CS 466/666: Algorithm Design and Analysis

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Lecture 1

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We start our course by studying one of the true gems in randomized algorithms: Karger's random contraction algorithm for the minimum cut problem in undirected graphs [Kar93].

1 Minimum Cut in Undirected Graphs

We start by reviewing some basic definitions.

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Given an undirected graph G = (V, E), a **cut** is any partition of the vertices into two (disjoint) non-empty sets $(S, V \setminus S)$ – note that the partitions $(S, V \setminus S)$ and $(V \setminus S, S)$ refers to the same cut and so we can simply denote a cut by a set S without loss of generality. Any cut $\emptyset \subset S \subset V$ defines a set of **cut-edges**, denoted by $\delta(S)$, as the edges that have one endpoint in each side of the partition $(S, V \setminus S)$. Formally,

$$\delta(S) := \{ e = (u, v) \in E \mid u \in S \land v \in V \setminus S \}.$$

We sometimes say that these edges **cross** the cut S. Figure 1 gives an illustration of these definitions.

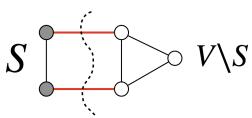


Figure 1: An illustration of graph cuts and cut-edges. The vertices in S-side of the cut are marked gray and the $(V \setminus S)$ -side are marked white. The cut-edges are drawn with thick red lines.

In this lecture, we are interested in finding a **minimum cut** in a given undirected graph G = (V, E), i.e., a cut with the smallest number of cut edges. We refer the size of minimum cuts in G by $\lambda(G)$ which is equivalently defined as:

$$\lambda(G) := \min_{\emptyset \subset S \subset V} |\delta(S)|.$$

Figure 2 gives an example.

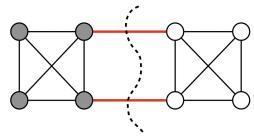


Figure 2: An example of a minimum cut of size 2, marked by gray vertices on one side and white vertices on the other. The cut-edges for the minimum cut are drawn with thick red lines.

We leave proving the following fact as a good exercise for the reader interested in familiarizing themselves more with these definitions.

Fact 1. In any undirected graph G = (V, E), $\lambda(G)$ is also equal to the minimum number of edges to remove from G to make it disconnected.

You may have previously seen algorithms for finding minimum cuts using n-1 iterations of maximum flow¹. However, we are now going to see an elegant algorithm using more elementary tools with an extremely simple analysis.

2 Karger's Contraction Algorithm

We start by introducing a basic graph theoretic operation at the core of Karger's algorithm and then get to the basic version of the algorithm, and finally, the complete algorithm itself.

2.1 Contraction in Graphs

Given an undirected graph G = (V, E) and a set $A \subseteq V$ of vertices, the **contraction** of A in G is a multi-graph², denoted by $G_{|A}$, with vertex-set $V \setminus A \cup \{a\}$ (where a is a newly defined vertex), and edge-set including all edges in G with both-endpoints in $V \setminus A$, and new edges (a, v) for each edge $(u, v) \in E$ with $u \in A$ and $v \in V \setminus A$.

Informally speaking, contraction of A in G corresponds to replacing all vertices in A into a single vertex a, removing all edges that were inside A, replacing all edges between A and $V \setminus A$ by edges between a and $V \setminus A$, and keeping all the other edges intact. See Figure 3 for an example.

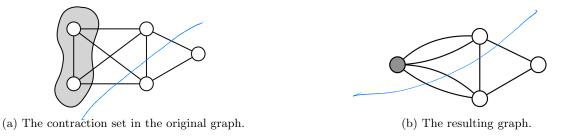


Figure 3: An example of a graph contraction.

We will use the following properties of contractions with respect to minimum cuts.

¹Throughout this course, we use n to denote the number of vertices in the underlying graph and may not specify it each time explicitly.

²Recall that a multi-graph is the same as a graph, except that we allow more than one edge between each pair of vertices, namely, we allow *parallel* edges.

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why? Decause if XGIA) < XGD,

Claim 2. For any graph G = (V, E) and any set $A \subseteq V$, $\lambda(G_{|A}) \geqslant \lambda(G)$.

That has the same $A = \{G_{|A}\} = \{G_{|A}\}$ loss of generality assume $a \in S$. Then, the cut $S \setminus \{a\} \cup A$ in G has exactly the same number of cut-edges in G as S does in $G_{|A}$.

