

Week12 Randomness

Randomness is basically an ingredient that we can add to our algorithm.

Usage of Random decisions:

- Sample a large population / dataset — training model (eg. Machine Learning)
- Avoid pathological worst-case instance for the algorithm you design — eg. Quick sort (bad performance in pathological input)

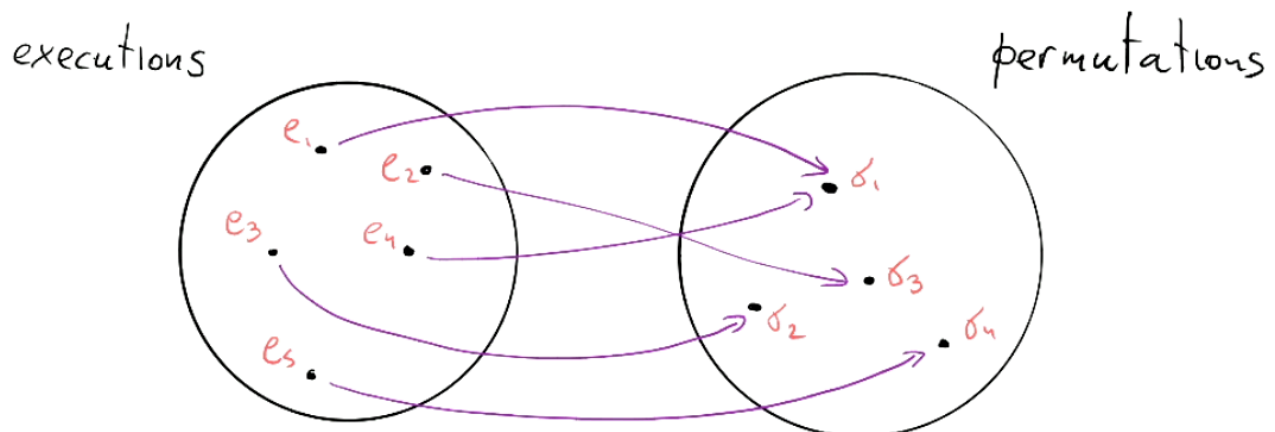
Generating Random Permutation on given input

- can be used in shuffle instance
- sample things from large population — pick up small branch from shuffled given dataset

First (Incorrect) sample on lecture slides

```
def shuffle(a):  
    # permute array A in place  
    n <- len(A)  
    for i in {0, ..., n-1} do  
        # Swap A[i] with random position  
        j <- pick uniformly and random (UAR) from {0, ..., n-1}  
        a[i], a[j] <- a[j], a[i]
```

When we compute, there are several execution of this algorithm that will depend on this random random number j . So different execution will lead to different outcome (we call it different permutation).



Those random decision made by algorithm and assigned to j , it maps deterministically to a certain output (or permutation). (from e_i to b_i on the graph) And, after that, all steps of the algorithm is deterministic.

In our case, all of those execution are equally likely (each number in $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$ has equally likely to be picked and assigned to j). Because we are saying that we are picking number UAR (uniformly and random). There is no bias when j is picked from $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$.

Then, what we want is two different permutation will have the same number of executions producing them. Otherwise, it wouldn't be a uniformed distribution of generating permutation.

Let's see if there are same number of executions are mapped to all different permutations.

Number of executions:

For each iteration of the for loop we need to pick index j . So for the first iteration, we have n chooses to pick j , second iteration, we also have n chooses to pick j etc. For each iteration, we have same amount of choose to pick j .

Therefore, there are n^n executions.

How many different available permutations we have on each iteration? $n, n-1, n-2, \dots, 3, 2, 1, 0$

Total permutations may generate : $1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * n = n!$

If these algorithm was an algorithm produce permutation uniformly and randomly. Then we will need to divide the number of execution evenly into our number of outcomes (permutations).

$n^n \% n!$ is not integer

Corrected version:

```
def shuffle(a):
    # permute array A in place
    n <- len(A)
    for i in {0, ..., n-1} do
        # Swap A[i] with the random position in front of i
        j <- pick uniformly and random (UAR) from {i, ..., n-1}
        a[i], a[j] <- a[j], a[i]
```

The Fisher Yates shuffle

It takes an array A and applies permutation to a chosen uniformly and random. And every execution of this algorithm is equally likely.

