

Prof. Dr. Sebastian Wild

# **Outline**

# **7** Randomization Basics

- 7.1 Motivation
- 7.2 Randomized Selection
- 7.3 Recap of Probability Theory
- 7.4 Computing with Randomness
- 7.5 Classification of Randomized Algorithms
- 7.6 Tail Bounds and Concentration of Measure

# 7.1 Motivation

# **Computational Lottery?**

- ▶ If we are faced with solving an NP-hard problem and known smart algorithms are too slow, we likely have to compromise on what "solving" means.
- ► Classical algorithms are *always* and *exactly* correct.
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- $\P$  A *deterministic* algorithm A that fails on input x will *always* fail for x.
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  - ▶ Must use a form of *nondeterminism*.
- ► *Randomization:* Use *random bits* to guide computation.
- → Instead of always failing on some rare inputs, we rarely fail on any input.

can make this arbitrarily rare

# Why Could Randomization Help?

- ► Main intuitive reason: (can be) much easier to be 99.999999% correct than 100% How can this manifest itself?
  - Faster and simpler algorithms
     Random choice can allow to sidestep tricky edge cases
  - ► We can use **fingerprinting** (a.k.a. checksums) has line to the correct, but sometimes wrong.
  - ► Protect against **adversarial inputs**We make our (algorithm's) behavior unpredictable, so it us harder to exploit us.

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  - Protect against adversarial inputs
     We make our (algorithm's) behavior unpredictable, so it us harder to exploit us.
- ► Also: *probabilistic method* for proofs
  - ▶ Goal: Prove existence of discrete object with some property
  - ► Idea: Design randomized algorithm to find one
  - → If algorithm succeeds with prob. > 0, object must exist!

Ramsey theory

complete graph on a vertice)



Claim:

3 monochomatic ligur of size 3,R(n)

R(n) = lg n

# Average-Case Analysis

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  ( oblavious adversary

  ( can't see random bits)

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Confusingly enough, the analysis (technique) is often the same!

But: Implications are quite different; randomization is much more versatile and robust.

# **Separation Example**

- ▶ Before we introduce randomization more formally, let's see a successful example
- ► Here, not a "hard" problem, but a showcase where randomization makes something possible that is *provably*

# **Introductory Example – Quickselect**

### Selection by Rank

► **Given:** array A[0..n) of numbers and number  $k \in [0..n)$ .

- but 0-based & /counting dups
- ▶ **Goal:** find element that would be in position k if A was sorted (kth smallest element).
  - ▶  $k = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$   $\longrightarrow$  median;  $k = \lfloor n/4 \rfloor$   $\longrightarrow$  lower quartile k = 0  $\longrightarrow$  minimum;  $k = n \ell$   $\longrightarrow$   $\ell$ th largest

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```
procedure quickselect(A[0..n), k):

l := 0; r := n

while r - l > 1

b := \frac{\text{random}}{\text{pivot from } A[l..r)}

j := \text{partition}(A[l..r), b)

if j \ge k then r := j - 1

if j \le k then l := j + 1

return A[k]
```

simple algorithm: determine rank of random element, recurse
over random choices

but 0-based &

/counting dups

- $\rightsquigarrow$  O(n) time in expectation
- ▶ worst case:  $\Theta(n^2)$
- O(n) also possible deterministically, but algorithms is more involved

median of medians

## A closer look at Selection

While all within  $\Theta(n)$ , we do get a strict separation for selecting the median.

# Theorem 7.1 (Bent & John (1985))

Any **deterministic** comparison-based algorithm for finding the median of n elements uses at least 2n - o(n) comparisons in the worst case.

Proof omitted.

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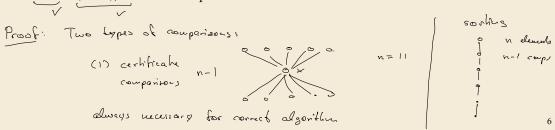
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The following weaker result is easier to see:

## Theorem 7.2 (Blum et al. (1973))

Any <u>deterministic</u> comparison-based algorithm for finding the median of n elements uses at least  $n-1+(n-1)/2 \sim 1.5n$  comparisons in the worst case.



# A Median Adversary

(2) "nouecsential" comparisons

Proof (Theorem 7.2):

(mot part of certificate)

in particular, comparion, between L and S

m = twe unedion  $L = \{x : x > unl \}$   $S = \{x : x < unl\}$ (|S|=|L|)

Giren a detuniuishie alsonthum A, we (the adversary) try to answer comparison queies by A in the least use ful way (for A)

if x and y not in some set, answer S<V</

Here: maîntain elements in 3 sets, S, L and U (undecided)

instally all in U

x, y e S } arbitrary answer

x, y e U x < y , put x b S , y ich L

=> created one non-essential cup for A

remove & elevents from U

=> = n-1 non-essential comparisons

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1 procedure floydRivest(A[\ell..r), k):
         n := r - \ell
        if n < n_0 return quickselect(A, k)
 3
        s := \frac{1}{2}n^{2/3}  \forall all numbers to be rounded
        sd := \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\ln(n)s(n-s)/n}
        S[0..s) := \text{random sample from } A
        \hat{k} := s \frac{k}{n}
        p := \text{floydRivest}(S, \hat{k} - sd)
        q := \text{floydRivest}(S, \hat{k} + sd)
        (i, j) := partition A around <math>p_0 and p_1
10
        if i == k return A[i]
11
        if j == k return A[j]
12
        if k < i return floydRivest(A[\ell..i), k)
13
        if k > j return floydRivest(A[j..r), k)
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        return floydRivest(A[i..j), k)
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- ► Variant of Quickselect with huge sample
- ► Analysis sketch:
  - ightharpoonup partition costs 1.5n comparisons



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  - $\rightarrow$  all recursive calls expected o(n) cost

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- $\sim$  Randomized median selection with 1.5*n* + *o*(*n*) comparisons
- → Separation from deterministic case!

# **Power of Randomness**

- ► Selection by Rank shows two aspects of randomization:
  - ► A simpler algorithm by avoiding edge cases (like an initial order giving bad pivots)
  - Protection against adversarial inputs
     (inputs constructed with knowledge about the algorithm)

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    constant factor for #cmps
- ▶ What can we gain for (NP-)hard problems?
- ▶ But first, let's define things properly.