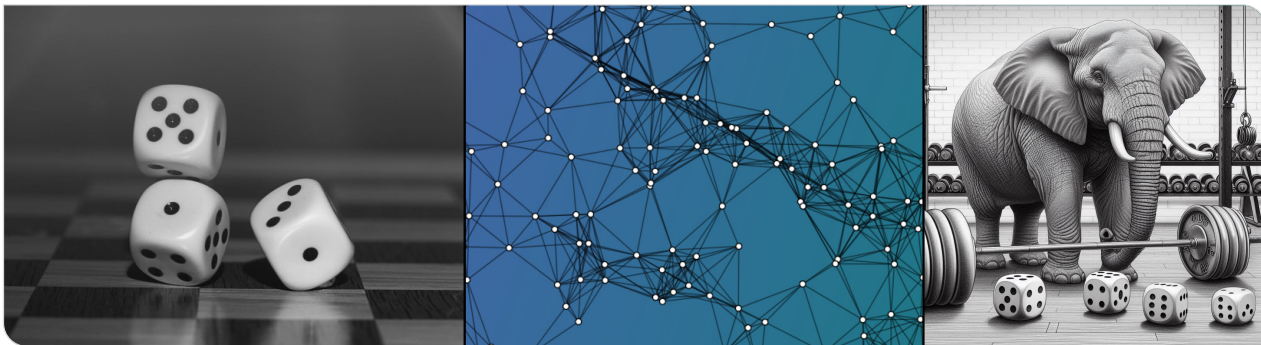


# Probability and Computing – The Power of Randomness

Stefan Walzer | WS 2024/2025



## 1. Organisation

## 2. The Power of Randomness

- Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time
- Model Performance in the Real-World – Average Case Analysis
- Achieve Load Balancing with Pseudorandomness
- Approximate in Sublinear Time using Random Sampling

## 3. Semester Outline

## 1. Organisation

## 2. The Power of Randomness

- Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time
- Model Performance in the Real-World – Average Case Analysis
- Achieve Load Balancing with Pseudorandomness
- Approximate in Sublinear Time using Random Sampling

## 3. Semester Outline

## Lecturer (this year + last year)

Dr. Stefan Walzer

likes randomised data structures



- lectures every Thursday, 11:30
- exercises every second Tuesday, 9:45
- Website: <https://ae.iti.kit.edu/4782.php>

### Discord Server

- discuss exercises
- ask questions
- find study groups
- report typos / mistakes



<https://discord.gg/ZQXUrQ7EPW>

## Lecturer (last year)

Dr. Max Katzmann

likes random geometric graphs



- oral exam
- literature:
  - Probability and Computing (Mitzenmacher + Upfal)
  - Randomised Algorithms (Motwani + Raghavan)
  - Modern Discrete Probability (Roch)

## Organisation

- one sheet published with each lecture
- one exercises session every two weeks  
⇒ two sheets per exercises session
- solutions provided after the exercise session
- optional, no hand-in, no grading. *But:*
- content of sheets relevant for exam
  - you may be asked to reproduce/rediscover solutions in the exam

## Recommendation

- **You should**, prior to the exercise session
  - **think about** the exercises or
  - **discuss** them in your study group.
- **You should do at least one of** the following
  - **solve** the exercises
  - **attend** the exercise sessions and follow along
  - **work through** the provided solutions
- **I hope** that some of you will
  - **present** your own solutions during sessions
  - **share/discuss** ideas on discord

## 1. Organisation

## 2. The Power of Randomness

- Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time
- Model Performance in the Real-World – Average Case Analysis
- Achieve Load Balancing with Pseudorandomness
- Approximate in Sublinear Time using Random Sampling

## 3. Semester Outline

## 1. Organisation

## 2. The Power of Randomness

- Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time
- Model Performance in the Real-World – Average Case Analysis
- Achieve Load Balancing with Pseudorandomness
- Approximate in Sublinear Time using Random Sampling

## 3. Semester Outline

# Can Randomness Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time?

it depends on what you mean by “worst case”...

## Worst Input & Worst Luck

Any random decision is the worst decision.

↪ randomness is useless.



# Can Randomness Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time?

it depends on what you mean by “worst case”...

## Worst Input & Worst Luck

Any random decision is the worst decision.

↪ randomness is useless.

## Finding Hay According to This View



# Can Randomness Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time?

it depends on what you mean by “worst case”...

## Worst Input & Worst Luck

Any random decision is the worst decision.  
↔ randomness is useless.

## Worst Input & Average Luck

Randomness *can* help. See next slide.

## Finding Hay According to This View



# Can Randomness Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time?

it depends on what you mean by “worst case”...

## Worst Input & Worst Luck

Any random decision is the worst decision.  
↔ randomness is useless.

