



CS240 Algorithm Design and Analysis

Lecture 20

Randomized Algorithms

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Randomized Algorithms



- Till now, all of our algorithms have been deterministic.
 - Given an input, the algorithm always does the same thing.
- It turns out it's very useful to allow algorithms to be nondeterministic.
 - As the algorithm operates, it's allowed to make some random choices.
 - Running the algorithm multiple times on same input can produce different behaviors.
- Randomization. Allow fair coin flip in unit time.

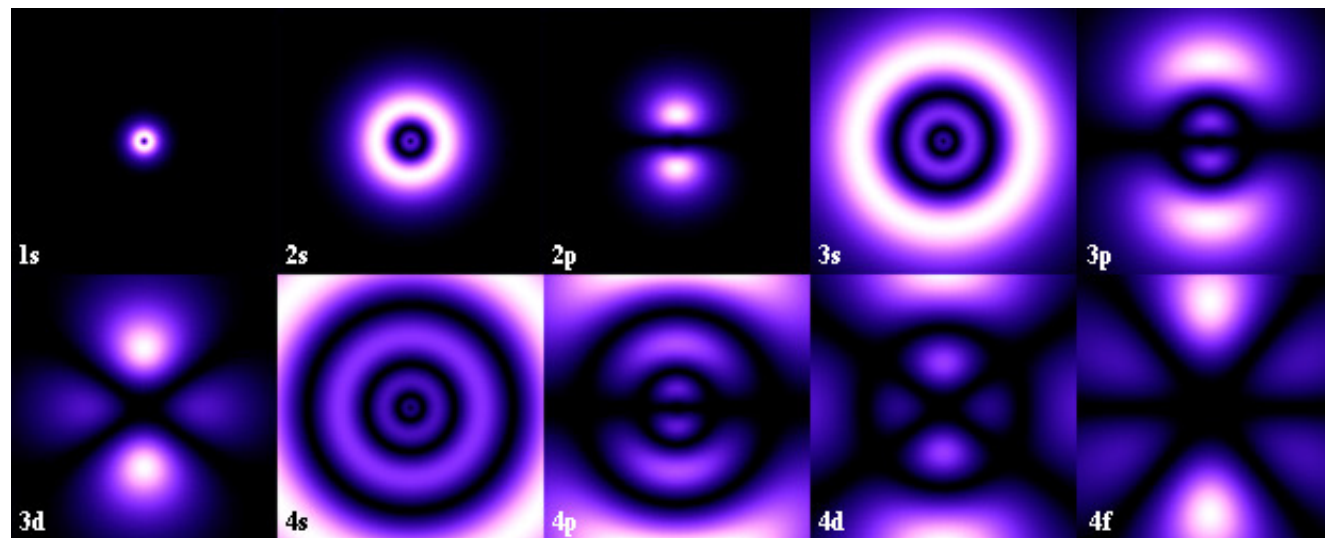




Why Randomized Algorithms?



- For many problems, randomized algorithms work better than deterministic ones.
 - Faster / uses less memory
 - Simpler, easier to understand.
 - Some problems that provably can't be solved (or solved efficiently) by deterministic algorithms can be solved by randomized ones.
 - According to quantum mechanics, the world is inherently probabilistic, so nature is randomized!

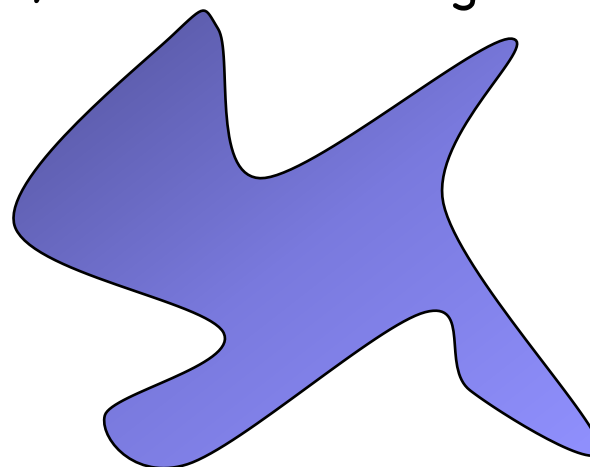
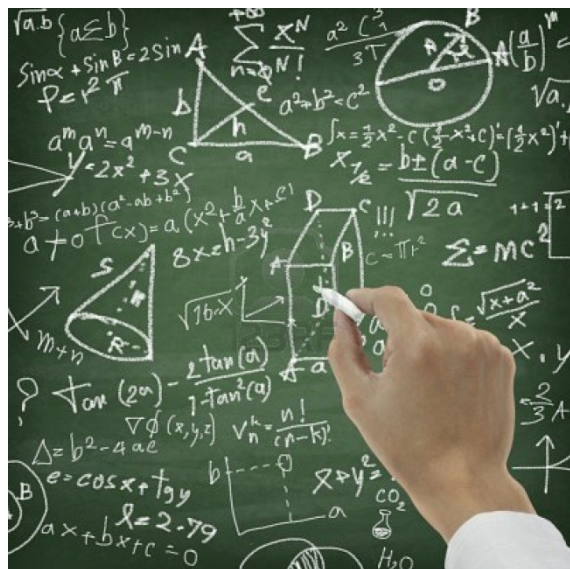




