


# Randomized Quicksort

# Admin

- Assignment 8 is due this Wed
  - My office hours: today 2-3.30 pm, tomorrow 3-5 pm
  - TA hours: today 3.30-5.30pm, 9-11pm; tomorrow 8-10 pm
- Grading feedback of HW 7 by tomorrow/Wed
  - HW 7 Solutions posted on GLOW in the meantime
- Health day: no Lecture on Friday 

# Randomized Algorithm I

## Min Cut (Wrap Up)

# Karger's Min Cut Algorithm

- Let  $P(n)$  denote the probability that the algorithm returns the correct min cut on an  $n$ -vertex graph on one iteration
- Showed that  $P(n) \geq 1/\binom{n}{2}$

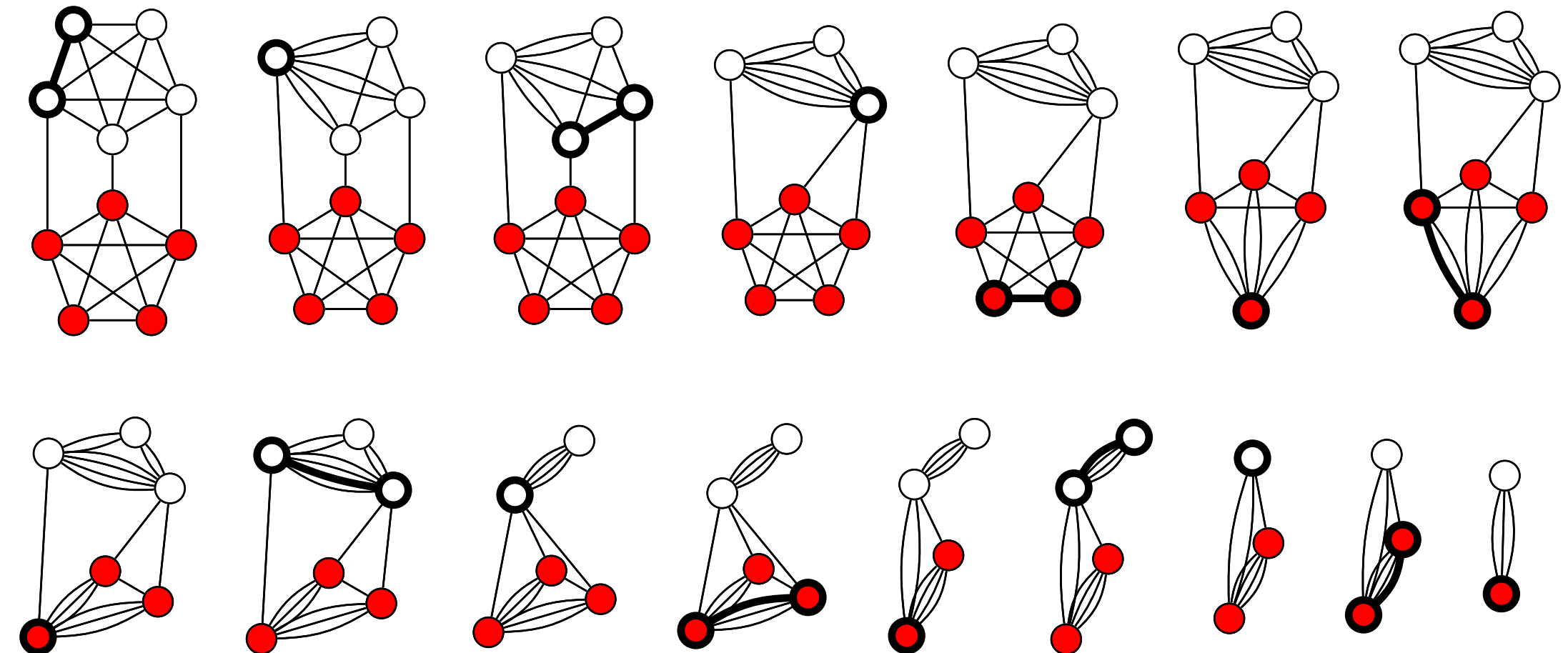
GUESSMINCUT( $G$ ):

  for  $i \leftarrow n$  downto 2

    pick a random edge  $e$  in  $G$

$G \leftarrow G/e$

  return the only cut in  $G$



# Amplifying Success Probability

- If we execute  $R = \binom{n}{2}$  times, the probability of failure is

- $\left(1 - 1/\binom{n}{2}\right)^{\binom{n}{2}}$  : how can we simplify this?

