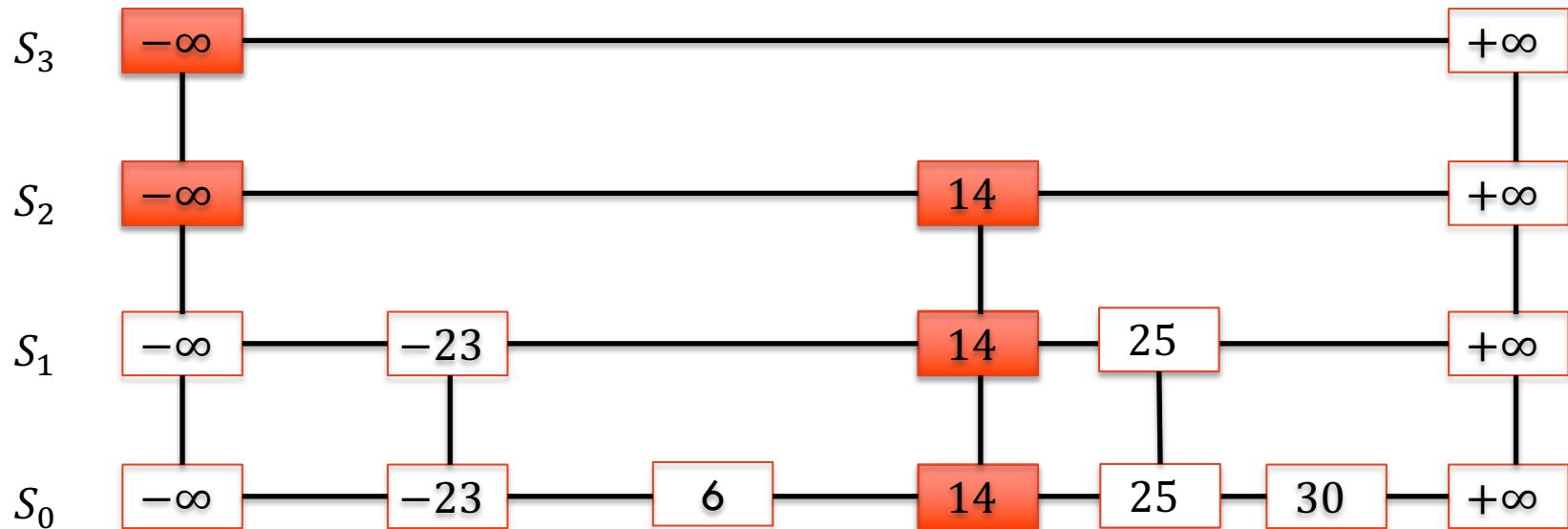
# Insertion

```
def insert(p,k):
    p ← search(p,k)
    q ← insertAfterAbove(p,null,k)
    while coin flip is heads do
        while above(p) = null do
            p ← before(p)
        p ← above(p)
    q ← insertAfterAbove(p,q,k)
```



## Removal

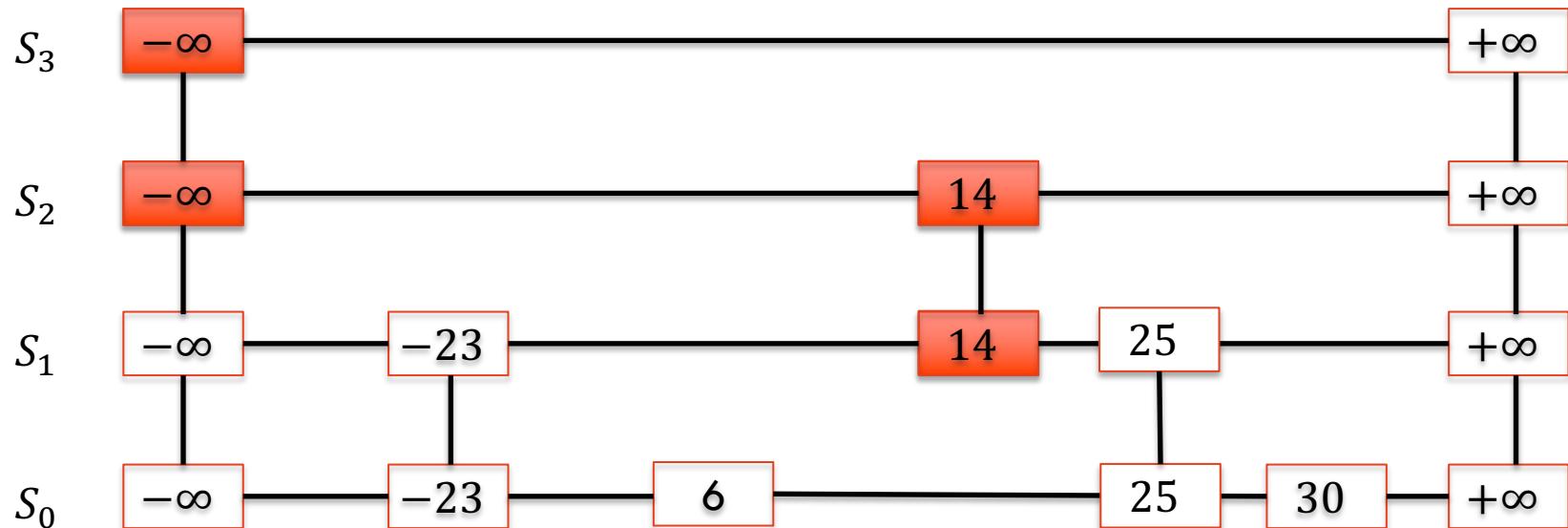
```
def remove(p, k):
    p ← search(p, k)
    if key(p) ≠ k then return null
    repeat
        remove p
        p ← above(p)
    until above(p) = null
```