How can randomness help?



- Say you have a string of length n that's half A's and half B's.
- We want to find a location in the string with an A.
- Any deterministic algorithm takes $n/2+1$ steps in the worst case.
- But by checking random locations, a randomized algorithm finds an A in 2 steps in expectation.
- Measure the area of this
- Method 1



- Method 2
 - ❖ Print the shape out on a piece of paper.
 - ❖ Throw 100 darts at it.
 - ❖ See what percent land in the shape.
 - ❖ Multiply by area of your paper.

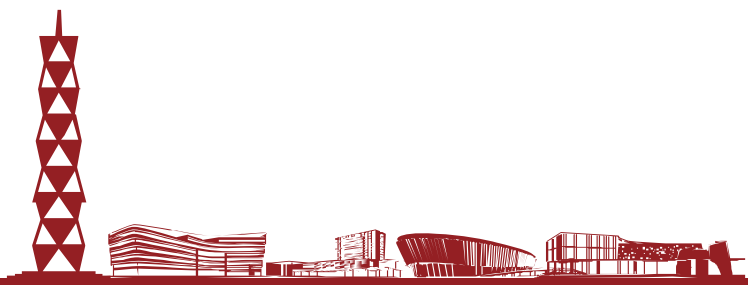




Las Vegas VS. Monte Carlo



- A Las Vegas randomized algorithm always produces the right answer. But its running time can vary depending on its random choices.
 - We want to minimize the expected running time of a Las Vegas algorithm.
- A Monte Carlo algorithm always has the same running time. But it sometimes produces the wrong answer, depending on its random choices.
 - We want to minimize the error probability of a Monte Carlo algorithm.

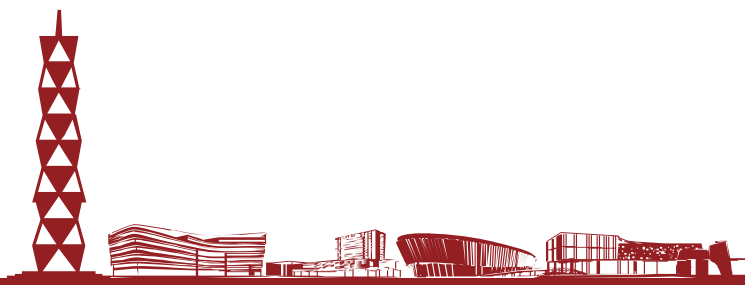


- Discrete probability theory is based on events and their probabilities.
 - Events can be composed of more basic events.
 - **Ex** Event of rolling a 2 on a fair dice, with probability $1/6$.
 - **Ex** Event of rolling an even number, with probability $1/2$. Composed of basic events of rolling a 2, 4 or 6.
 - If A is event, write $\Pr[A]=y$. E.g., $\Pr[\text{roll a 2}]=1/6$
- Two events A, B are independent if $\Pr[A \wedge B] = \Pr[A] * \Pr[B]$.
 - **Ex** Events $A = \text{"2 on first roll"}$ and $B = \text{"3 on second roll"}$ are independent, because $\Pr[A \wedge B] = 1/36 = \Pr[A] * \Pr[B] = 1/6 * 1/6$.
 - **Ex** Events $A = \text{"2 on first roll"}$ and $B = \text{"the two rolls sum to 5"}$ are not independent, because $\Pr[A \wedge B] = 1/36 \neq \Pr[A] * \Pr[B] = 1/6 * 4/36$.