- $\leq \frac{1}{e}$

- If we set  $R = \binom{n}{2} c \ln n$ , the failure probability becomes polynomially

small in  $n$  :  $\left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{c \ln n} = \frac{1}{n^c}$

**Important Inequality:**

$$(1 - x) \leq \left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^x \text{ for } x \geq 1$$

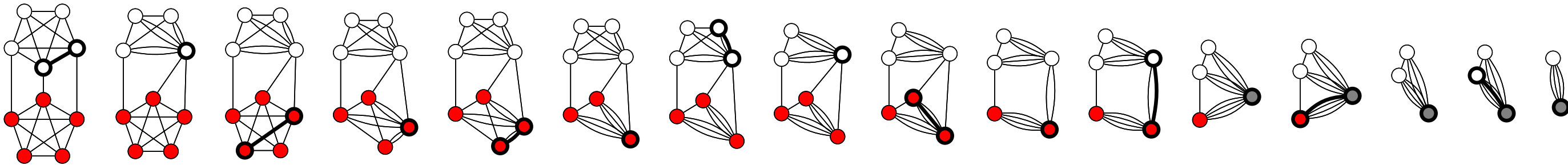
# With High Probability

- If we run the algorithm  $R = \binom{n}{2} c \ln n$  times, we can make the failure probability polynomially small in  $n$ :  $\left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{c \ln n} = \frac{1}{n^c}$
- Karger's algorithm finds the min-cut **with high probability (w.h.p.)**

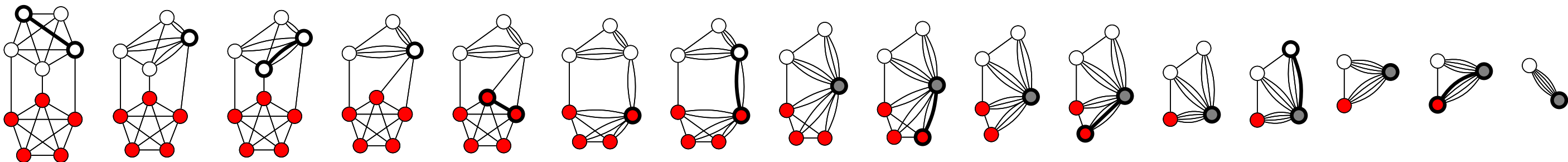
An algorithm is correct **with high probability (w.h.p.)** with respect to input size  $n$  if it fails with probability at most  $\frac{1}{n^c}$  for any constant  $c > 1$ .