Example: `remove(topleft node, 14)`

# Removal

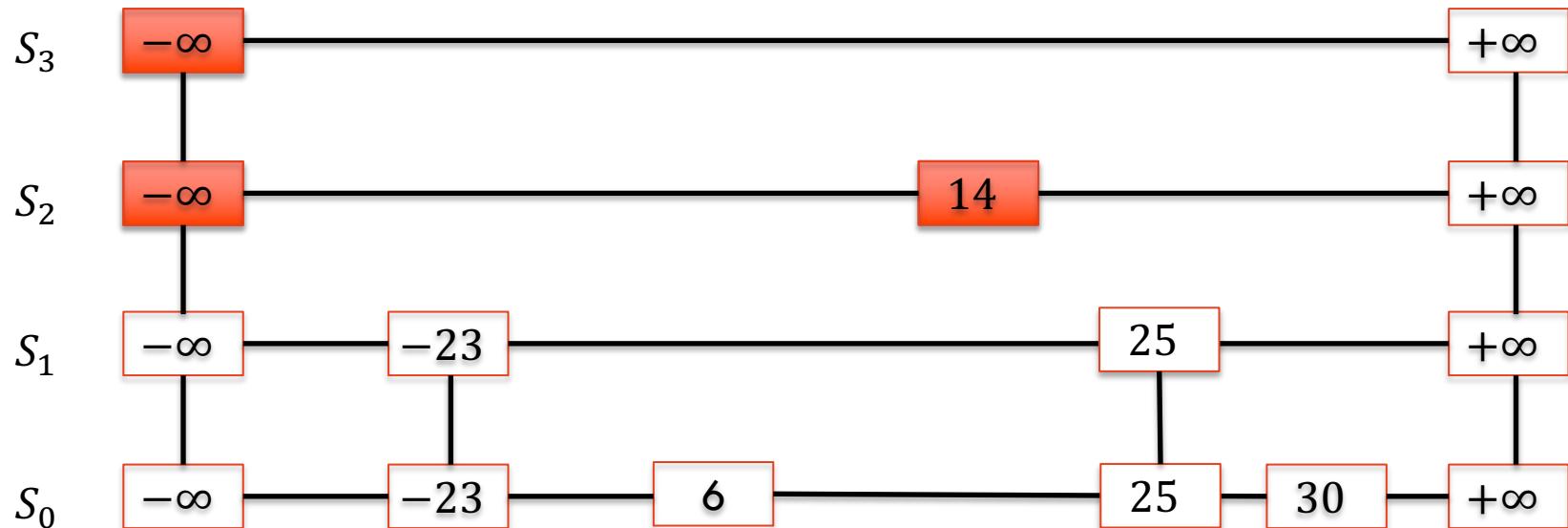
```
def remove(p, k):
    p ← search(p, k)
    if key(p) ≠ k then return null
    repeat
        remove p
        p ← above(p)
    until above(p) = null
```