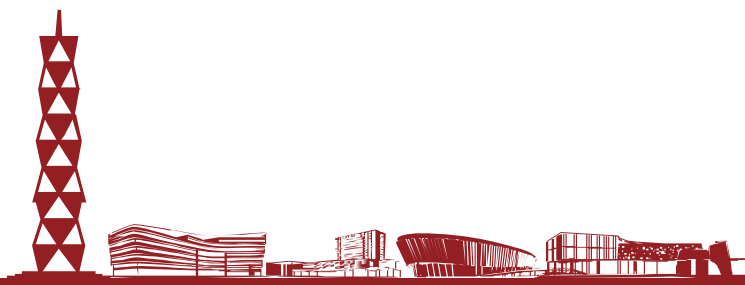


■ Random variables

- A variable which takes values with certain probabilities. The probabilities sum to 1.
- **Ex** X = value from roll of dice. Values are $\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$, each with probability $1/6$.
- **Ex** Y = number of heads in 4 flips of fair coin. Values are $\{0,1,2,3,4\}$, with probabilities $\{1/16, 4/16, 6/16, 4/16, 1/16\}$.
- **Ex** Z = number of flips of fair coin till first head. Values are $\{1,2,3,\dots\}$, with probabilities $\{1/2, 1/4, 1/8, \dots\}$.
- We write $\Pr[X=x]=y$, e.g. $\Pr[Z=3]=1/8$.

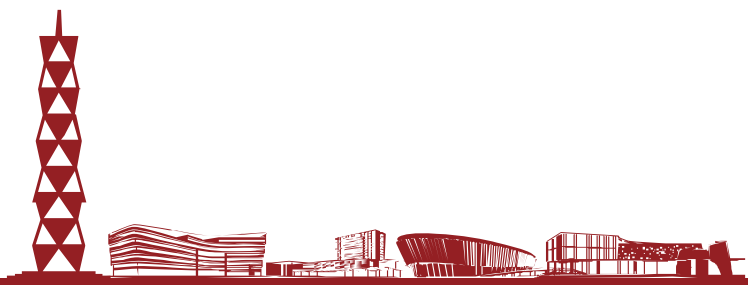


- Expectation of random variable X
 - $E[X] = \sum_x X \cdot \Pr[X=x]$.
 - The average value of X , over many trials.
 - **Ex** X =number of heads in 4 flips. $E[X] = 0 \cdot 1/16 + 1 \cdot 4/16 + 2 \cdot 6/16 + 3 \cdot 4/16 + 4 \cdot 1/16 = 2$.
 - If you flip a coin 4 times, for 1000 times, on average you see 2 heads per 4 flips.
- An indicator variable X for an event E is a random variable that's 1 if E occurs, and 0 otherwise.
- If event E has probability p of occurring, and X is E 's indicator variable, then $E[X] = p$.
 - Because $E[X] = \Pr[E \text{ occurs}] \cdot 1 + \Pr[E \text{ doesn't occur}] \cdot 0 = p$.
 - This is a convenient fact we'll frequently use.



■ Linearity of expectations

- Given random variables X, Y , $E[X+Y]=E[X]+E[Y]$.
- Extends to any number of random variables, e.g. $E[X+Y+Z]=E[X]+E[Y]+E[Z]$.
- The random variables do not have to be independent.
- Very useful property!
- **Ex** Let X =number of heads in 100 coin flips. Calculate $E[X]$.
 - **Direct method:** $1*\Pr[1 \text{ head}]+2*\Pr[2 \text{ heads}]+\dots+100*\Pr[100 \text{ heads}]$, a very complicated sum.
 - **Linearity method:** $X=X_1+X_2+\dots+X_{100}$, where X_i =number of heads on i 'th flip.
 - $E[X_i]=0*\Pr[0 \text{ heads}]+1*\Pr[1 \text{ head}]=1/2$.
 - $E[X]=E[X_1]+\dots+E[X_{100}]=100/2=50$.

