Design and Analysis of Algorithms



CS3230 CS3230 Week 4

Randomized Algorithms

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Basics of Probability (Pre-requisite from CS1231)

If you don't recall the basics of probability, please review!

 For your convenience, some revision material on probability has been uploaded to LumiNUS.

Use of Probability in Algorithm Analysis

Example: Analysis of Quicksort

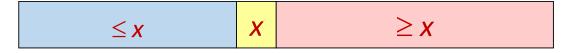
Quicksort

- Proposed by C.A.R. Hoare in 1961.
- A divide-and-conquer algorithm.
- Sorts "in place" (like insertion sort, but not like merge sort).
- Very practical (with tuning).

Divide and Conquer

Quicksort an *n*-element array:

1. Divide: Partition the array into two subarrays around a pivot x such that elements in lower subarray $\le x \le$ elements in upper subarray.



- 2. Conquer: Recursively sort the two subarrays.
- 3. Combine: Trivial.

Key: Linear-time partitioning subroutine.

Pseudocode for Quick Sort

```
QUICKSORT(A, p, r)

if p < r

then q \leftarrow \text{PARTITION}(A, p, r)

QUICKSORT(A, p, q-1)

QUICKSORT(A, p, q-1)

QUICKSORT(A, q+1, r)
```

Initial call: QUICKSORT (A, 1, n)

Analysis of Quick Sort

•Let T(n) = worst-case running time on an array of n elements.

•Let A(n) = average-case running time on an array of n elements.

Pseudocode for Quick Sort

```
QUICKSORT(A, p, r)

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```

