

Probability and Computing – The Power of Randomness

Stefan Walzer | WS 2025/2026



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

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3. Semester Outline

Lectures by

Dr. Stefan Walzer

likes elephants



- lectures every Thursday, 11:30
- exercises every second Tuesday, 9:45
- **exception: switched in first week**
- **Website:** <https://ae.itl.kit.edu/4994.php>
- **Ilias:** https://ilias.studium.kit.edu/goto_produkativ_crs_2777317.html
 - discuss exercises
 - ask questions
 - report typos / mistakes

Exercises by

Stefan Hermann



- 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
- **We hope** that some of you will
 - **present** your own solutions during sessions

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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.

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Randomness *can* help. See next slide.

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Worst Input & Average Luck

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↑ this is what we
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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	

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

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Observation

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

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

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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:

$$f(x) = (x^3 + 2x^2 - 5x - 6)(x^2 + x - 20)(x - 6) \text{ and } g(x) = x^6 - 7x^3 + 25.$$

Check whether $f \equiv g$ with a randomised algorithm!¹

¹The algorithm may occasionally accept incorrect identities. Precise statements on the exercise sheet.

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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!¹

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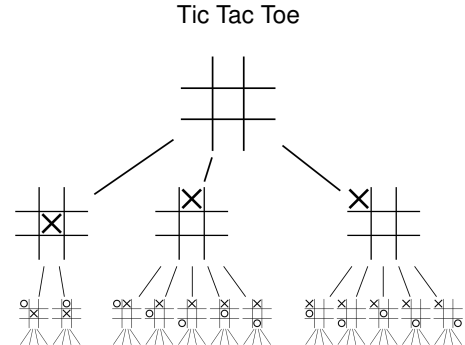
Example 4: Evaluating Games

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



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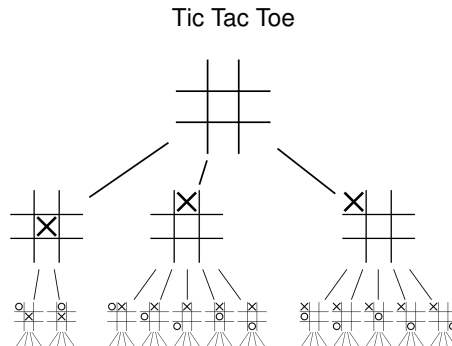
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Task: Evaluating a Game

Input: (Implicit representation of) a game.

Output: value of start state.



Example 4: Evaluating Games without Draws

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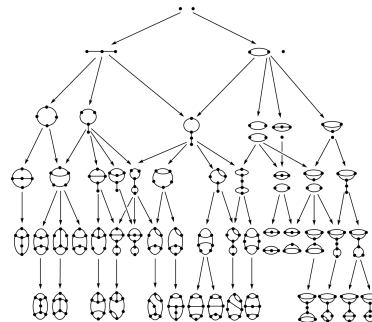
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Game of Sprouts (see wikipedia)



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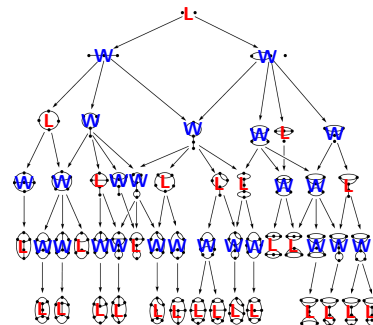
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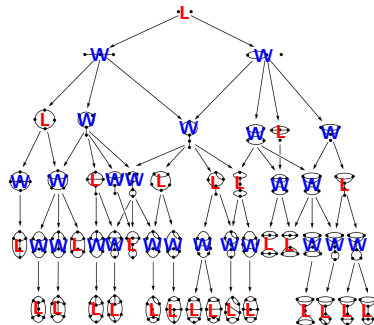
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Observation

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

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

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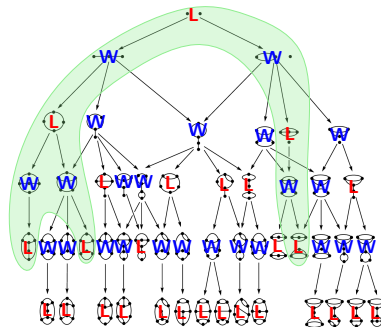
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Observation

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

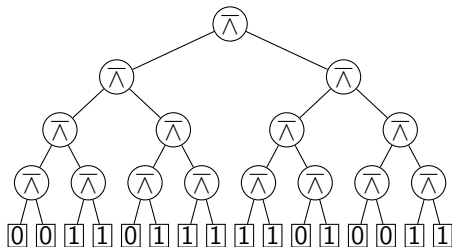
Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\overline{\wedge}$ -Trees

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 .



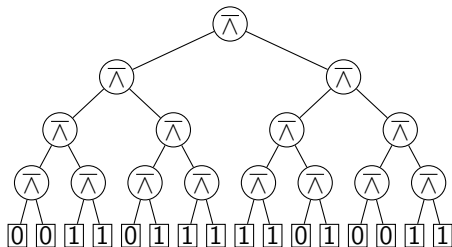
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For any deterministic algorithm A there exists an input $I_A \in \{0, 1\}^n$ such that A inspects all n entries of I .