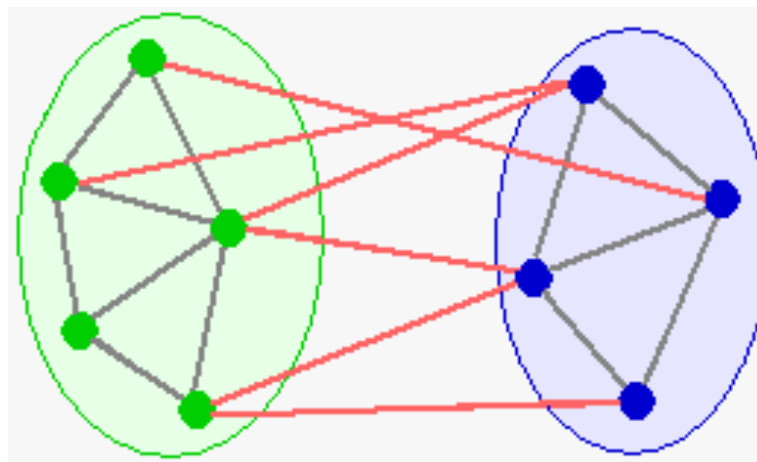




Max Cut



- We studied the Min-Cut problem, which is closely related to finding the max flow in a network.
- Max-Cut is the opposite of Min-Cut.
- Given a graph G , split vertices into two sides to maximize the number of edges between the sides.





Max Cut



- Unlike Min-Cut, Max-Cut is NP-complete.
- We'll give a very simple randomized Monte Carlo 2-approximation algorithm.
 - Monte Carlo means the algorithm sometimes returns the wrong answer, i.e., a cut that's not a 2-approximation.
 - Monte Carlo also means the algorithm always runs in a fixed amount of time.
 - ❖ Put each node in a random side with probability $\frac{1}{2}$.

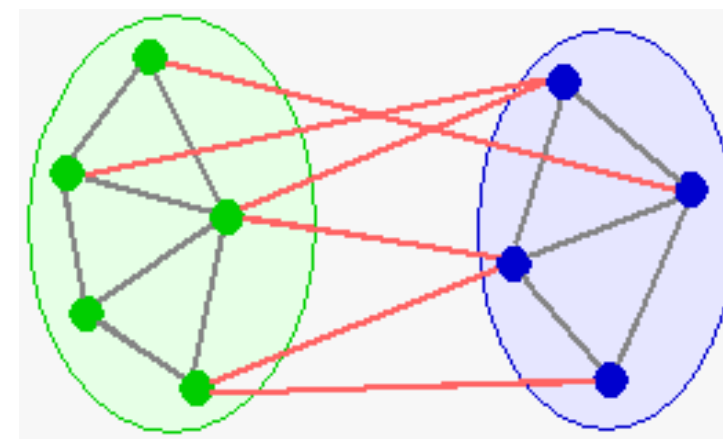




Correctness



- **Lemma** In a graph with e edges, the algorithm produces a cut with expected size $e/2$.
- **Proof** Let X be a random variable equal to the size of the cut. We want to bound $E[X]$.
 - For each edge e , let X_e be the indicator variable of whether e is in the cut.
 - i.e., $X_e=1$ if e is in the cut and 0 otherwise.
 - $X = \sum_e X_e$.
 - Given an edge $e=(i,j)$, e is in the cut if i and j are on different sides.
 - $\Pr[e \text{ in cut}] = \Pr[(i \text{ in } L) \wedge (j \text{ in } R)] + \Pr[(j \text{ in } L) \wedge (i \text{ in } R)] = 1/4 + 1/4 = 1/2$.
 - $E[X_e] = 1/2$.
 - $E[X] = e/2$ by linearity of expectations.

