Randomized Algorithms I

Outline for Today

Randomized algorithms

Quicksort

Quickselect

Majority element

Randomized Algorithms

Randomized Algorithms

A randomized algorithm is an algorithm that incorporates randomness as part of its operation.

Randomized vs. Deterministic

Deterministic: guaranteed correctness & worst-case runtime Randomized: either correctness or worst-case runtime is not guaranteed

Why? Trade-off between Accuracy and Efficiency Often aim for properties like:

Correctness is not guaranteed but gives good worst-case runtime Worst-case runtime is not guaranteed but gives good average runtime

Getting exact answers with high probability

Getting answers that are close to the right answer

Randomized Algorithms

Two types of randomized algorithms

Las Vegas vs Monte Carlo

Las Vegas algorithms guarantee correctness, but not runtime.

We will focus on these algorithms today.

Monte Carlo algorithms guarantee runtime, but not correctness.

We will revisit this next lecture when we see Karger's algorithm.

Properties of Expectation

[Expected prior knowledge]

The expected value of a constant or non-random variable is that constant or random variable itself: E[c] = c.

Expected value is a linear operator:

$$E[aX + b] = aE[X] + b$$

 $E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$

Note that the second claim holds even if X and Y are dependent variables.

Our first example of a randomized algorithm is bogosort. It's not very smart.

```
algorithm bogosort(A):
   while True:
    randomly permute A
   if A is sorted:
    return A
```

Runtime

Unlike most of the deterministic algorithms that we've studied so far, when analyzing a randomized algorithms, we're interested in:

What's the average-case runtime of the algorithm?

How does this compare to the worst-case runtime of the algorithm?

```
algorithm bogosort(A):
    while True:
       randomly permute A
    if A is sorted:
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```

Runtime

Expected: 9 Worst-case: 9

```
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   while True:
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   if A is sorted:
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```

Runtime

Expected: O(n·n!) Worst-case: O(∞)

Pr[randomly permuted array is sorted] = 1/n! By the expectation of geometric distribution, we expect to permute **A** n! times before it's sorted.

Each permutation requires O(n)-time.

There is a possibility that you never happen to sort the list.

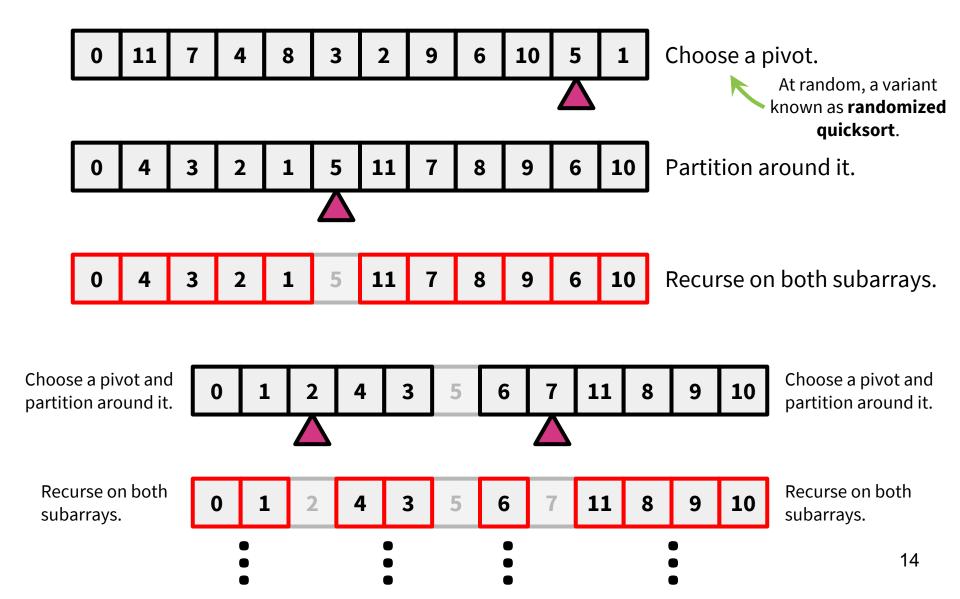
Our next example of a randomized algorithm is quicksort. It's pretty smart.

It behaves as follows:

Boundary case: If the list has 0 or 1 elements it's sorted.

Partition: Otherwise, choose a pivot and partition around it.

Recursion: Recursively apply quicksort to the sub-lists to the left and right of the pivot.



Runtime

Expected: 9 Worst-case: 9

Runtime

Expected: O(nlogn) Worst-case: O(n²)

Initial Observations

There's a really good case, in which partition always picks the median element as the pivot.