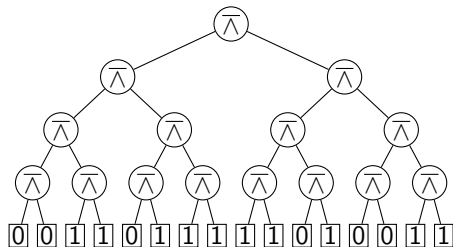
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Our Goal

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

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

Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\overline{\wedge}$ -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 $1 - \text{randEval}(T_{1-r})$

Example 4 Simplified: Evaluating $\overline{\wedge}$ -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 $\mathbb{E}[X] \leq 3$.

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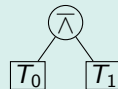
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Proof.

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



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



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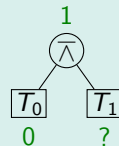
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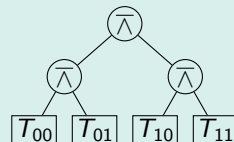
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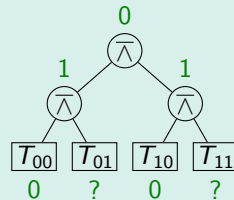
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Corollary

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

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

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Theory-Practice Gap

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

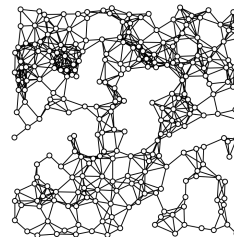
Similar observations for NP-hard graph problems on relevant graph classes, e.g. social networks.

Average Case Analysis

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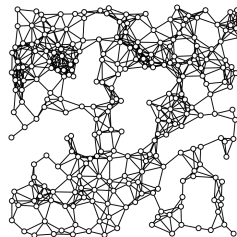


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Explaining the Gap

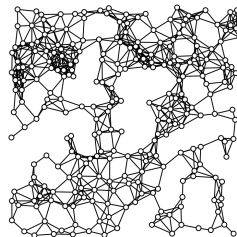
- 1 Define a distribution $\mathcal{I}$ on inputs.
 - $\mathcal{I}$ should be realistic, i.e. model real world instances
 - $\mathcal{I}$ should have simple mathematical structure
- 2 Show that time to solve $I \sim \mathcal{I}$ is small *in expectation*.

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Goals

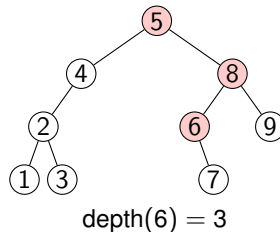
- model real world instances
- identify useful properties of these instances
- build algorithms exploiting these properties

Toy Example: Unbalanced Search Trees

Setting

Inserted $1, \dots, n$ into search tree *in some order*.

Consider: Depth of Element $y \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.



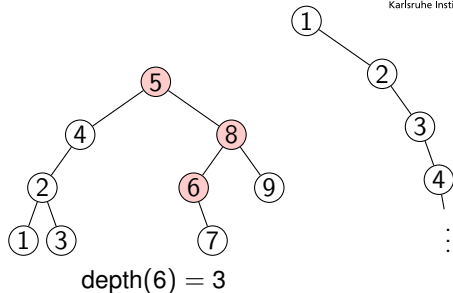
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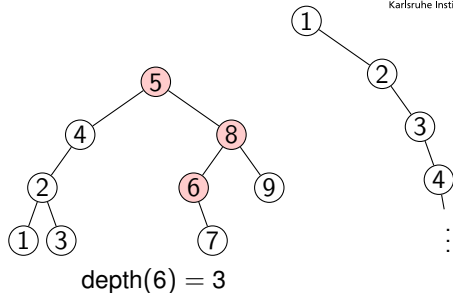
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Possible Observation

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



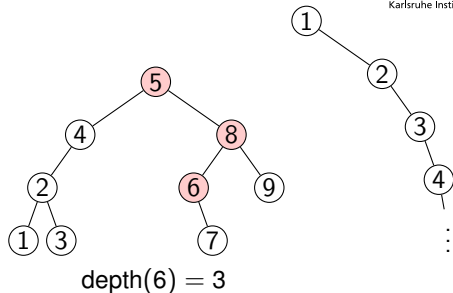
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Average Case Analysis

- 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

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Assume wlog $x < y$.



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

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



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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 descendents 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 .



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

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

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Proof.

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

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

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1. Organisation

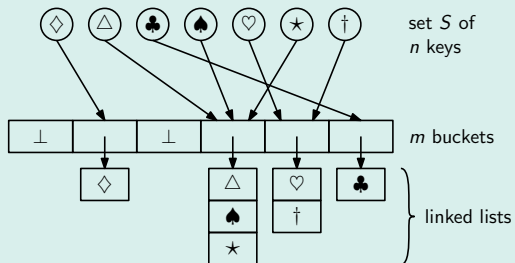
2. The Power of Randomness

- 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

Hashing with Chaining:



Stay Tuned!

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

1. Organisation

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3. Semester Outline

More $\times$ or more $\circ$?

[illegible]

Stay Tuned!

Approximation algorithms can estimate quantities by random sampling.

1. Organisation

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3. 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

- Can we use randomness to improve worst-case running times?
 - In what sense?
 - What is an example?
- How can a randomized algorithm be used to verify a polynomial equation?
- How can a randomized algorithm be used to verify a matrix multiplication?
- With respect to the evaluation of $\overline{\wedge}$ -trees:
 - What was our optimization goal?
 - What can be achieved with deterministic algorithms?
 - How does our randomized approach work?
 - What is its running time and why?
- What is average-case analysis, and what is it supposed to achieve?
- How do search trees behave under insertions in random order?
 - What holds for the expected depth of a node, and why?