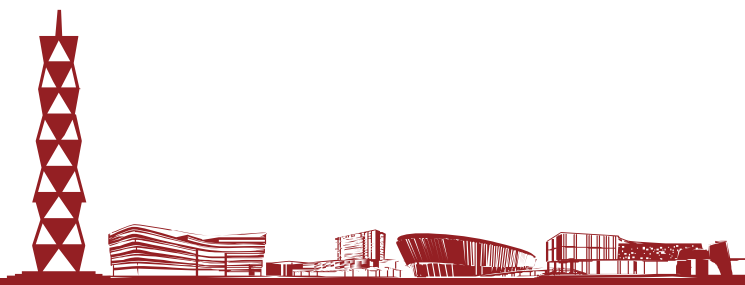




Correctness



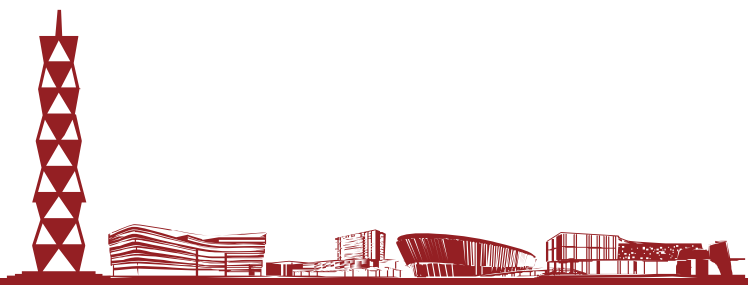
- Since a cut can have at most e edges, the $e/2$ edges the algorithm outputs in expectation is a 2 approximation.
- Note that we only bounded expected size of the algorithm's cut.
 - In any particular execution, the algorithm can output a cut that's smaller or larger than $e/2$.
 - On average, the cut has size $e/2$.





Contention Resolution

An example in distributed computing where randomization is necessary

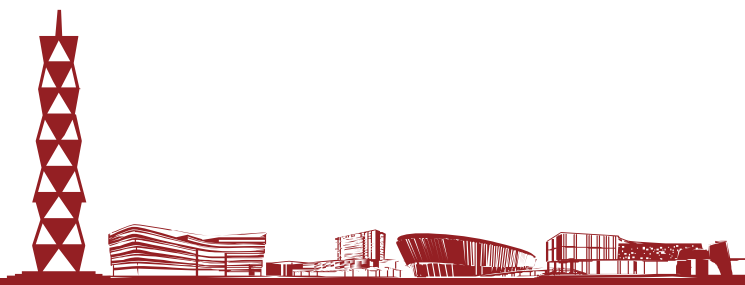




Distributed Computing



- Distributed system
 - Set of autonomous nodes, working independently of each other
 - Nodes may be able to communicate, at a cost
 - Ex: Internet, computer cluster, sensor network
- Nodes need to coordinate to solve some problem
- Coordination can be done using communication. But communication is expensive
- By making nodes randomized, they can coordinate with minimal communication
- Randomization also simplifies symmetry breaking between nodes





Contention Resolution in a Distributed System



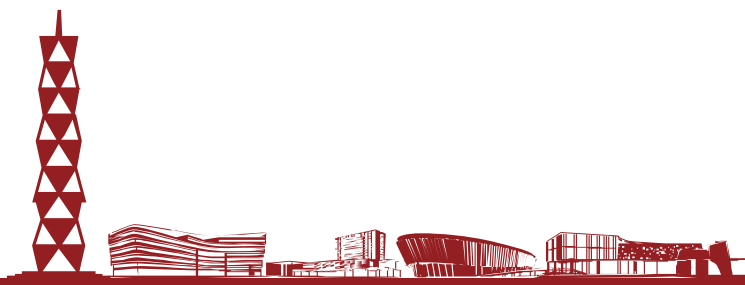
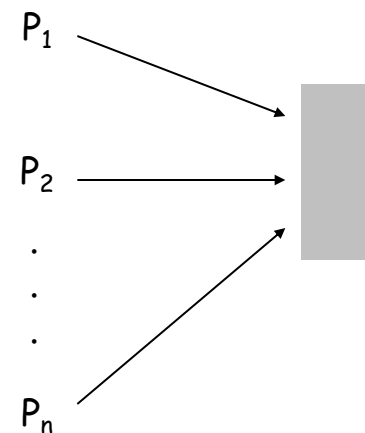
Contention resolution. Given n processes P_1, \dots, P_n , each competing for access to a shared channel. If two or more processes access the channel simultaneously, all processes are locked out. Devise protocol to ensure all processes get through on a regular basis.

Assumption. Time is divided into rounds.

Restriction. Processes can't communicate, and they don't have id's.

Challenge. Need **symmetry-breaking** paradigm.

No deterministic protocol can solve the problem.





Contention Resolution: Randomized Protocol



Protocol. Each process requests access to the channel at time t with probability $p = 1/n$.

Claim. Let $S[i, t]$ = event that process i succeeds in accessing the database at time t . Then $1/(e \cdot n) \leq \Pr[S(i, t)] \leq 1/(2n)$.