This implies that for any cut in $G_{|A}$, there is a cut of the same size in G. Since $\lambda(G)$ is the size of minimum cuts, this means $\lambda(G)$ can only become smaller than (or equal to) $\lambda(G_{|A})$.

Claim 3. Fix any graph G = (V, E) and let S be a minimum cut in G. Then, for any set $A \subseteq V$ such that $A \cap S = \emptyset$ or $A \cap S = A$, we have $\lambda(G|A) = \lambda(G)$.

Proof. We only prove the claim for when $A \cap S = \emptyset$; the other case is symmetric by noting that if $A \cap S = A$, then $A \cap (V \setminus S) = \emptyset$ and the sets S and $(V \setminus S)$ correspond to the same cut.

Since $A \cap S = \emptyset$, we have that $\delta_{G_{|A}}(S)$ is exactly the same as $\delta_G(S)$ (where $\delta_{(\cdot)}(S)$ is the cut-edges of Sin the corresponding graph (\cdot)), by the definition of a contraction. This implies that

$$\lambda(G_{|A}) \leq |\delta_{G_{|A}}(S)| = |\delta_{G}(S)| = \lambda(G).$$

1(G) = S15)

Claim 3 now gives us a recipe for solving the minimum cut problem: find a set A of vertices that does not intersect with the minimum cut, contract this set to get a smaller graph $G_{|A}$, and recurse on the smaller graph. The non-intersecting property of A together with Claim 3 allows us to recover a minimum cut of Gfrom that of $G_{|A}$ (by simply replacing the vertex a in the minimum cut with the set A). This is all well and good except for an obvious reason: how can find a set that does not intersect a minimum cut without knowing the minimum cut in the first place?

This is where the true brilliance of the algorithm and its use of randomization lies: There is a very simple way of picking A randomly which ensures that with some "good" probability, we are not going to "destroy" the minimum cut.

2.2The Basic Contraction Algorithm

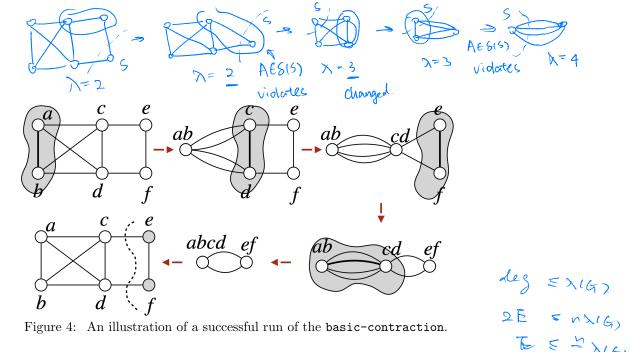
We can now present the basic version of the contraction algorithm.

Algorithm 1. basic-contraction(G): given an undirected multi-graph G = (V, E),

- (i) Sample an edge e = (u, v) uniformly at random from G;
- (ii) Contract the set $\{u, v\}$ in G to obtain $G_{\{u, v\}}$;
- (iii) Recurse on $G_{\{u,v\}}$ and continue until only two vertices are remained; then, return the sets corresponding to these two (possibly) contracted vertices.

Figure 4 gives an illustration of this algorithm.

$$Pr(\lambda(G_{1A}) = \lambda(G)) = Pr(ANS = \phi) + Pr(ANS = A)$$



We now analyze the main properties of this algorithm. The first step is to lower bound the probability We now analyze the main properties of this agreement that each fixed step of the algorithm "preserves" the minimum cut.

Lemma 4. Let G = (V, E) be a multi-graph and (u, v) be a uniformly random edge chosen in the first step

$$\Pr\left(\lambda(G) = \lambda(G_{|\{u,v\}})\right) \geqslant 1 - \frac{2}{n},$$

where n is the number of vertices in G.

Proof. Notice that for any vertex $v \in V$, the singleton cut $\{v\}$ has size equal to the degree of v in G, denoted by $\deg_G(v)$. This implies that for all $v \in V$, $\deg_G(v) \geqslant \lambda(G)$. On the other hand, we know that $\sum_{v} \deg_{G}(v) = 2|E|$ (this is often called the handshaking lemma); thus, $|E| \ge n \cdot \lambda(G)/2$.

Fix any minimum cut S of G. If the edge (u, v) is not a cut-edge of S, then, $\{u, v\}$ does not intersect with one side of the cut S, and thus by Claim 3, we will have $\lambda(G) = \lambda(G_{|\{u,v\}})$. This implies that,

We can now use this lemma to bound the probability that basic-contraction outputs a minimum cut.