## Finding Hay According to This View



## Worst Input & Average Luck

Randomness *can* help. See next slide.

↑ this is what we  
mean in the fol-  
lowing

## In other words:

- 1 We fix a randomised algorithm.
- 2 Adversary fixes an input.
- 3 Random choices made independently.

# Example 1: Finding an Empty Slot

## Task

**Input:** array  $A[1..n]$  where  $n/2$  slots are empty

**Output:**  $i \in [n]$  with  $A[i] = \text{EMPTY}$

$A =$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	x	z			y		w	

# Example 1: Finding an Empty Slot

## Task

**Input:** array  $A[1..n]$  where  $n/2$  slots are empty

**Output:**  $i \in [n]$  with  $A[i] = \text{EMPTY}$

## Observation

For any *deterministic* algorithm  $D$  there exists an input  $A$  such that  $D$  inspects  $\geq n/2$  entries of  $A$ .

$$A = \begin{array}{cccccccc} & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ & \boxed{x} & \boxed{z} & \boxed{\phantom{x}} & \boxed{\phantom{x}} & \boxed{y} & \boxed{\phantom{x}} & \boxed{w} & \boxed{\phantom{x}} \end{array}$$

# Example 1: Finding an Empty Slot

## Task

**Input:** array  $A[1..n]$  where  $n/2$  slots are empty

**Output:**  $i \in [n]$  with  $A[i] = \text{EMPTY}$

## Observation

For any *deterministic* algorithm  $D$  there exists an input  $A$  such that  $D$  inspects  $\geq n/2$  entries of  $A$ .

## Observation

The randomised algorithm  $R$  that inspects slots of  $A$  at random finds an empty slot after  $X$  attempts where

$$\mathbb{E}[X] \stackrel{\text{TSF}}{=} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}_0} \Pr[X > i] = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}_0} 2^{-i} = 2.$$

$$A =$$

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
x	z			y		w	

# Example 1: Finding an Empty Slot

## Task

**Input:** array  $A[1..n]$  where  $n/2$  slots are empty

**Output:**  $i \in [n]$  with  $A[i] = \text{EMPTY}$

## Observation

For any *deterministic* algorithm  $D$  there exists an input  $A$  such that  $D$  inspects  $\geq n/2$  entries of  $A$ .

## Observation

The randomised algorithm  $R$  that inspects slots of  $A$  at random finds an empty slot after  $X$  attempts where

$$\mathbb{E}[X] \stackrel{\text{TSF}}{=} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}_0} \Pr[X > i] = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}_0} 2^{-i} = 2.$$

$$A =$$

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
x	z			y		w	

## Note

- the analysis of  $R$  holds for *any input*
- “ $\mathbb{E}$ ” relates to choices of  $R$  (not to input)
- input is fixed *before* random choices

# Example 2 and 3: Verifying Identities

## Exercise: Verifying Polynomial Identities

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be two polynomial functions over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . For instance:

$$f(x) = (x + 1)(x - 2)(x + 3)(x - 4)(x + 5)(x - 6) \text{ and } g(x) = x^6 - 7x^3 + 25.$$

Check whether  $f \equiv g$  with a randomised algorithm!<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>The algorithm may occasionally accept incorrect identities. Precise statements on the exercise sheet.



## Example 2 and 3: Verifying Identities

### Exercise: Verifying Polynomial Identities

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be two polynomial functions over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . For instance:

$$f(x) = (x + 1)(x - 2)(x + 3)(x - 4)(x + 5)(x - 6) \text{ and } g(x) = x^6 - 7x^3 + 25.$$

Check whether  $f \equiv g$  with a randomised algorithm!<sup>1</sup>

### Exercise: Verifying Matrix Identities (Freivalds' Algorithm)

Let  $A, B, C \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$  be matrices over the field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Check whether  $A \cdot B = C$  with a randomised algorithm!<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>The algorithm may occasionally accept incorrect identities. Precise statements on the exercise sheet.

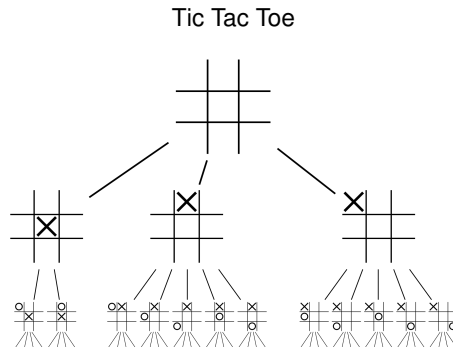
# Example 4: Evaluating Games

## Three Types of Game States

$\text{value}(S) = W$  // active player has winning strategy

$\text{value}(S) = L$  // inactive player has winning strategy

$\text{value}(S) = D$  // draw in optimal play



# Example 4: Evaluating Games

## Three Types of Game States

$\text{value}(S) = W$  // active player has winning strategy

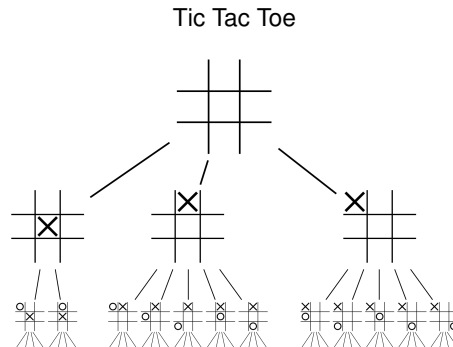
$\text{value}(S) = L$  // inactive player has winning strategy