What's the recurrence relation?

Suppose
$$T(n) = a \cdot T(n/b) + O(n^d)$$

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^d \log n) & \text{if } a = b^d \\ O(n^d) & \text{if } a < b^d \\ O(n^{\log_b(a)}) & \text{if } a > b^d \end{cases}$$

Initial Observations

There's a really good case, in which partition always picks the median element as the pivot.

What's the recurrence relation?

$$T(0) = T(1) = \Theta(1)$$

$$T(n) = 2T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= O(nlogn)$$
Master method $a = 2, b = 2, d = 1$.

Suppose $T(n) = a \cdot T(n/b) + O(n^d)$

$$O(n^d \log n) \text{ if } a < b^d$$

$$O(n^{\log_{-b(a)}}) \text{ if } a > b^d$$

There's a really bad case, in which partition always picks the smallest or largest element as the pivot.

What's the recurrence relation?

$$T(0) = T(1) = \Theta(1)$$
 $T(n) = T(n-1) + \Theta(n)$
 $= O(n^2)$
Draw the recursion tree or just add-up the total times of number comparisons.

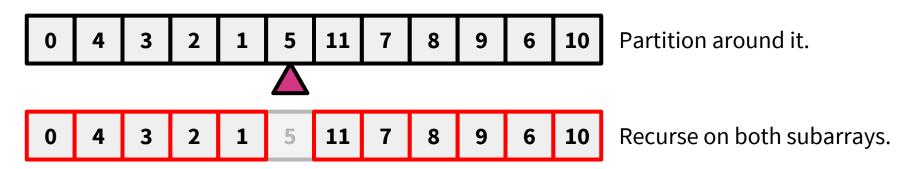
How do we know the expected runtime of quicksort is O(nlogn)?

To answer this question, let's count the number of times two elements get compared!

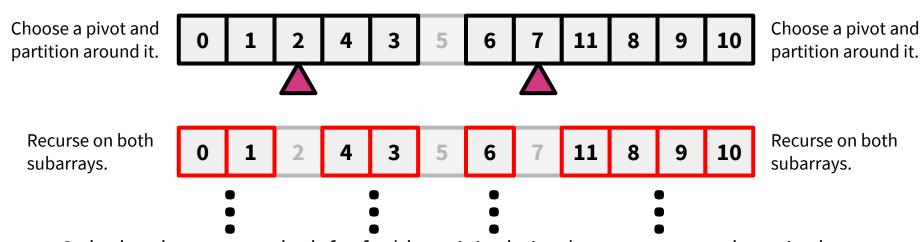
This might not seem intuitive at first, but it's an approach you can use to analyze runtime of randomized algorithms.

Note: We only need to analyze the runtime of soring n different numbers 0~n-1

- Why: 1. Sorting an array that contains repeated values is just easier
- 2. Sorting an array with n different elements is equal to sorting an array with elements 0~n-1



All elements were compared to **5** in the top recursive call, and then never again.



Only the elements to the left of **5** (the original pivot) were compared to **2** in the left recursive call; only the elements to the right of the original pivot were compared to **7** in the right recursive call.

Each pair of elements **a** and **b** is compared 0 or 1 times. Which is it?

Let $X_{a,b}$ be random variable that depends on choice of pivots, such that:

$$\chi_{a,b} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{a} \text{ and } \mathbf{b} \text{ are compared} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In the previous example, $X_{3,5} = 1$ since **3** and **5** are compared but $X_{4,6} = 0$ since **4** and **6** are not compared.

Notice that these assignments of $X_{3,5}$ and $X_{4,6}$ both depended on our random choice of pivot **5**.

The total number of comparisons?

Der of comparisons?

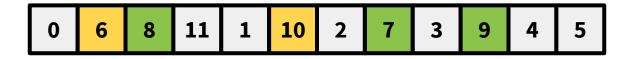
$$E[\sum_{a=0}^{n-1}\sum_{b=a+1}^{n-1}X_{a,b}] = \sum_{a=0}^{n-1}\sum_{b=a+1}^{n-1}E[X_{a,b}]$$
We need to figure out this value!

By linearity of expectation

So what's $E[X_{a,b}]$?

$$E[X_{a,b}] = P(X_{a,b} = 1) \cdot 1 + P(X_{a,b} = 0) \cdot 0 = P(X_{a,b} = 1)$$

To determine $P(X_{a,b} = 1)$, consider an example ...