Lemma 5. For any multi-graph G = (V, E),

$$\Pr(\text{basic-contraction}(G) \text{ outputs a minimum cut of } G) \ge \frac{2}{n \cdot (n-1)}.$$

Proof. The proof is by a repeated application of Lemma 4. Notice that each contraction step reduces the number of vertices and the algorithm stops when only two vertices are left. Thus, there are n-2 contraction steps. For each $i \in [n-2]$, let G_i denote the resulting graph after the *i*-the contraction step. We thus have,

Pr (basic-contraction(G) outputs a minimum cut of G) = Pr ($\lambda(G_{n-2}) = \lambda(G)$).

We are now going to calculate the RHS above. Notice that by Claim 2, we always have,

$$\lambda(G_{n-2}) \geqslant \lambda(G_{n-3}) \cdots \geqslant \lambda(G_1) \geqslant \lambda(G).$$

Thus, to bound the RHS, we can write,

$$\Pr\left(\lambda(G_{n-2}) = \lambda(G)\right) = \Pr\left(\lambda(G_{n-2}) = \lambda(G_{n-3}) \land \lambda(G_{n-3}) = \lambda(G_{n-4}) \land \dots \land \lambda(G_1) = \lambda(G)\right)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n-2} \Pr\left(\lambda(G_i) = \lambda(G_{i-1}) \mid \lambda(G_{i-2}) = \dots = \lambda(G_1) = \lambda(G)\right).$$
(by the definition of conditional probability: $\Pr(A \land B) = \Pr(B) \cdot \Pr(A \mid B)$)

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n-2} \Pr\left(\lambda(G_i) = \lambda(G_{i-1}) \mid \lambda(G_{i-2}) = \dots = \lambda(G_1) = \lambda(G)\right) \geqslant \prod_{i=1}^{n-2} \left(1 - \frac{2}{n-i+1}\right) \quad \left(1 - \frac{2}{n-i+1}\right)$$

(by Lemma 4 and since the number of vertices in G_{i-1})s n-i+1)

(as the terms telescopically cancel each other except for first two denominators and last two nominators)

This implies the basic-contraction(G) outputs a minimum cut of G with probability at least $2/n \cdot (n-1)$, concluding the proof.

Before continuing, let us mention an important corollary of these lemmas in bounding the total number of different minimum cuts in a graph (notice that minimum cuts may not be unique).

Corollary 6. Any undirected graph G = (V, E) contains at most $\binom{n}{2}$ different minimum cuts.

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Proof. It can be easily verified that the conclusions of Lemma 4 and Lemma 5 is actually stronger than stated and is the following: for any fixed minimum cut S of G,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{My} & \text{Qvestion} & \text{O} & \text{Io} \\ \text{Pr}\left(\text{basic-contraction}(G) \text{ outputs } S\right) \geqslant \frac{2}{n \cdot (n-1)} = \binom{n}{2}^{-1}. \end{array}$$

But now note we can write

 $\Pr\left(\texttt{basic-contraction}(G) \text{ outputs some minimum cut}\right) = \sum_{S \text{ \in minimum cuts}} \Pr\left(\texttt{basic-contraction}(G) \text{ outputs } S\right)$

(as the events for S partition the event in LHS)

$$\geqslant \#$$
 of minimum cuts $\cdot \binom{n}{2}^{-1}$.
(by the bounds stated above)

Given that the LHS above can be upper bounded by 1 (as it is a probability), we get the desired bound on the number of minimum cuts. \Box

2.3 The Final Algorithm

We are now almost done. Algorithm 1 already solves the problem for us except that its probability of success is too low (and tends to zero when size of the graph goes to infinity). On the other hand, whenever we work with randomized algorithms, we either require them to be always true and only risk on their resources, namely, we bound their expected running time, or require them to be correct with probability at least some large constant, typically 2/3. ³ Eighes time or accuracy

Thus, the last step of our approach is to boost the probability of success of Algorithm 1 to be some large constant. This can be done quite easily by simply running the algorithm multiple times and returning the best answer. Formally,

Algorithm 2. Given an undirected multi-graph G = (V, E),

- (i) Run basic-contraction(G) for n^2 times <u>independently</u> to find the cuts S_1, \ldots, S_{n^2} ;
- (ii) Return the smallest of these cuts as a minimum cut of the graph G.

Lemma 7. For any undirected multi-graph G = (V, E),

Pr (Algorithm 2 outputs a minimum cut of G) $\geq 2/3$.