```
Suppose the "pivot" produces the subarrays of size j and (n-j-1) T(n) = T(j) + T(n-j-1) + \Theta(n)
```

Worst-case of quicksort

- Input sorted or reverse sorted (if we select the first element of an array as pivot).
- Partition around min or max element.
- One side of partition always has no elements.

$$T(n) = T(0) + T(n-1) + \Theta(n)$$

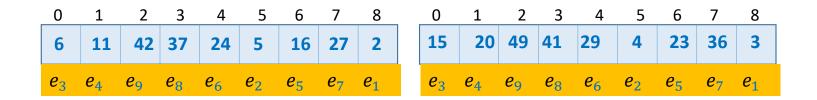
$$= \Theta(1) + T(n-1) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= T(n-1) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= \Theta(n^2)$$
 (arithmetic series)

•Let A(n) = average-case running time on an array of n elements.

- Our analysis assumes all input elements are distinct.
 - If duplicates exist, the running time of quicksort is better if we use a better partitioning algorithm.



Let e_i : *i*th **smallest** element of A.

Observation: The execution of **Quick sort** depends upon the permutation of e_i 's and **not** on the values taken by e_i 's.

A(n) = Average running time for Quick sort on input of size n

=Expected running time of Quick sort when the input is chosen uniformly at random from the set of all n! Permutations (i.e., expectation is over the random choices of the input).

(average over all possible permutations of $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$)

Hence,
$$A(n) = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi} Q(\pi)$$
,

where $Q(\pi)$ is the time complexity (or no. of comparisons) when the input is permutation π .

Permutations beginning with e_1 Permutations beginning with e_3 All n! permutations of $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$

Let P(i) be the set of all those permutations of $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$ that begin with e_i .

Question: What fraction of all permutations constitutes P(i)?

Answer: $\frac{1}{n}$

Let G(n, i) be the average running time of QuickSort over P(i).

Permutations beginning with e_1 Permutations beginning with e_3 All n! permutations of $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$

Question: What is the relation between A(n) and G(n, i)'s ?

Answer:
$$A(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} G(n, i)$$

Observation: We now need to derive an expression for G(n, i). For this purpose, we need to have a closer look at the execution of **QuickSort** over P(i).

• G(n, i) = average running time of QuickSort over P(i).

• So,
$$G(n, i) = A(i - 1) + A(n - i) + (n - 1)$$

• We have already seen, $A(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} G(n, i)$

• So,
$$A(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (A(i-1) + A(n-i) + n - 1)$$

= $\frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} A(i-1) + n - 1$

$$A(n) = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} A(i-1) + n - 1$$

• See lecture notes or in-class presentation for substitute-and-check proof that $A(n) = O(n \log n)$.

Merge Sort vs Quick Sort

No. of Comparisons	Merge Sort	Quick Sort
Average case	$n\log_2 n$	$1.39 n \log_2 n$
Best case	$n\log_2 n$	$n\log_2 n$
Worst case	$n\log_2 n$	n(n-1)

After seeing this table, <u>no one would prefer Quick sort</u> to Merge sort But Quick sort is still the <u>most preferred</u> algorithm in <u>practice</u>. Why?

Merge Sort vs Quick Sort (in Practice)

Input: a random permutation of n numbers.

No. of repetitions: 1000

	n = 100	n = 1000	$n \geq 10000$
No. of times Merge sort outperformed Quick sort	0.1%	0.02%	0%

Reasons:

- Overhead of temporary storage in Merge Sort
- Cache misses

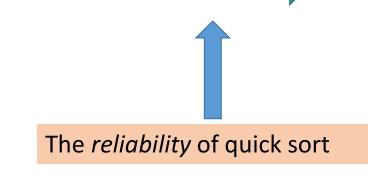
What makes Quick Sort Popular?

No. of repetitions = 1000

No. of times run time exceeds average by	100	1000	104	10 ⁵	10 ⁶
10%	190	49	22	10	3
20%	28	17	12	3	0
50 %	2	1	1	0	0
100%	0	0	0	0	0

Inference:

As n increases, the chances of deviation from average case



A Serious Problem with Quick Sort

• **Distribution sensitive:** Time taken depends on the initial (input) permutation

• Is real data random?

Can we make Quick Sort distribution insensitive?

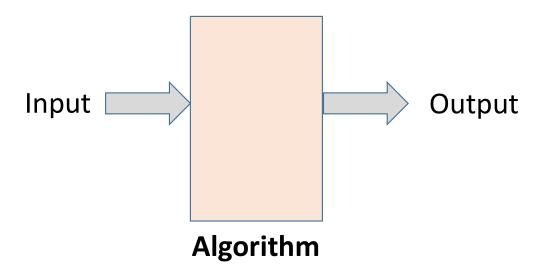
Remark: Worst-case vs Average-case

• Worst-case analysis is much more common than average-case

Reasons:

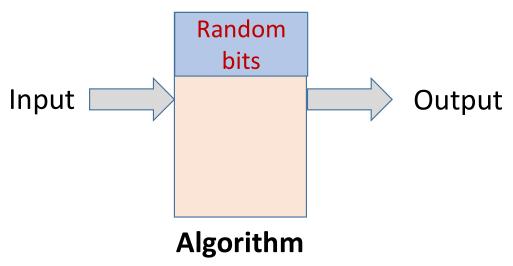
- It is often easier
- To get a meaningful average-case result, a reasonable probability model on input is critical, but maybe unavailable or difficult to analyze

Algorithms



• The **output** as well as the **running time** are **functions** only of the **input**.

Randomized Algorithms



• The **output** as well as the **running time** are **functions** of the **input** and **random bits chosen**.





On a few occasions

A Serious Problem with Quick Sort

- **Distribution sensitive:** Time taken depends on the initial (input) permutation
- Can we make Quick Sort distribution insensitive?

What if we select the <u>pivots uniformly at random</u> from the array?

Quick Sort

Pick an element uniformly at random from A and make it the pivot

Quicksort(A, p, r)

if p < r

me, we select the <u>first</u> <u>sement</u> of the array as pivot

then $q \leftarrow \text{PARTITION}(A, p, r)$ QUICKSORT(A, p, q-1)QUICKSORT(A, q+1, r)

Initial call: QUICKSORT (A, 1, n)

A Serious Problem with Quick Sort

- Distribution sensitive: Time taken depends on the initial (input) permutation
- Can we make Quick Sort distribution insensitive?

- What if we select the <u>pivots uniformly at random</u> from the array?
- **Distribution insensitive:** Time taken does <u>not depend</u> on initial permutation of A.
- Time taken depends upon the random choices of pivot elements.

Analysis of Randomized Quick Sort

Theorem [Colin McDiarmid, 1991]:

Probability that the run time of Randomized Quick Sort exceeds average by $x\% = n^{-\frac{x}{100} \ln \ln n}$

 \rightarrow Probability that run time of Randomized quick sort is **double** the average for $n \ge 10^6$ is 10^{-15}

What makes Randomized Algorithms so Popular? [A study by Microsoft in 2008]

Title: Cycles, Cells and Platters: An Empirical Analysis of **Hardware Failures** on a Million Consumer PCs

Authors: Edmund B. Nightingale, John R. Douceur, Vince Orgovan

Available at: research.microsoft.com/pubs/144888/eurosys84-

nightingale.pdf

Event	Probability	
Your desktop will crash during this lecture	> 10 ⁻⁷	
RandQsort takes time at least double the average	$< 10^{-15}$	





Types of Randomized Algorithms

Randomized Las Vegas Algorithms:

- Output is always correct
- Running time is a random variable

Randomized Monte Carlo Algorithms:

- Output may be incorrect with some small probability
- Running time is deterministic.

Motivating Example 1: Smallest Enclosing Circle

Problem definition: Given n points in a plane, compute the smallest radius

circle that encloses all n points.

Best deterministic algorithm: [Megiddo, 1983]

O(n) time complexity, too complex, uses advanced geometry
 Randomized Las Vegas algorithm: [Welzl, 1991]

• Average O(n) time complexity, very simple, uses elementary geometry

Motivating Example 2: Minimum Cut

Problem definition: Given a connected graph **G**=(**V**,**E**) on **n** vertices and **m** edges, compute the smallest set of edges whose removal will make G disconnected.

Best deterministic algorithm: [Stoer and Wagner, 1997]

• **O**(*mn*) time complexity.

Randomized Monte Carlo algorithm: [Karger, 1993]

- $O(m \log n)$ time complexity.
- Error probability: n^{-c} for any c that we desire

Motivating Example 3: Primality Testing

Problem definition: Given an *n* bit integer, determine if it is prime. **Applications:**

- RSA-cryptosystem,
- Algebraic algorithms

Best deterministic algorithm: [Agrawal, Kayal and Saxena, 2002]

• $O(n^6)$ time complexity.

Randomized Monte Carlo algorithm: [Rabin, 1980]

- $O(k n^2)$ time complexity.
- Error probability: 2^{-k} for any k that we desire
- For k=50, this probability is 10^{-15}

Randomized Quick Sort