 $P(X_{a,b} = 1)$ is the probability that **a** and **b** are compared.

 $P(X_{6,10} = 1)$ is the probability that **6** and **10** are compared.

This is the probability that either **6** or **10** are selected a pivot before 7, 8, or 9. If we selected 7 as a pivot before either 6 or 10, then 6 and **10** would be partitioned and not be compared.

= 2/5 Why doesn't this depend on the length of the overall list, 12? Consider an analogy: let's say you're playing the game: roll a dice; if it's 1 you win, if it's 2 you lose, else roll again. You will win with probability 1/2, regardless of how many sides of the dice! In this case, we are rolling a 12-side dice and expecting 6 or 10 out of 6~10.

By definition of expectation

So, we can see that $P(X_{a,b} = 1) = 2 / (b - a + 1)$

This gives that
$$E[X_{a,b}] = P(X_{a,b} = 1) = 2 / (b - a + 1)$$
. Thus,
$$\sum_{a=0}^{n-1} \sum_{b=a+1}^{n-1} E[X_{a,b}] = \sum_{a=0}^{n-1} \sum_{b=a+1}^{n-1} 2 / (b - a + 1)$$
$$= \sum_{a=0}^{n-1} \sum_{c=1}^{n-1} 2 / (c + 1)$$
$$\leq \sum_{a=0}^{n-1} \sum_{c=0}^{n-1} 2 / (c + 1)$$
This is the hard part, and it's a useful skill.
$$= 2n \sum_{a=0}^{n-1} 1 / (c+1) = 2n \sum_{a=0}^{n-1} 1/c$$

Harmonic series:

$$\sum_{n=1}^k rac{1}{n} = \ln k + \gamma + arepsilon_k \leq (\ln k) + 1$$

$$\leq 2n(ln(n) + 1) = O(n log n)$$

Runtime

Expected: O(nlogn) Worst-case: O(n²)



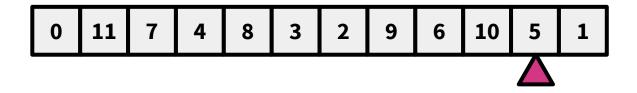
Think of this as the adversary chooses the randomness.

Quicksort vs Mergesort

Expected: O(nlogn) Worst-case: O(n²) Worst-case: O(nlogn)

1. Quicksort requires little additional space

Show a smarter manipulation method that requires no extra memory storage



2. Quicksort exhibits good cache locality

It does not have to access locations that are far away frequently

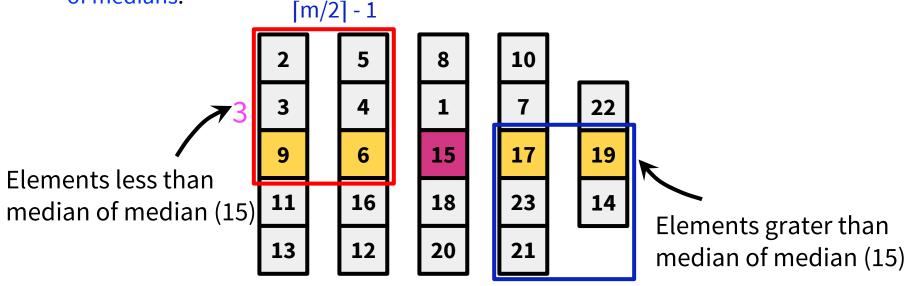
3. It is easy to avoid worst-case run time of $O(n^2)$ almost entirely by using randomly selection Verified in many practical applications

Better Quicksort?

Any ideas to make quicksort better? It still has worst-case O(n²)-time.

Recall that worst-case for randomized algorithms allows the adversary to control the randomness.

We can borrow ideas from select_k and instead partition around the median of medians.



The **majority element problem** is the following: Given an input list A, find the element that occurs at least [n/2] + 1 times, provided one exists.

Try to solve the same

Input accepts a list A and its length n.

Try to solve the same problem, but return NIL when one doesn't exist.



The **majority element problem** is the following: Given an input list A, find the element that occurs at least $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1$ times, provided one exists.

Let's assume n is a power of 2 since dealing with this edge case

isn't the point of the example.

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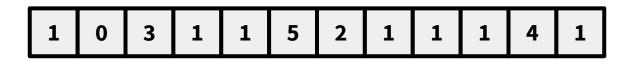
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Additionally, suppose we can only perform the equals operation on the list, which accepts two values **a** and **b** and returns True if **a** equals **b**; otherwise returns False.