# Example Execution

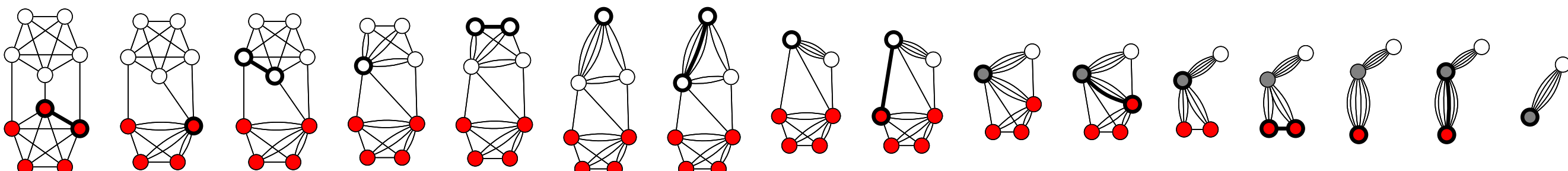
trial 1



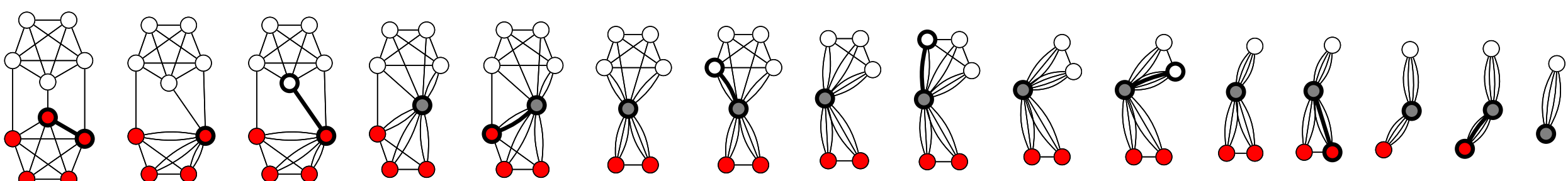
trial 2



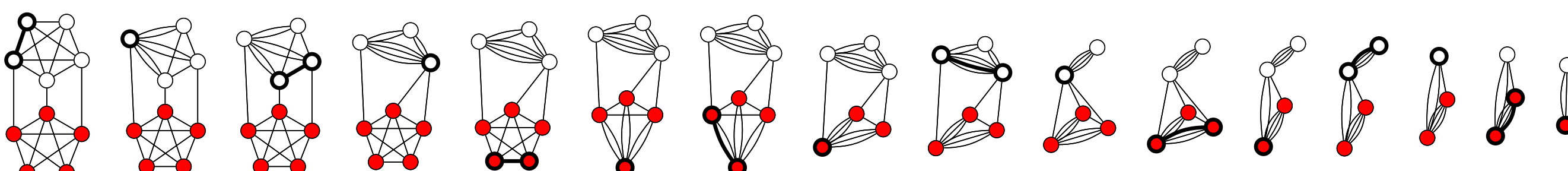
trial 3



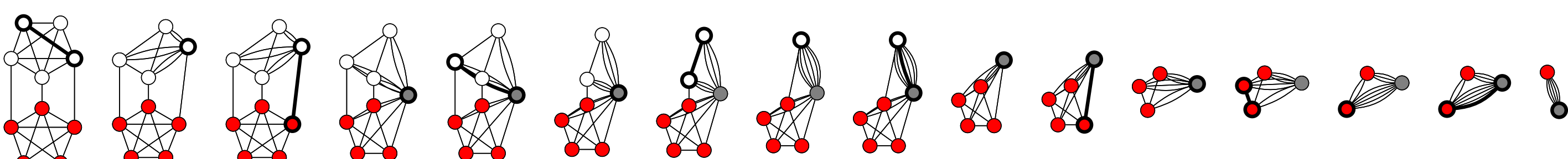
trial 4



trial 5  
(finds min cut)



trial 6



...

Reference: Thore Husfeldt



# Karger's Running Time

- Thus, Karger's algorithm finds the min-cut with high probability (w.h.p.)
- Running time: we perform  $\Theta(n^2 \log n)$  iterations, each  $O(n^2)$  time
  - $O(n^4 \log n)$  time
  - Similar to flow techniques, nothing to get excited about
- [Karger-Stein 1996] **Improves to**  $O(n^2 \log^3 n)$  by guessing cleverly!
- **Idea:** Improve the guessing algorithm using the observation:
  - As the graph shrinks, the probability of contracting an edge in the minimum cut increases
  - At first the probability is very small:  $2/n$  but by the time there are three nodes, we have a  $2/3$  chance of screwing up!