```
QUICKSORT(A, p, r)

if p < r

then q \leftarrow \text{PARTITION}(A, p, r)
```

en $q \leftarrow \text{PARTITION}(A, p, r)$ QUICKSORT(A, p, q-1)QUICKSORT(A, q+1, r)

Assumption: All elements are distinct (if not, break the ties arbitrarily)

Notation: e_i : *i*th smallest element of array A.

Pick an element uniformly at random from A and make it the pivot

Randomized Quick Sort Analysis

```
Quicksort(A, p, r)

if p < r

then q \leftarrow \text{Partition}(A, p, r)

Quicksort(A, p,

Quicksort(A, p,

Quicksort(A, p,

length n
```

Let T(n) be the worst-case number of comparisons.

Note that T(n) is a **random variable.**

Randomized Quick Sort Analysis

QUICKSORT(
$$A, p, r$$
)

if $p < r$

then $q \leftarrow \text{PARTITION}(A, p, r)$

QUICKSORT($A, p, q-1$)

QUICKSORT($A, q+1, r$)

$$T(n) = n - 1 + T(q - 1) + T(n - q)$$

Let $A(n) = \mathbb{E}[T(n)]$ where the expectation is over the randomness in the algorithm.

Taking expectations and applying linearity of expectations:

$$A(n) = n - 1 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{q=1}^{n} (A(q-1) + A(n-q)) = n - 1 + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{q=1}^{n-1} A(q)$$

This is the same as the recurrence for average-case quicksort!

Randomized QuickSelect

```
QuickSelect(A, p, r, k)

if p < r

then q \leftarrow \text{Partition}(A, p, r)

if q = = k

then return A[q]

else if q > k

then QuickSelect(A, p, q - 1, k)

else QuickSelect(A, p, q - 1, k)
```

• # Comparisons doesn't halve! Becomes O(n). See lecture notes.

Geometric Distribution

- Suppose you flip a fair coin until it comes up heads. What is the expected number of times you need to flip?
- Let X be the number of times. Note that X is a random variable.
- X follows a **geometric distribution** with probability p = 1/2
- Pr[X = 1] = 1/2, Pr[X = 2] = 1/4, Pr[X = 3] = 1/8, ...
- **Fact:** E[X] = 1/p

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