Pf. By independence, $\Pr[S(i, t)] = p (1-p)^{n-1}$.
process i requests access none of remaining $n-1$ processes request access

- Setting $p = 1/n$, we have $\Pr[S(i, t)] = 1/n \underbrace{(1 - 1/n)^{n-1}}_{\text{between } 1/e \text{ and } 1/2}$. ▪

Useful facts from calculus.

- $1/4 < (1 - 1/n)^n < 1/e < (1 - 1/n)^{n-1} < 1/2$
- $9/4 < (1 + 1/n)^n < e < (1 + 1/n)^{n+1} < 27/8$





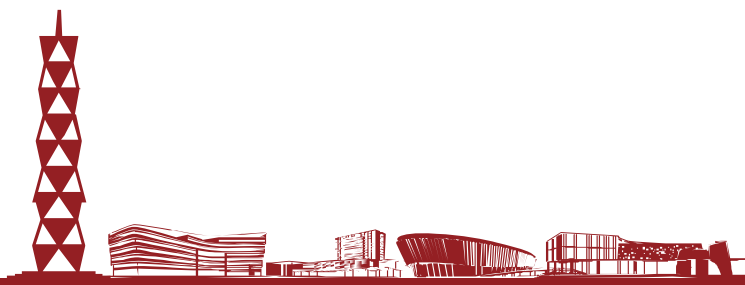
Contention Resolution: Randomized Protocol



Claim. The probability that process i fails to access the channel in $e \cdot n$ rounds is at most $1/e$. After $e \cdot n \cdot c \ln n$ rounds, the probability is at most n^{-c} .

Pf. Let $F[i, t]$ = event that process i fails to access database in rounds 1 through t . By independence and previous claim, we have $\Pr[F(i, t)] \leq (1 - 1/(en))^t$.

- Choose $t = e n$: $\Pr[F(i, t)] \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{en}\right)^{en} \leq \frac{1}{e}$
- Choose $t = (e n) (c \ln n)$: $\Pr[F(i, t)] \leq \left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{c \ln n} = n^{-c}$





Contention Resolution: Randomized Protocol



Claim. The probability that **all** processes succeed within $2e \cdot n \ln n$ rounds is at least $1 - 1/n$.

Pf. Let $F[t]$ = event that at least one of the n processes fails to access database in any of the rounds 1 through t .

$$\Pr[F[t]] = \Pr\left[\bigcup_{i=1}^n F[i,t]\right] \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr[F[i,t]] \leq n \cdot n^{-c}$$

union bound previous slide

- Choosing $t = 2e n \ln n$ yields $\Pr[F[t]] \leq n \cdot n^{-2} = 1/n$. ▪

Union bound. Given events E_1, \dots, E_n , independent or not,

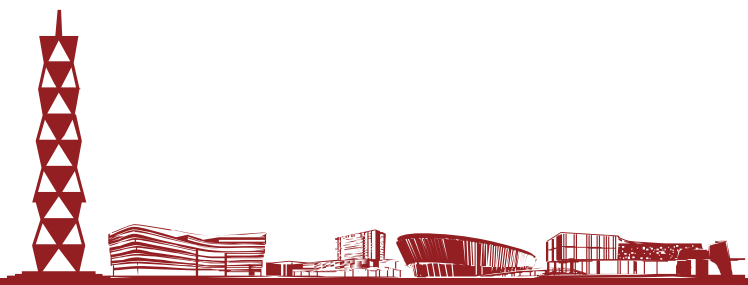
$$\Pr\left[\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right] \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr[E_i]$$





Global Minimum Cut

A problem for which the best-known randomized algorithm is faster than the best-known deterministic algorithm





Global Minimum Cut



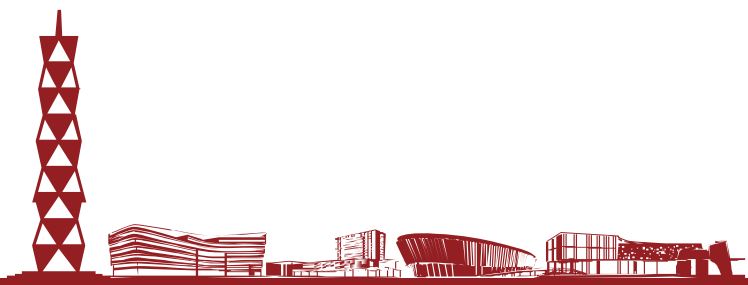
Global min cut. Given a connected, undirected graph $G = (V, E)$, find a cut (A, B) of minimum cardinality.