# Takeaways

- Karger's algorithm is an example of a "**Monte Carlo**" randomized algorithm
  - Find the correct answer most of the time
- You can increase the success rate of algorithms with one-sided errors by iterating it multiple times and taking the best solution
  - If the probability of success is  $1/f(n)$ , then running it  $O(f(n)\log n)$  times gives a high probability of success
- If you're more intelligent about how you iterate the algorithm, you can often do much better than this
- Next, we'll see an example of a "**Las Vegas**" algorithm
  - Randomized selection and quick sort

# Randomized Algorithms & Data Structures

- *Monte-Carlo algorithms*
  - Find the correct answer most of the time
  - Can usually amplify probability of success with repetitions
  - Example, Karger's min cut
- *Las-Vegas algorithms*
  - Always find the correct answer, e.g. RandQuick sort
  - But the running time guarantees are not worst (but hold in expectation or with high probability depending on the randomness)
- *Randomized data structures*: hashing, search trees, filters, etc.





# Randomized Algorithm II

## Randomized Selection

# Randomized Selection

- **Problem.** Find the  $k$ th smallest/largest element in an unsorted array
- Recall our selection algorithm

Select ( $A, k$ ):

If  $|A| = 1$ : return  $A[1]$

Else:

Choose a pivot  $p \leftarrow A[1, \dots, n]$ ; let  $r$  be the rank of  $p$

$r, A_{<p}, A_{>p} \leftarrow \text{Partition}((A, p))$

If  $k = r$ , return  $p$

Else if  $k < r$ : Select ( $A_{<p}, k$ )

Else: Select ( $A_{>p}, k - r$ )

# Selection with a Good Pivot

- Recall: pivot is “good” if it reduced the array size by at least a constant
  - Gives a recurrence  $T(n) \leq T(\alpha n) + O(n)$  for some constant  $\alpha < 1$
  - Expands to a decreasing geometric series  $T(n) = O(n)$
- In the deterministic algorithm, how did we find a good pivot?
  - Split array into groups of 5
  - And computed the median of group medians
  - The pivot guaranteed that  $n \rightarrow 7n/10$
- **Here is a silly idea:** What if we pick the pivot uniformly at random?
  - Seems like the pivot is “usually” around the midpoint
  - What is the expected running time?

# Randomized Selection

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Choose a pivot  $p \leftarrow A[1, \dots, n]$  uniformly at random; let  $r$  be the rank of  $p$

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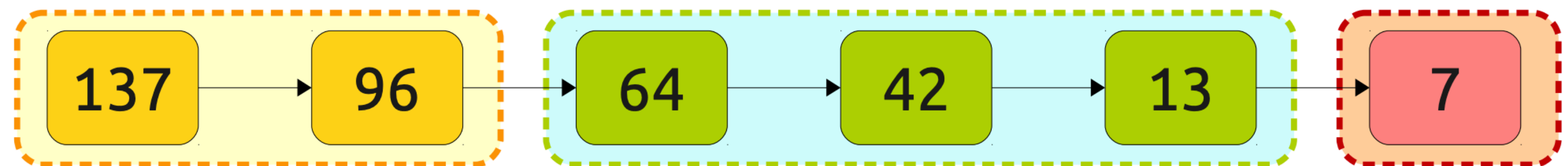
If  $k = r$ , return  $p$

Else if  $k < r$ : Select ( $A_{<p}, k$ )

Else: Select ( $A_{>p}, k - r$ )

# Analyzing Randomized Selection

- Normally, we'd write a recurrence relation for a recursive function
- A bit complicated now--- input size of later recursive call depends on the random choice of pivots in earlier calls
- We will use a different accounting trick for running time
- Randomized selection makes at most one recursive call each time:
  - Group multiple recursive call in “phases”
  - Sum of work done by all calls is equal to the sum of the work done in all the phases





# Analyzing in Phases

- **Idea:** let a “phase” of the algorithm be the time it takes for the array size to drop by a constant factor (say  $n \rightarrow (3/4) \cdot n$ )
- If array shrinks by a constant factor in each phase and linear work done in each phase, what would be the running time?
- $T(n) = c(n + 3n/4 + (3/4)^2n + \dots + 1) = O(n)$
- If we want a 1/4th, 3/4th split, what range should our pivot be in?
  - Middle half of the array (if  $n$  size array, then pivot in  $[n/4, 3n/4]$ )
  - What is the probability of picking such a pivot?
    - 1/2
- Phase ends as soon as we pick a pivot in the middle half
  - Expected # of recursive calls until phase ends? 2