$\text{value}(S) = D$  // draw in optimal play

## Task: Evaluating a Game

**Input:** (Implicit representation of) a game.

**Output:** value of start state.



# Example 4: Evaluating Games without Draws

## Three Types of Game States

$\text{value}(S) = W$  // active player has winning strategy

$\text{value}(S) = L$  // inactive player has winning strategy

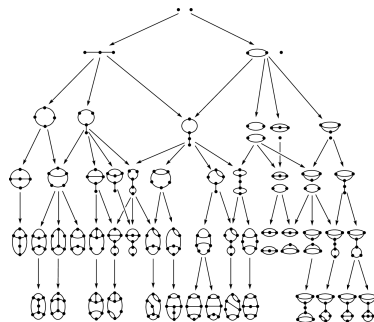
$\text{value}(S) = D$  // draw in optimal play

## Task: Evaluating a Game

**Input:** (Implicit representation of) a game.

**Output:** value of start state.

Game of Sprouts (see wikipedia)



# Example 4: Evaluating Games without Draws

## Three Types of Game States

$\text{value}(S) = W$  // active player has winning strategy

$\text{value}(S) = L$  // inactive player has winning strategy

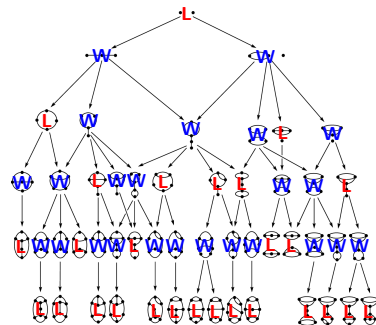
$\text{value}(S) = D$  // draw in optimal play

## Task: Evaluating a Game

**Input:** (Implicit representation of) a game.

**Output:** value of start state.

Game of Sprouts (see wikipedia)



# Example 4: Evaluating Games without Draws

## Three Types of Game States

$\text{value}(S) = 1 = W$  // active player has winning strategy

$\text{value}(S) = 0 = L$  // inactive player has winning strategy

$\text{value}(S) = D$  // draw in optimal play

## Task: Evaluating a Game

**Input:** (Implicit representation of) a game.

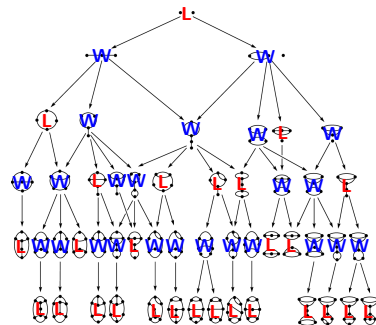
**Output:** value of start state.

## Observation

A state  $S$  is winning if and only if some successor state is losing.

$$\text{value}(S) = \overline{\bigwedge_{S' \text{ successor of } S} \text{value}(S')}.$$

Game of Sprouts (see wikipedia)



# Example 4: Evaluating Games without Draws

## Three Types of Game States

$\text{value}(S) = 1 = W$  // active player has winning strategy

$\text{value}(S) = 0 = L$  // inactive player has winning strategy

$\text{value}(S) = D$  // draw in optimal play

## Task: Evaluating a Game

**Input:** (Implicit representation of) a game.

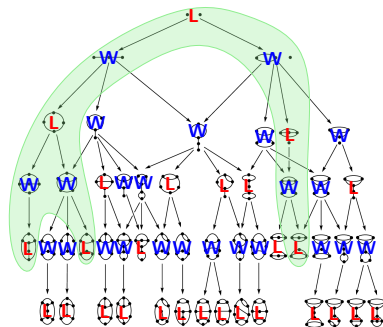
**Output:** value of start state.

## Observation

A state  $S$  is winning if and only if some successor state is losing.

$$\text{value}(S) = \overline{\bigwedge_{S' \text{ successor of } S} \text{value}(S')}.$$

Game of Sprouts (see wikipedia)



## Observation

May not have to inspect entire tree to derive value at root.