Applications. Partitioning items in a database, identify clusters of related documents, network reliability, network design, circuit design, TSP solvers.

Network flow solution.

- Replace every edge (u, v) with two antiparallel edges (u, v) and (v, u) .
- Pick some vertex s and compute min s - v cut separating s from each other vertex $v \in V$.

False intuition. Global min-cut is harder than min s - t cut.



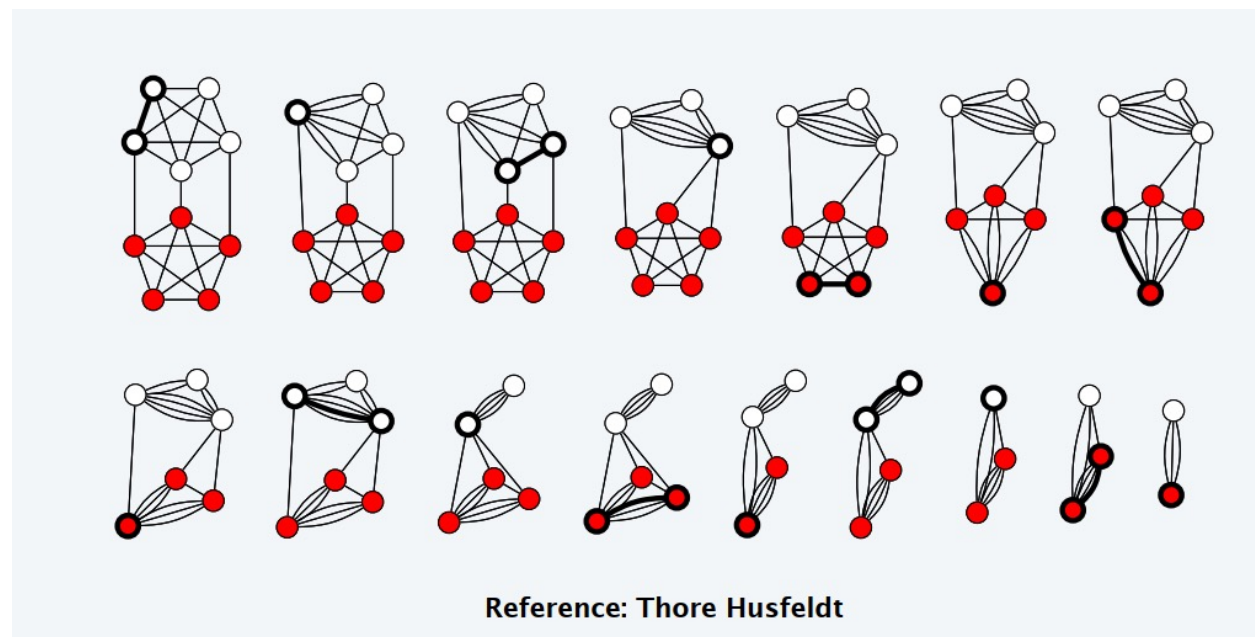
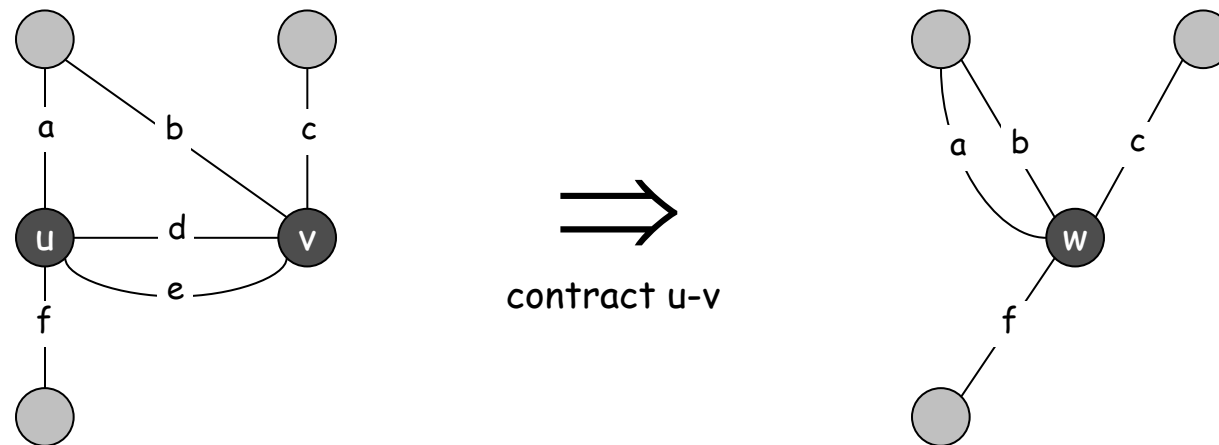