# Expected Running Time

- Let the algorithm be in phase  $j$  when the size of the array is
  - At least  $n \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^j$  but not greater than  $n \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{j+1}$
- Expected number of iterations within a phase: 2
- Let  $X_j$  be the expected number of steps spent in phase  $j$
- $X = X_0 + X_1 + X_2 \dots$  be the total number of steps taken by the algorithm
- $E(X_j) = E(\# \text{ recursive calls until } j\text{th phase ends} \cdot \# \text{ steps in phase } j)$
- $E(X_j) \leq cn(3/4)^{j+1} \cdot E(\# \text{ recursive calls until } j\text{th phase ends}) = cn(3/4)^{j+1}$

# Expected Running Time

- Let  $X_j$  be the expected number of steps spent in phase  $j$
- $X = X_0 + X_1 + X_2 \dots$  be the total number of steps taken by the algorithm
- $E(X_j) = E(\# \text{ of iterations until } j\text{th phase ends} \cdot \# \text{ steps in phase } j)$
- $E(X_j) \leq n(3/4)^j \cdot E(\# \text{ iterations until } j\text{th phase ends}) = 2cn(3/4)^{j+1}$
- Now we can apply linearity of expectation:

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \quad E[X] &= \sum_j E[X_j] \leq \sum_j 2cn \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{j+1} = 2cn \sum_j \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{j+1} \\ &= \Theta(n) \end{aligned}$$

# Pivot Selection

- Deterministic and random both take  $O(n)$  time
  - What's the advantage of the deterministic algorithm?
  - Worst-case guarantee—the random algorithm could be very slow sometimes
  - What's the advantage of the random algorithm?
  - Much much simpler and better constants hidden in  $O()$
- Which should you use?
  - Pretty much always random
  - Question to ask yourself:
    - how often is the randomized algorithm going to be much worse than  $O(n)$ ?

# Randomized Algorithm III

## Randomized QuickSort

# Randomized Quicksort

- Recall deterministic Quicksort
- Depending on the choice pivot, could be  $O(n^2)$
- What if we pick the pivot uniformly at random?
  - We saw in that in randomized selection this lead to good pivots half the time

## **Quicksort( $A$ ):**

If  $|A| < 3$  : Sort( $A$ ) directly

Else: choose a pivot element  $p \leftarrow A$

$A_{<p}, A_{>p} \leftarrow$  Partition around  $p$

Quicksort( $A_{<p}$ )

Quicksort( $A_{>p}$ )

# Randomized Quicksort

- Intuitively half the pivots will be good, half bad
- We analyze quick sort using another accounting trick
- Total work done can be split into to types:
  - Work done making recursive calls (lower order term, turns out)
  - Work partitioning the elements
- How many recursive calls in the worst case?
  - Each time at least element in the smaller partition
  - $O(n)$



# Randomized Quicksort

- We thus need to bound the work partitioning elements
- Partitioning an array of size  $n$  around a pivot  $p$  takes exactly  $n - 1$  comparisons
- We won't look at partitions made in each recursive calls, which depend on the choice of random pivot
- **Idea:** Account for the total work done by the partition step by summing up the total number of comparisons made
- Two ways to count total comparisons:
  - Look at the size of arrays across recursive calls and sum
  - Look at all pairs of elements and count total # of times they are compared (easier to do in this case)

# Aside: Randomized Analysis

- Often multiple ways to determine a randomized algorithm's cost
- We can split into phases, or count the cost directly. We can calculate each probability, or use linearity of expectation
- Intrinsically some “cleverness” involved in choosing the way that gets you a clean answer
- In this class I'm going to try to ask you problems where there's a clear path to finding the solution (either it follows directly from the question, or I'll ask about problems you've seen before)
- That said, here's a very clever way to calculate Quicksort's running time