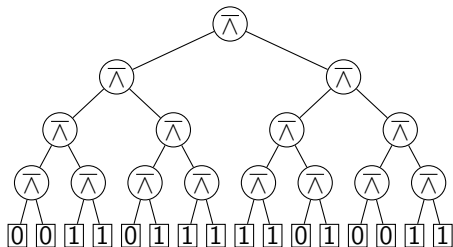
# Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\bar{\wedge}$ -Trees

## Problem

**Input:**  $I \in \{0, 1\}^n$  for  $n = 2^d$ .

**Output:** Value of complete binary  $\bar{\wedge}$ -tree with leaf values from  $I$ .

**Cost Model:** Number of inspected entries of  $I$ .





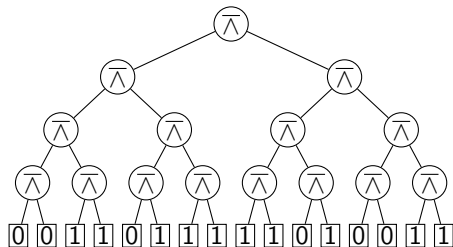
# Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\overline{\wedge}$ -Trees

## Problem

**Input:**  $I \in \{0, 1\}^n$  for  $n = 2^d$ .

**Output:** Value of complete binary  $\overline{\wedge}$ -tree with leaf values from  $I$ .

**Cost Model:** Number of inspected entries of  $I$ .



## Exercise

For any deterministic algorithm  $A$  there exists an input  $I_A \in \{0, 1\}^n$  such that  $A$  inspects all  $n$  entries of  $I$ .

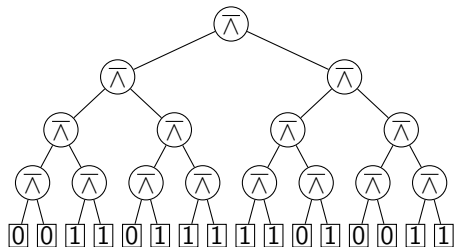
# Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\bar{\wedge}$ -Trees

## Problem

**Input:**  $I \in \{0, 1\}^n$  for  $n = 2^d$ .

**Output:** Value of complete binary  $\bar{\wedge}$ -tree with leaf values from  $I$ .

**Cost Model:** Number of inspected entries of  $I$ .



## Exercise

For any deterministic algorithm  $A$  there exists an input  $I_A \in \{0, 1\}^n$  such that  $A$  inspects all  $n$  entries of  $I$ .

## Our Goal

Randomised algorithm that, for any input, inspects only  $X$  entries with

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathcal{O}(n^{0.793}).$$

# Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\bar{\wedge}$ -Trees

**Algorithm** randEval( $T$ ):

if  $T = \text{Leaf}(b)$  then

└ return  $b$

$(T_0, T_1) \leftarrow T$

// coin flip:

sample  $r \sim \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\})$

$b_r \leftarrow \text{randEval}(T_r)$

if  $b_r = 0$  then

└ return 1

return  $1 - \text{randEval}(T_{1-r})$

## Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\bar{\wedge}$ -Trees

### Lemma

Assume randEval is executed for a tree  $T$  of depth  $d \geq 2$ . Let  $X$  be the number of resulting calls with subtrees of depth  $d - 2$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}[X] \leq 3$ .

**Algorithm** randEval( $T$ ):

**if**  $T = \text{Leaf}(b)$  **then**

**return**  $b$

$(T_0, T_1) \leftarrow T$

  // coin flip:

  sample  $r \sim \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\})$

$b_r \leftarrow \text{randEval}(T_r)$

**if**  $b_r = 0$  **then**

**return** 1

**return**  $1 - \text{randEval}(T_{1-r})$

# Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\overline{\wedge}$ -Trees

**Algorithm** randEval( $T$ ):

if  $T = \text{Leaf}(b)$  then

└ return  $b$

$(T_0, T_1) \leftarrow T$

// coin flip:

sample  $r \sim \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\})$

$b_r \leftarrow \text{randEval}(T_r)$

if  $b_r = 0$  then

└ return 1

return  $1 - \text{randEval}(T_{1-r})$

## Lemma

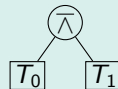
Assume randEval is executed for a tree  $T$  of depth  $d \geq 2$ . Let  $X$  be the number of resulting calls with subtrees of depth  $d - 2$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}[X] \leq 3$ .

## Proof.

Let  $T = (T_0, T_1) = ((T_{00}, T_{01}), (T_{10}, T_{11}))$ .

**Case 1:** value( $T$ ) = 1.

- Then value( $T_0$ ) = 0 or value( $T_1$ ) = 0.
- Assume (wlog) value( $T_0$ ) = 0.
- With probability 1/2 we select  $r = 0$  and  $T_1$  need not be evaluated.