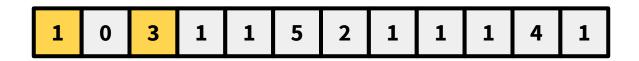
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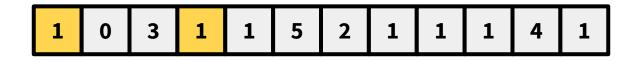
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equals(A[0], A[2]) returns False equals(A[0], A[3]) returns True equals(A[0], 1) returns True

We will visit two solutions to this problem.

The first will be a divide-and-conquer algorithm; the second will be a randomized algorithm.

The divide-and-conquer approach ...

Recursive calls should return the majority element of a list's sublists.

How might we merge two majority elements into a single majority element for this list?

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Key insight: (**Lemma 1**) The majority element of entire list (if it exists) must be the same as the majority element as **one of** the sublists (otherwise it would occur at most $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ times).

Proof by contradiction:

If element x is not the majority element for either sub-list, then: $count_{eft}(x) \le n_{eft}/2$ and $count_{eft}(x) \le n_{eft}/2$; thus $count(x) = count_{eft}(x) + count_{eft}(x) \le n_{eft}/2 + n_{eft}/2 = n/2$ As a result, x can not possibly be the majority element of the whole list.

```
algorithm majority element(A):
 # divide and conquer
                                      int division
  n = length(A), mid = (n-1)/2
  if n <= 1:
    return A[0]
  m1 = majority_element(A[0:mid])
  m2 = majority element(A[mid+1:n-1])
  count = 0
  for a in A:
    if equals(m1, a): count += 1
  if count >= |n/2|+1: return m1
  else: return m2
```

Runtime: O(nlogn)

Recurrence: T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)

Count the number of calls to equals.

Theorem: majority_element correctly finds the majority element of **A**, provided one exists.

Proof:

We proceed by induction on i, such that the size of input list is 2ⁱ

Our base case, when i = 0, is trivially satisfied since majority_element returns A[0].

Suppose when k=i-1, the majority_element is correct for inputs of length 2^{i-1} . Now consider k=i where the size of input list 2^i . The algorithm splits the list into two equal-size sub-lists $A[0:2^{i-1}-1]$ and $A[2^{i-1}:2^i-1]$. According to Lemma 1, the majority element of the entire array, if it exists, must be the majority element of at least one of $A[0:2^{i-1}-1]$ or $A[2^{i-1}:2^i-1]$; otherwise it would occur at most [n/2] times, where $n=2^i$ is the length of the original list. Then the algorithm checks which one of these is the majority element and returns it correctly.

Since the majority_element is called on the entire array, it can correctly find it, given that one exists.

The randomized approach ...

Think about low-hanging fruit: will an algorithm similar to bogosort work?

The randomized approach ...

Think about low-hanging fruit: will an algorithm similar to bogosort work?

Choose a random index from 1 to n.

Is the element at that index the majority element?

```
algorithm majority_element(A):
    # randomized
while True:
    i = random_int(0, n-1) # random int {0,...,n-1}
    count = 0
    for a in A:
        if equals(A[i], a): count += 1
    if count >= n/2+1: return A[i]
```

Runtime

Expected: 9 Worst-case: 9

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```

Runtime

Expected: O(n) Worst-case: O(∞)

Expected Runtime of Majority Element

Provided there exists a majority element, this element must occur at least |n/2| + 1 times.

Let X be a geometric random variable for which success corresponds to finding the majority element; otherwise, failure.

Since the algorithm finds the majority element with p > 1/2,

E[# iterations through the while loop] = 1/p < 2.

Each iteration requires n equals queries, so the expected runtime is O(n).

Divide and Conquer Runtime

Randomized Runtime

Expected & Worst-case: O(nlogn)

Expected: O(n) Worst-case: O(∞)



The philosophy of trade-off: We trade off between a much better runtime and a much worse runtime, but it will worth the risk if the probability of getting the much better runtime is very high.

Get Hyped!

The randomized algorithmic paradigm appears everywhere in computer science.

You will see it frequently in the following topics such as graph algorithms!

(Optional Advanced topic)

Our next example of a randomized algorithm is quickselect.

You've actually seen it before.