# Counting Total Comparisons

- Just for analysis, let  $B$  denote the sorted version of input array  $A$ , that is,  $B[i]$  is the  $i$ th smallest element in  $A$
- Define random variable  $X_{ij}$  as the number of times Quicksort compares  $B[i]$  and  $B[j]$
- Observation:  $X_{ij} = 0$  or  $X_{ij} = 1$ , why?
  - $B[i], B[j]$  only compared when one of them is the current pivot; pivots are excluded from future recursive calls
- Let  $T = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n X_{ij}$  be the total number of comparisons made by randomized Quicksort



# Expected Running Time

- **Goal:**  $E[T] = E \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n X_{ij} \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n E[X_{ij}]$
- $E[X_{ij}] = \Pr[X_{ij} = 1]$
- When is  $X_{ij} = 1$ ? That is, when are  $B[i]$  and  $B[j]$  compared?
- Consider a particular recursive call. Let rank of pivot  $p$  be  $r$ .
  - Let's think about where  $B[i], B[j]$  lie with respect to  $p$

# Expected Running Time

- Goal:  $E[T] = E \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n X_{ij} \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n E[X_{ij}]$
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- When is  $X_{ij} = 1$ ? That is, when are  $B[i]$  and  $B[j]$  compared?
- Consider a particular recursive call. Let rank of pivot  $p$  be  $r$ .
  - Case 1. One of them is the pivot:  $r = i$  or  $r = j$
  - Case 2. Pivot is between them:  $r > i$  and  $r < j$
  - Case 3. Both less than the pivot:  $r > i, j$
  - Case 4. Both greater than the pivot:  $r < i, j$

# Comparisons for Each Case

- **Case 1.**  $r = i$  or  $r = j$ 
  - $B[i]$  and  $B[j]$  are compared once and one of them is excluded from all future calls
- **Case 2.**  $r > i$  and  $r < j$ 
  - $B[i]$  and  $B[j]$  are both compared to the pivot but not to each other, after which they are in different recursive calls: will never be compared again
- **Case 3.**  $r > i, j$  and **Case 4.**  $r < i, j$ 
  - $B[i]$  and  $B[j]$  are not compared to each other, they are both in the same subarray and may be compared in the future
- **Takeaway:**  $B[i]$ ,  $B[j]$  are compared for the 1st time when one of them is chosen as pivot from  $B[i], B[i + 1], \dots, B[j]$  & never again

# Expected Running Time

- $\Pr[X_{ij} = 1] = \Pr(\text{one of them is picked as pivot from } B[i], B[i + 1], \dots, B[j])$

- $\Pr[X_{ij} = 1] = \frac{2}{j - i + 1}$

- $E[T] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n E[X_{ij}] = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n \frac{1}{j - i + 1}$



# Expected Running Time

- $B[i]$  and  $B[j]$  are compared iff one of them is the first pivot chosen from the range  $B[i], B[i + 1], \dots, B[j]$

- $\Pr[X_{ij} = 1] = \frac{2}{j - i + 1}$

- $E[T] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n E[X_{ij}] = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n \frac{1}{j - i + 1}$

- For fixed  $i$ , inner sum is  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{n - i + 1} \leq \sum_{\ell=2}^n \frac{1}{\ell} = O(\log n)$

- Thus, expected number of comparisons is:  
 $E[T] = O(n \log n + n) = O(n \log n)$

# Quick Sort Summary

- Las Vegas algorithms like Quicksort and Selection are always correct but their running time guarantees hold in expectation
- We can actually prove that the number of comparisons made by Quicksort is  $O(n \log n)$  **with high probability**
  - This means the the probability that the running time of quicksort **is more than a constant  $c$  factor away from its expectation** is very small (polynomially small: less than  $1/n^c$  for  $c \geq 1$ )
  - Whp bounds are called **concentration bounds**
  - Whp: ideal guarantees possible for a randomized algorithm

# Acknowledgments

- Some of the material in these slides are taken from
  - Kleinberg Tardos Slides by Kevin Wayne (<https://www.cs.princeton.edu/~wayne/kleinberg-tardos/pdf/04GreedyAlgorithmsI.pdf>)
  - Jeff Erickson's Algorithms Book (<http://jeffe.cs.illinois.edu/teaching/algorithms/book/Algorithms-JeffE.pdf>)