$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X] \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 = 3.$$



# Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\overline{\wedge}$ -Trees

**Algorithm** randEval( $T$ ):

if  $T = \text{Leaf}(b)$  then

└ return  $b$

$(T_0, T_1) \leftarrow T$

// coin flip:

sample  $r \sim \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\})$

$b_r \leftarrow \text{randEval}(T_r)$

if  $b_r = 0$  then

└ return 1

return  $1 - \text{randEval}(T_{1-r})$

## Lemma

Assume randEval is executed for a tree  $T$  of depth  $d \geq 2$ . Let  $X$  be the number of resulting calls with subtrees of depth  $d - 2$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}[X] \leq 3$ .

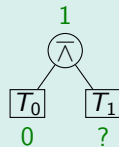
## Proof.

Let  $T = (T_0, T_1) = ((T_{00}, T_{01}), (T_{10}, T_{11}))$ .

**Case 1:** value( $T$ ) = 1.

- Then value( $T_0$ ) = 0 or value( $T_1$ ) = 0.
- Assume (wlog) value( $T_0$ ) = 0.
- With probability 1/2 we select  $r = 0$  and  $T_1$  need not be evaluated.

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X] \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 = 3.$$



# Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\overline{\wedge}$ -Trees

**Algorithm** randEval( $T$ ):

if  $T = \text{Leaf}(b)$  then

└ return  $b$

$(T_0, T_1) \leftarrow T$

// coin flip:

sample  $r \sim \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\})$

$b_r \leftarrow \text{randEval}(T_r)$

if  $b_r = 0$  then

└ return 1

return  $1 - \text{randEval}(T_{1-r})$

## Lemma

Assume randEval is executed for a tree  $T$  of depth  $d \geq 2$ . Let  $X$  be the number of resulting calls with subtrees of depth  $d - 2$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}[X] \leq 3$ .

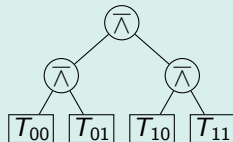
## Proof.

Let  $T = (T_0, T_1) = ((T_{00}, T_{01}), (T_{10}, T_{11}))$ .

**Case 2:** value( $T$ ) = 0.

- Then value( $T_0$ ) = value( $T_1$ ) = 1.
- Like before:  $T_{01}$  and  $T_{11}$  only evaluated with probability 1/2 each.

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X] \leq 2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 = 3.$$



# Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\overline{\wedge}$ -Trees

**Algorithm** randEval( $T$ ):

if  $T = \text{Leaf}(b)$  then

└ return  $b$

$(T_0, T_1) \leftarrow T$

// coin flip:

sample  $r \sim \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\})$

$b_r \leftarrow \text{randEval}(T_r)$

if  $b_r = 0$  then

└ return 1

return  $1 - \text{randEval}(T_{1-r})$

## Lemma

Assume randEval is executed for a tree  $T$  of depth  $d \geq 2$ . Let  $X$  be the number of resulting calls with subtrees of depth  $d - 2$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}[X] \leq 3$ .

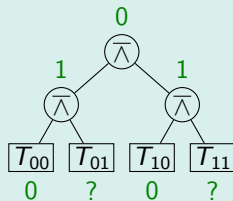
## Proof.

Let  $T = (T_0, T_1) = ((T_{00}, T_{01}), (T_{10}, T_{11}))$ .

**Case 2:** value( $T$ ) = 0.

- Then value( $T_0$ ) = value( $T_1$ ) = 1.
- Like before:  $T_{01}$  and  $T_{11}$  only evaluated with probability 1/2 each.

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X] \leq 2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 = 3.$$





# Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\bar{\wedge}$ -Trees

**Algorithm** randEval( $T$ ):

if  $T = \text{Leaf}(b)$  then

└ return  $b$

$(T_0, T_1) \leftarrow T$

// coin flip:

sample  $r \sim \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\})$

$b_r \leftarrow \text{randEval}(T_r)$

if  $b_r = 0$  then

└ return 1

return  $1 - \text{randEval}(T_{1-r})$

## Lemma

Assume randEval is executed for a tree  $T$  of depth  $d \geq 2$ . Let  $X$  be the number of resulting calls with subtrees of depth  $d - 2$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}[X] \leq 3$ .

## Corollary

Let  $T$  be a tree of depth  $d \in \{0, 2, 4, \dots\}$ , i.e.  $n = 2^d$ . The number  $L$  of leafs visited by randEval( $T$ ) satisfies

$$\underbrace{\mathbb{E}[L] \leq 3^{d/2}}_{\text{proof on blackboard}} = 4^{\log_4(3^{d/2})} = 4^{d/2 \log_4(3)} = 2^{d \log_4(3)} = n^{\log_4(3)}.$$

## 1. Organisation

## 2. The Power of Randomness

- Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time
- Model Performance in the Real-World – Average Case Analysis
- Achieve Load Balancing with Pseudorandomness
- Approximate in Sublinear Time using Random Sampling

## 3. Semester Outline

## Theory-Practice Gap

SAT is NP-complete  $\longleftrightarrow$  <sup>???</sup> modern SAT-solvers handle relevant instances with millions of clauses

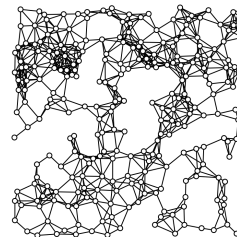
Similar observations for NP-hard graph problems on relevant graph classes, e.g. social networks.