Select the k-th smallest element from a given list.

```
algorithm quick_select(list A, k):
  if length(A) == 1: return A[0]
  p = random choose pivot(A)
  L, A[p], R = partition(A, p)
  if length(L) == k:
    return A[p]
  else if length(L) > k:
    return quick select(L, k)
  else if length(L) < k:</pre>
    return quick select(R, k-length(L)-1)
```

Runtime: O(n²)

```
algorithm quick_select(list A, k):
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```

I didn't give you the entire story ...

Runtime: O(n²)

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```

Runtime

Think of this as the adversary chooses the randomness.

Expected: O(n) Worst-case: O(n²)



How do we know the expected runtime of quickselect is O(n)?

Let's refer to how we bounded the worst-case runtime for select_k with smartly_choose_pivot!

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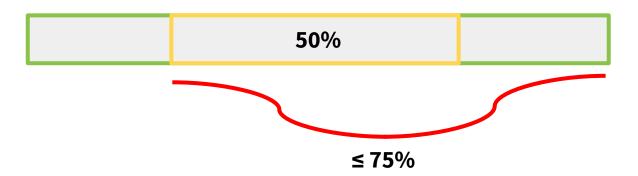
select_k with smartly_choose_pivot upper-bounds the length of the list on which it recurses with 7n/10+c.

Here, let's estimate the expected runtime of shrinking the length of the list to, say, 75% of the original length.

Let's define one "phase" of quickselect to be when it decreases the length of the input list to 75% of the original length or less.

Why 75%?

Selecting a pivot in the middle 50% of all list values guarantees that the length of the input list decreases to below 75%.



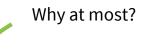
A phase ends as soon as quickselect picks a pivot in the middle 50% of values.

If we number the phases 0, 1, 2, ...

Why at most?

in phase k, the length of the list is at most $n(3/4)^k$ and the last phase is numbered $\lceil \log_{4/3} n \rceil$.

If we number the phases 0, 1, 2, ...



in phase k, the length of the list is at most $n(3/4)^k$ and the last phase is numbered $\lceil \log_{4/3} n \rceil$.

Let X_k be a random variable equal to the number of recursive calls in phase k, and W be a random variable equal to the runtime.

The runtime of phase k is at most $X_k \cdot cn(3/4)^k$, so:

$$W \le \sum_{k=0}^{\lceil \log_{4/3} n \rceil} X_k \cdot cn(3/4)^k = cn \sum_{k=0}^{\lceil \log_{4/3} n \rceil} X_k \cdot (3/4)^k$$

And the expected runtime must be:

$$E[W] \le E[cn \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} X_k \cdot (3/4)^k]$$

Simplifying the expression gives ...

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{E}[\mathsf{W}] &\leq \mathsf{E}[\mathsf{cn} \sum_{k=0}^{\lceil \log_{4/3} n \rceil} \mathsf{X}_k \cdot (3/4)^k] \\ &= \mathsf{cn} \cdot \mathsf{E}[\sum_{k=0}^{\lceil \log_{4/3} n \rceil} \mathsf{X}_k \cdot (3/4)^k] \\ &= \mathsf{cn} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{\lceil \log_{4/3} n \rceil} \mathsf{E}[\mathsf{X}_k \cdot (3/4)^k] \\ &= \mathsf{cn} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{\lceil \log_{4/3} n \rceil} \mathsf{E}[\mathsf{X}_k](3/4)^k \end{split}$$
 The important part: How might we solve for $\mathsf{E}[\mathsf{X}_k]$?

How might we solve for $E[X_k]$?

Recall X_k represents a random variable equal to the number of recursive calls in phase k.

Since all pivot choices are independent, we have a geometric random variable with probability of success of ≥1/2 (since a phase ends as soon as quickselect picks a pivot in the middle 50% of values).



The first trial, probability of success is 1/2. If it fails, then the probability of success will be > 1/2 thereafter.

How might we solve for $E[X_k]$?

Recall X_k represents a random variable equal to the number of recursive calls in phase k.

Since all pivot choices are independent, we have a geometric random variable with probability of success of $\geq 1/2$ (since a phase ends as soon as quickselect picks a pivot in the middle 50% of values). $E[X_k] \leq 1/(1/2) = 2$.

Simplifying the expression gives ...

$$E[W] \le cn \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{\lceil \log_{4/3} n \rceil} E[X_k](3/4)^k$$

$$\le cn \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2(3/4)^k$$
This is the hard part, and it's a useful skill.
$$= 8cn$$

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$$= 0(n)$$

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Expected: O(n) Worst-case: O(n²)

Summary

Randomized Algorithms

Bogo Sort Quick Sort Majority Element Quick Select

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Acknowledgement: Part of the materials are adapted from Mary Wootter, Virginia Williams and David Eng's lectures on algorithms. We appreciate their contributions.