Example: `remove(topleft node, 14)`

# Removal

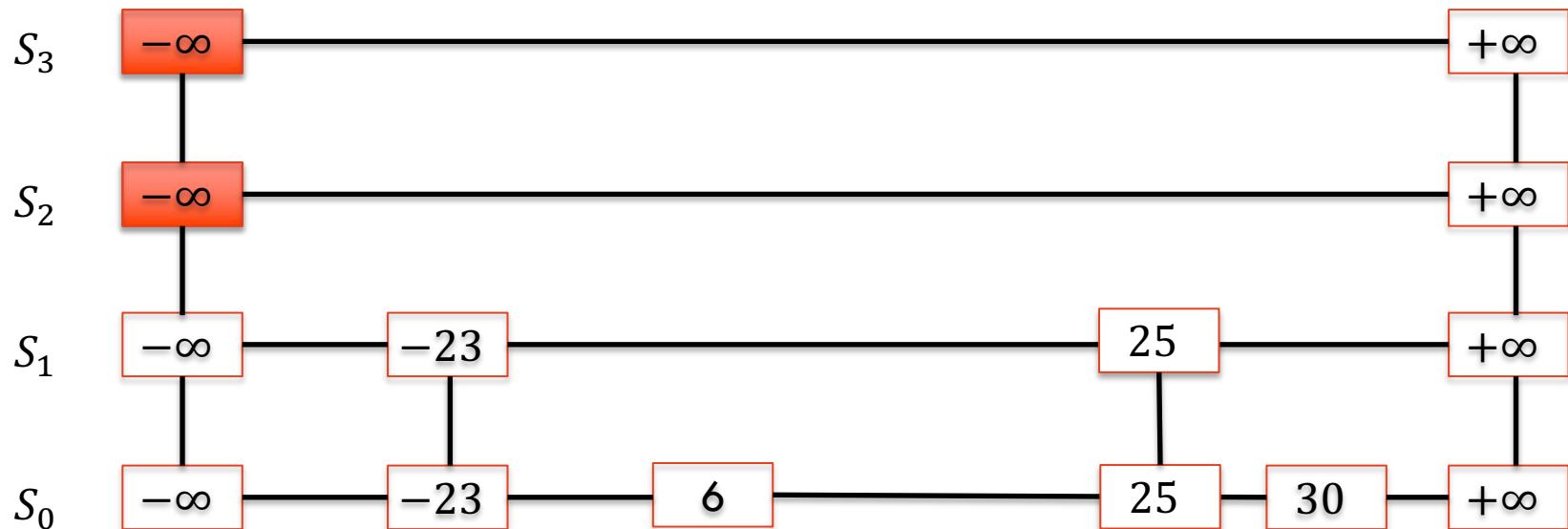
```
def remove(p, k):
    p ← search(p, k)
    if key(p) ≠ k then return null
    repeat
        remove p
        p ← above(p)
    until above(p) = null
```



Example: `remove(topleft node, 14)`

# Removal

```
def remove(p, k):
    p ← search(p, k)
    if key(p) ≠ k then return null
    repeat
        remove p
        p ← above(p)
    until above(p) = null
```



Example: `remove(topleft node, 14)`

# Skip lists: Top layer

Keep a pointer to the topleft node.

Choices for the top layer:

- Keep at a fixed level, say  $\max\{10, 3[\log(n)]\}$ 
  - Insertion needs to take this into account
- Variable level
  - Continue insertion until coin comes up tails
  - No modification required
  - Probability that this gives more than  $O(\log n)$  levels is very low

# Skip lists: Analysis

**Theorem:**

The expected height of a skip list is  $O(\log n)$ .

**Proof:**

- The probability that an element is present at height  $i$  is  $1/2^i$ .
  - I.e., the probability that the coin comes up heads  $i$  times.
- The probability that level  $i$  has at least one item is at most  $n/2^i$ .
- The probability that skip list has height  $h$  is probability that level  $h$  has at least one element.
- So, probability that skip list has height larger than  $c \log n$  is at most

$$\frac{n}{2^{c \log n}} = \frac{n}{n^c} = \frac{1}{n^{c-1}}$$

- So, probability that skip list has height  $O(\log n)$  is at least

$$1 - \frac{1}{n^{c-1}}$$

# Skip lists: Search Analysis

**Theorem:**

The expected search time of a skip list is  $O(\log n)$ .

**Proof:**

- Searching consists of horizontal and vertical steps.
- There are  $h$  vertical steps, so  $O(\log n)$  with high probability.
- To have a horizontal step on level  $i$ , the next node can't be on level  $i+1$ .
- The probability of this is  $1/2$ .
- This means that the expected number of horizontal steps per level is 2.
- So we expect to spend  $O(1)$  time per level.
- Expected search time:  $O(\log n)$  time with high probability.

Insertion and deletion take expected  $O(\log n)$  time using similar analysis.

# Skip lists: Space Analysis

**Theorem:**

The expected space used by a skip list is  $O(n)$ .

**Proof:**

- Space per node:  $O(1)$
- Expected number of nodes at level  $i$  is  $n/2^i$ .
- Thus expected number of nodes is

$$\sum_{i=0}^h \frac{n}{2^i} = n \sum_{i=0}^h \frac{1}{2^i} < 2n$$

# Skip lists: Summary

Expected space:  $O(n)$

Expected search/insert/delete time:  $O(\log n)$

Works very well in practice and doesn't require any complicated rebalancing operations.