# Average Case Analysis

## Theory-Practice Gap

SAT is NP-complete  $\longleftrightarrow$  <sup>???</sup> modern SAT-solvers handle relevant instances with millions of clauses

Similar observations for NP-hard graph problems on relevant graph classes, e.g. social networks.

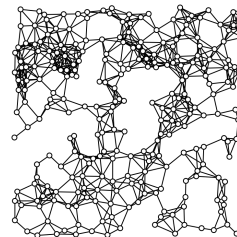


# Average Case Analysis

## Theory-Practice Gap

SAT is NP-complete  $\longleftrightarrow$  ??? modern SAT-solvers handle relevant instances with millions of clauses

Similar observations for NP-hard graph problems on relevant graph classes, e.g. social networks.



## Bridging the Gap

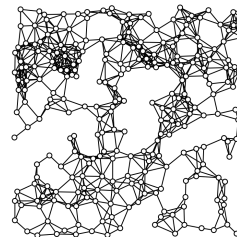
- 1 Define a distribution  $\mathcal{I}$  on inputs.
  - $\mathcal{I}$  should be realistic, i.e. model real world instances
  - $\mathcal{I}$  should have simple mathematical structure
- 2 Show that time to solve  $I \sim \mathcal{I}$  is small *in expectation*.

# Average Case Analysis

## Theory-Practice Gap

SAT is NP-complete  $\longleftrightarrow$  ??? modern SAT-solvers handle relevant instances with millions of clauses

Similar observations for NP-hard graph problems on relevant graph classes, e.g. social networks.



## Bridging the Gap

- 1 Define a distribution  $\mathcal{I}$  on inputs.
  - $\mathcal{I}$  should be realistic, i.e. model real world instances
  - $\mathcal{I}$  should have simple mathematical structure
- 2 Show that time to solve  $I \sim \mathcal{I}$  is small *in expectation*.

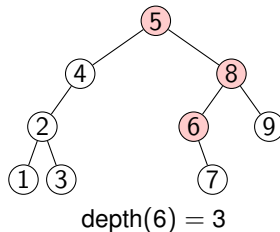
## Goals

- model real world instances
- identify useful properties of these instances
- build algorithms exploiting these properties

# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees

## Setting

Inserted  $1, \dots, n$  into search tree *in some order*.  
Consider: Depth of Element  $y \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .



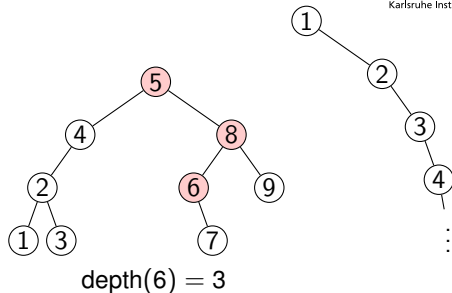
# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees

## Setting

Inserted  $1, \dots, n$  into search tree *in some order*.  
Consider: Depth of Element  $y \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .

## Worst Case

Sorted order:  $\text{depth}(y) = y$ .





# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees

## Setting

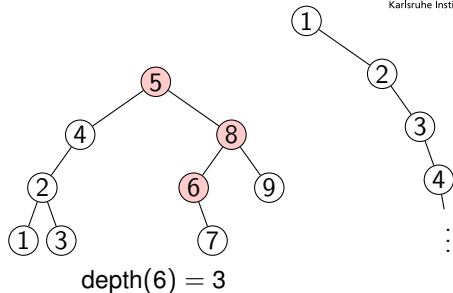
Inserted  $1, \dots, n$  into search tree *in some order*.  
Consider: Depth of Element  $y \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .

## Worst Case

Sorted order:  $\text{depth}(y) = y$ .

## Possible Observation

- Alice sees good performance in her setting.
- Can we explain why that might be?



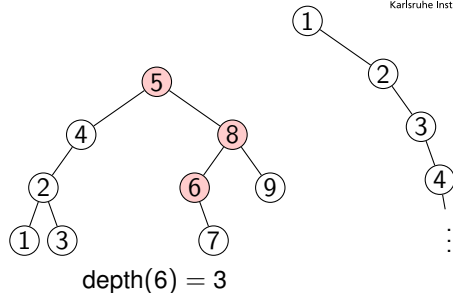
# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees

## Setting

Inserted  $1, \dots, n$  into search tree *in some order*.  
Consider: Depth of Element  $y \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .

## Worst Case

Sorted order:  $\text{depth}(y) = y$ .



## Possible Observation

- Alice sees good performance in her setting.
- Can we explain why that might be?

## Average Case Analysis

- 1 Model: Elements of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  are inserted in random order.  
↪ Note: May or may not reflect Alice's setting...
- 2 Goal: Show that  $y \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  has expected depth  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ .  
↪ Proved on next slide!

# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees – Analysis

## Lemma

For any  $x, y \in [n]$  :  $\Pr[E_{xy}] = \frac{1}{|y-x|+1}$ .

## Context

Elements  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  inserted into search tree in uniformly random order.

## Definition

Event  $E_{xy} = \{x \text{ is ancestor of } y\}$

//  $x$  counts as ancestor of  $x$

# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees – Analysis

## Lemma

For any  $x, y \in [n]$  :  $\Pr[E_{xy}] = \frac{1}{|y-x|+1}$ .

## Proof.

Assume wlog  $x < y$ .

□

## Context

Elements  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  inserted into search tree in uniformly random order.

## Definition

Event  $E_{xy} = \{x \text{ is ancestor of } y\}$

//  $x$  counts as ancestor of  $x$

# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees – Analysis

## Lemma

For any  $x, y \in [n]$ :  $\Pr[E_{xy}] = \frac{1}{|y-x|+1}$ .

## Proof.

Assume wlog  $x < y$ .

Let  $v$  be the element of  $\{x, \dots, y\}$  inserted first.

Note: All elements of  $\{x, \dots, y\}$  are descendants of  $v$ .



## Context

Elements  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  inserted into search tree in uniformly random order.

## Definition

Event  $E_{xy} = \{x \text{ is ancestor of } y\}$

//  $x$  counts as ancestor of  $x$

# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees – Analysis

## Lemma

For any  $x, y \in [n]$ :  $\Pr[E_{xy}] = \frac{1}{|y-x|+1}$ .

## Proof.

Assume wlog  $x < y$ .

Let  $v$  be the element of  $\{x, \dots, y\}$  inserted first.

Note: All elements of  $\{x, \dots, y\}$  are descendants of  $v$ .

Case 1:  $v = x$ . Then  $x$  is ancestor of  $y$ .

Case 2:  $v = y$ . Then  $y$  is ancestor of  $x$ .

Case 3:  $v \notin \{x, y\}$ . Then  $x$  is in left subtree of  $v$   
and  $y$  in right subtree of  $v$ .

□

## Context

Elements  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  inserted into search tree in uniformly random order.

## Definition

Event  $E_{xy} = \{x \text{ is ancestor of } y\}$

//  $x$  counts as ancestor of  $x$

# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees – Analysis

## Lemma

For any  $x, y \in [n]$ :  $\Pr[E_{xy}] = \frac{1}{|y-x|+1}$ .

## Proof.

Assume wlog  $x < y$ .

Let  $v$  be the element of  $\{x, \dots, y\}$  inserted first.

Note: All elements of  $\{x, \dots, y\}$  are descendants of  $v$ .

Case 1:  $v = x$ . Then  $x$  is ancestor of  $y$ .

Case 2:  $v = y$ . Then  $y$  is ancestor of  $x$ .

Case 3:  $v \notin \{x, y\}$ . Then  $x$  is in left subtree of  $v$   
and  $y$  in right subtree of  $v$ .

Hence  $E_{xy}$  occurs  $\Leftrightarrow x = v \Leftrightarrow$  Case 1.

Therefore:  $\Pr[E_{xy}] = \Pr[\text{Case 1}] = \frac{1}{|\{x, \dots, y\}|} = \frac{1}{y-x+1}$ .  $\square$

## Context

Elements  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  inserted into search tree in uniformly random order.

## Definition

Event  $E_{xy} = \{x \text{ is ancestor of } y\}$

//  $x$  counts as ancestor of  $x$

# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees – Analysis

## Lemma

For any  $x, y \in [n]$ :  $\Pr[E_{xy}] = \frac{1}{|y-x|+1}$ .

## Theorem

Let  $y \in [n]$  and  $l_y$  the depth  $y$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}[l_y] \leq 2 \ln(n) + 2$ .

## Context

Elements  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  inserted into search tree in uniformly random order.

## Definition

Event  $E_{xy} = \{x \text{ is ancestor of } y\}$

//  $x$  counts as ancestor of  $x$



# Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees – Analysis

## Lemma

For any  $x, y \in [n]$ :  $\Pr[E_{xy}] = \frac{1}{|y-x|+1}$ .