Proof. By definition, Algorithm 2 fails in outputting a minimum cut only if every single one of its n^2 independent runs of basic-contraction(G) fails in doing so. By Lemma 5, the probability of failure for each of these runs is upper bounded by $1-2/n^2$ (we simply upper bounded $n \cdot (n-1)$ by n^2). Each of these events happen independently also and thus we have,

ts happen independently also and thus we have, $(1 - \frac{2}{n \ln n}) < (1 - \frac{2}{n^2})$ Pr (Algorithm 2 fails) = Pr (every one of n^2 runs of basic-contraction(G) fail) $\leq (1 - \frac{2}{n^2})^{n^2}$

(by Lemma 5 and independence of the n^2 runs)

(by Lemma 5 and independence of the
$$n^2$$
 runs)
$$\leqslant \exp(-\frac{2}{n^2} \cdot n^2) = \exp(-2) < 1/3; \quad \text{let} \quad \text{for every } x \in (0, 1) \stackrel{4}{\cdot} \text{ This concludes the proof}$$
in the first inequality of the second line, we used the fact that $1 - x \leqslant e^{-x}$ (we use e^{-x} and $\exp(-x)$ interchangeably) for every $x \in (0, 1) \stackrel{4}{\cdot} \text{ This concludes the proof}$

interchangeably) for every $x \in (0,1)$. This concludes the proof.

We conclude this lecture by noting that we did not put any emphasize on the runtime of this algorithm. However, it is easy to see that each contraction step of Algorithm 1 can be implemented in O(n) time by modifying the at most O(n) edges incident on the contracted vertices. This means that Algorithm 1 itself can be run in $O(n^2)$ time. This in turn implies that Algorithm 2 is an $O(n^4)$ time algorithm. This is not a particularly efficient algorithm for the problem but it makes up for it by being extremely simple. We will also see later in this course how essentially the same ideas can lead to a much faster algorithm as well.

References



[Kar93] David R. Karger. Global min-cuts in RNC, and other ramifications of a simple min-cut algorithm. In Vijaya Ramachandran, editor, Proceedings of the Fourth Annual ACM/SIGACT-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms, 25-27 January 1993, Austin, Texas, USA, pages 21-30. ACM/SIAM, 1993.

³The convention is to call the former family of algorithms Las Vegas algorithms and the latter ones Monte Carlo algorithms.

⁴Despite being a very simple inequality to prove, it is also extremely useful and we will be using it very often in this course. You are strongly encouraged to prove its correctness once for yourself.

Thus, to bound the RHS, we can write,

$$\Pr(\lambda(G_{n-2}) = \lambda(G)) = \Pr(\lambda(G_{n-2}) = \lambda(G_{n-3}) \land \lambda(G_{n-3}) = \lambda(G_{n-4}) \land \dots \land \lambda(G_1) = \lambda(G))$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n-2} \Pr(\lambda(G_i) = \lambda(G_{i-1}) \mid \lambda(G_{i-2}) = \dots = \lambda(G_1) = \lambda(G)).$$
(by the definition of conditional probability: $\Pr(A \land B) = \Pr(B) \cdot \Pr(A \mid B)$)

$$P_{\Gamma}(\Lambda \iota G_{4}) = \lambda_{1}(G_{2}) = P_{\Gamma}(\Lambda \iota G_{4}) = \lambda_{1}(G_{3}) \wedge \lambda_{1}(G_{3}) = \lambda_{1}(G_{2}) = \lambda_{1}(G_{1}) \wedge \lambda_{1}(G_{2}) \wedge \lambda_{1}(G_{2}) = \lambda_{1}(G_{1}) \wedge \lambda_{1}(G_{2}) \wedge \lambda_{1}(G_{2}) \wedge \lambda_{1}(G_{2}) \wedge \lambda_{1}(G_{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\lambda(G_4) = \lambda(G_3) \right) \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left(\lambda(G_3) = \lambda(G_2) \wedge \lambda(G_2) = \lambda(G_1) \wedge \lambda(G_1) = \lambda(G_2) \right) \times \frac{1}{2} \left(\lambda(G_4) = \lambda(G_3) \right) \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left(\lambda(G_4) = \lambda(G_4) \right) \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left(\lambda(G_4) = \lambda($$

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$$= \mathcal{O} \cdot \mathbf{S} \cdot \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}|} \times \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r}$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda^{-2}}{\Pi} \Pr\left(\lambda(G_{i}) = \lambda(G_{i}) \mid \lambda(G_{i}) = \dots = \lambda(G_{i})\right)$$