Proof:

- Every execution of the algorithm happens with probability $1/n!$.
 - Each execution leads to a different outcome.
 - \Rightarrow Therefore the Probability of the Fisher Yates applies on a given permutation σ is $1/n!$:
 - $\Pr[Fy_{applies} \sigma] = 1/n!$, and this is true for any permutation σ of $\{1, \dots, n\}$
-

Finding Prime Numbers

Def: an integer $p \Rightarrow 2$ is a prime if its only divisors are 1 and itself.

Finding large primes is an important primitive use in most modern public cryptography systems

- "Large" means that n has some prescribed number of bit, e.g. 1000bits
- this is the example how randomness lead to pretty elegant algorithm
- Used in pseudo random generator

Distribution of Primes:

Number of theories proved that prime numbers are plentiful.

Theme: Let $\pi(n)$ be the number of primes that are $\leq n$, then the number of prime number is $\pi(n) = \theta(n/\log n)$

- In another word, pick $\log n$ numbers from the given set, we can find one prime number in average.
- An integer n chosen UAR from $\{1, \dots, n\}$ has a $\theta(1/\log n)$ chance of being prime.
- If we can test primality, we are done!

```
def find_prime(n):
    do:
        n <- pick UAR from {1, ..., n}
    repeat until is_prime(n)
    return n
```

Let $T(n)$ be running time of `is_prime` then the expected running time of `find_prime` is $O(T(n)\log n)$

Testing primality

Rabin-miller primality testing algorithm is a randomized algorithm for testing primality has bounded error.

Given n and k ,

- if n is prime, `RM(n)` always returns `TRUE`
- if n is composite, `RM(n)` return:
 - `TRUE`, with $1/4^k$
 - `FALSE`, otherwise

```
# Robin-miller
def witness(x,n):
    # try to check if n is composite
    write n-1 as 2^k*m for m odd
    y <- x^m mod n
    if y mod n = 1 then
        return True # n is probably prime
    for i in {1,...,k-1} do
        if y mod n = n-1 then
            return True # n is probably prime
        y <- y^2 mod n
    return False # n is definitely composite
```

The property of this algorithm has is that:

- If $n > 2$ is composite there are $\leq (n-1)/4$ values of x such that $witness(x, n) = \text{TRUE}$
- If $n > 2$ is prime then for all values of x we get $witness(x, n) = \text{TRUE}$
- If we pick x UAR then:
 - $\Pr[witness(x, n) = \text{TRUE} \mid n \text{ is prime}] = 1$
 - $\Pr[witness(x, n) = \text{TRUE} \mid n \text{ is composite}] \leq 1/4$

Treap

In Assignment 5 given $\{(v_i, p_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, you have to build a binary tree that was at once:

- BST with respect to v_i

- have heap property with respect to p_i

Advanced student had to design an algorithm for inserting a new item (v,p) in $O(n)$ time, where n is tree height.

Theme: If p_i is chosen UAR from $[0,1]$ then for a Trip on $\{(v_i, p_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ we have:

$$E[Treap_height] = \theta(\log n)$$

Therefor we can get a balanced BST with a very simple data structure

```
def insert_balanced_BST(v):
    p <- pick UAR from [0,1]
    insert_treap(v,p)
```

- Random priory key is chosen on the fly
- Obs: Insert takes expected $O(\log n)$ time

Treap height

Suppose we sorted values so that $v_1 \leq v_2 \leq \dots \leq v_n$

v_i ending up at the root of Treap is only depends on the priority you get. And you need to get the smallest primority for v_i and that is the only way you can let v_i end up at the root.

Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr[v_i \text{ get the smalles priority}] \\ &= \Pr[v_i \text{ is the root}] \\ &= 1/n \end{aligned}$$

, cause each priority value will be pick equally likely.

When v_i is the root, that implies that from $v_1 \dots v_{i-1}$ are on the left subtree of v_i , and else goes to the right. Picking perfect $v_i = n/2$ has really small probability, only $1/n$. However, landing in the middle of this range from $1 \dots n$ (the root v_i is in range $v_{n/4}, \dots, v_{3n/4}$) is $1/2$. Therefore, the resulted Treap is sort or balanced. Most nodes are fairlt balanced.

Neither left nor right from root has $3n/4$ of the elements with hight probability.

$$\Pr[\text{root} \in \{v_{n/4}, \dots, v_{3n/4}\}] = 1/2$$