## Theorem

Let  $y \in [n]$  and  $l_y$  the depth  $y$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}[l_y] \leq 2 \ln(n) + 2$ .

## Proof.

We have  $l_y = \sum_{x \in [n]} \mathbb{1}_{E_{xy}}$ . Hence:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[l_y] &\stackrel{\text{lin.}}{=} \sum_{x \in [n]} \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_{E_{xy}}] = \sum_{x \in [n]} \Pr[E_{xy}] = \sum_{x \in [n]} \frac{1}{|y-x|+1} \\ &\leq 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} = 2 \cdot H_n \leq 2(\ln(n) + 1). \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

## Context

Elements  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  inserted into search tree in uniformly random order.

## Definition

Event  $E_{xy} = \{x \text{ is ancestor of } y\}$

//  $x$  counts as ancestor of  $x$

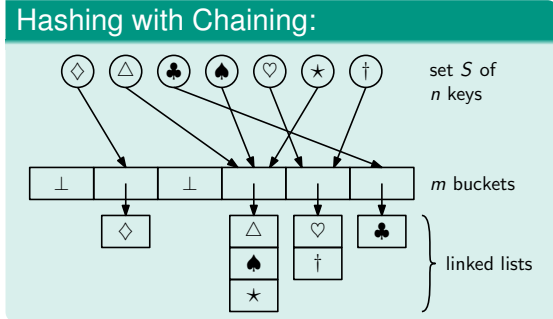
## 1. Organisation

## 2. The Power of Randomness

- Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time
- Model Performance in the Real-World – Average Case Analysis
- Achieve Load Balancing with Pseudorandomness
- Approximate in Sublinear Time using Random Sampling

## 3. Semester Outline

# Achieve Load Balancing with Pseudorandomness



### Stay Tuned!

- Linear Probing
- Cuckoo Hashing
- Bloom Filters
- Retrieval
- Perfect Hashing

## 1. Organisation

## 2. The Power of Randomness

- Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time
- Model Performance in the Real-World – Average Case Analysis
- Achieve Load Balancing with Pseudorandomness
- Approximate in Sublinear Time using Random Sampling

## 3. Semester Outline



## 1. Organisation

## 2. The Power of Randomness

- Improve (Worst-Case) Running Time
- Model Performance in the Real-World – Average Case Analysis
- Achieve Load Balancing with Pseudorandomness
- Approximate in Sublinear Time using Random Sampling

## 3. Semester Outline

# Semester Outline

## Tools from Probability Theory

- Concentration Bounds
- Random Coupling
- Yao's Principle
- Method of Bounded Differences

## Random Graph Models

- Erdős-Renyi Random Graphs
- Branching Processes
- Random Geometric Graphs

## Other Stuff

- Randomised Complexity Classes
- Probabilistic Method

## Algorithm Design

- Random Sampling
- Approximation Algorithms
- Streaming Algorithms
- Probability Amplification

## Randomised Data Structures

- Classic Hash Tables
- Cuckoo Hashing
- Bloom Filters
- Retrieval Data Structures
- Perfect Hash Functions

## Avoiding the Worst Case with Randomness – Example: $\bar{\Lambda}$ -Tree Evaluation

### Deterministic Algorithms:

- $\forall \text{Algo} : \exists \text{Input} : \text{Algo slow on Input.}$
- every algorithm is vulnerable to adversarial inputs

### Our Randomised Algorithm:

- On *any* input: fast in expectation.  
on any input: slow if unlucky.
- not vulnerable to adversarial inputs

## Average Case Analysis

- Model real world using probability distribution over inputs.
- In many cases random instances ...
  - ... are easier to solve than worst-case instances  
↔ NP-hard problems may be *easy on average*
  - ... admit simpler algorithms and data structures  
↔ e.g. search trees with random insertion order need no load balancing



# Anhang: Mögliche Prüfungsfragen I

- Können wir mithilfe von Zufall Laufzeiten im Worst-Case verbessern?
  - In welchem Sinne?
  - Was ist ein Beispiel?
- Wie kann man mit einem randomisierten Algorithmus eine Polynomgleichung überprüfen?
- Wie kann man mit einem randomisierten Algorithmus eine Matrixmultiplikation überprüfen?
- In Bezug auf die Auswertung von  $\overline{\wedge}$ -Bäumen:
  - Was war unser Optimierungsziel?
  - Was lässt sich mit deterministischen Algorithmen erreichen?
  - Wie funktioniert unser randomisierter Ansatz?
  - Welche Laufzeit hat er und warum?
- Was ist und was soll Average Case Analyse?
- Wie verhalten sich Suchbäume bei Einfügungen in zufälliger Reihenfolge?
  - Was gilt für die erwartete Tiefe eines Knotens und warum?