Contraction Algorithm



Contraction algorithm. [Karger 1995]

- Pick an edge $e = (u, v)$ uniformly at random.
- **Contract** edge e .
 - replace u and v by a single new supernode w
 - preserve edges, updating endpoints of u and v to w
 - keep parallel edges, but delete self-loops
- Repeat until graph has just two supernodes v_1 and v_2 .
- Return the cut (between the two supernodes).





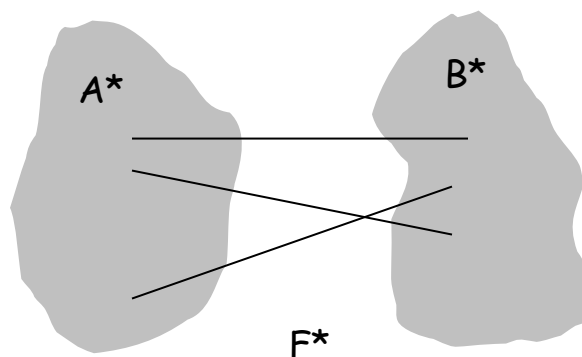
Contraction Algorithm



Claim. The contraction algorithm returns a min cut with $\text{prob} \geq 2/n^2$.

Pf. Consider a global min-cut (A^*, B^*) of G . Let F^* be edges with one endpoint in A^* and the other in B^* . Let $k = |F^*|$ = size of min cut.

- In first step, algorithm contracts an edge in F^* with $\text{prob } k / |E|$.
- Every node has degree $\geq k$ since otherwise (A^*, B^*) would not be min-cut. $\Rightarrow |E| \geq \frac{1}{2}kn$.
- Thus, algorithm contracts an edge in F^* with probability $\leq 2/n$.





Contraction Algorithm



Claim. The contraction algorithm returns a min cut with prob $\geq 2/n^2$.

Pf. Consider a global min-cut (A^*, B^*) of G . Let F^* be edges with one endpoint in A^* and the other in B^* .

Let $k = |F^*|$ = size of min cut.

- Let G' be graph after j iterations. There are $n' = n-j$ supernodes.
 - Suppose no edge in F^* has been contracted. The min-cut in G' is still k .
 - Since value of min-cut is k , $|E'| \geq \frac{1}{2}kn' \rightarrow k/|E'| \leq 2/n'$
 - Thus, algorithm contracts an edge in F^* with probability $\leq 2/n'$.
-
- Let E_j = event that an edge in F^* is not contracted in iteration j .

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[E_1 \cap E_2 \cdots \cap E_{n-2}] &= \Pr[E_1] \times \Pr[E_2 | E_1] \times \cdots \times \Pr[E_{n-2} | E_1 \cap E_2 \cdots \cap E_{n-3}] \\ &\geq \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n-1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{2}{4}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{3}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{n-2}{n}\right) \left(\frac{n-3}{n-1}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{2}{4}\right) \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \\ &= \frac{2}{n(n-1)} \\ &\geq \frac{2}{n^2}\end{aligned}$$





Contraction Algorithm



Amplification. To amplify the probability of success, run the contraction algorithm many times.

Claim. If we repeat the contraction algorithm n^2 times with independent random choices and return the best cut found, then the algorithm finds the min-cut with constant probability.

Pf. By independence, the probability of failure is at most

$$\left(1 - \frac{2}{n^2}\right)^{n^2} = \left[\left(1 - \frac{2}{n^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}n^2}\right]^2 \leq (e^{-1})^2 = \frac{1}{e^2}$$





Global Min Cut: Context



Remark. Overall running time is slow since we perform $O(V^2)$ iterations, and each takes $O(E \log V)$ time (we always merge the vertex with smaller degree into the other).

Best known. [Karger 2000] $O(E \log^3 V)$.

↖
faster than best known deterministic global min cut algorithm

