# Expected Number of Structures in Random Graphs and Randomized Graph Algorithms

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March 25, 2024

### Overview

- House-keeping
- ② Diameter
- Triangles
- 4 Degree
- Global Mincut

# With high probability (w.h.p.)

### Definition (With high probability)

We say that event A happens with high probability (w.h.p.) if, for some constant c > 0,

$$\Pr\left[A\right] \geq 1 - \frac{1}{n^c} = 1 - O\left(\frac{1}{n^c}\right)$$

### Definition (Almost surely)

We say that an event A happens almost surely (a.s.) if

$$\Pr[A] \to 1 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

In this case, n is often the number of observations we make or the *size of the problem*. Note that we may use them interchangeably.

# Simple Concentration Bounds

#### Theorem (Markov's Inequality)

Let X be a non negative random variable and  $\lambda > 0$ , then

$$\Pr\left[X \ge \lambda\right] \le \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{\lambda}$$

### Theorem (Chebyshev's Inequality)

Let X random variable with finite  $\mathbb{E}[X]$  and Var(X), then for any t > 0

$$\Pr[|X - \mathbb{E}[X]| \ge t] \le \frac{Var(X)}{t^2}$$

# Chernoff-Hoeffding Bounds

### Theorem (Chernoff-Hoeffding Bounds)

Let  $X_1, X_2, \cdots, X_n$  be an independently and identically distributed random variables taking values in  $\{0,1\}$ ,  $\mathbf{X} = \sum_i X_i$ , and  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}]$ . Then, for some  $0 < \delta < 1$ , the following inequalities hold,

**2** 
$$\Pr[\mathbf{X} \leq (1 - \delta)\mu] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{\delta^2 \mu}{2}\right)$$

The above inequalities are called Chernoff's bounds. Note that this and the general form can be derived by applying Markov's inequality on the moment-generating function of the random variable. Moreover, there are multiple forms of these but we will work mostly with the above three.

Diameter on fixed p random graphs is 2 w.h.p.

#### Theorem

Let G(n,p) be a random graph of order n and each edge appears with fixed probability  $p \in (0,1)$ . Then,  $diam(G) \le 2$  w.h.p.

#### Lemma

Let G(n, p) be a random graph of order n and each edge appears with fixed probability  $p \in (0, 1)$ . Then, every pair of distinct vertices u, v have shared neighborhood w.h.p.

# Diameter on fixed p random graphs is 2 w.h.p. — Proof

#### Proof of Lemma.

Define a random variable  $X_{u,v}$  to be 1 if  $N(u) \cap N(v) = \emptyset$  and 0 otherwise and define X to be the sum of all  $X_{u,v}$ 's. Note that the probability that two vertices share no common neighbor is

$$\Pr[N(u) \cap N(v) = \emptyset] = (1 - p^2)^{n-2}$$

where  $p^2$  is the probability that u and v pick the same neighbor where there are n-2 of such possibilities. By Markov's Inequality, we have

$$\Pr[X \ge 1] \le \mathsf{E}[X] = \binom{n}{2} (1 - p^2)^{n-2} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$
 [SageMath verified]

Since  $\Pr[X < 1] = 1 - \Pr[X \ge 1]$ , the claim of the lemma satisfies w.h.p.

# Diameter on fixed p random graphs is 2 w.h.p. — Proof

#### Proof of Theorem.

Note that the probability that  $\operatorname{diam}(G) \leq 2$  is the same as the probability that every pair of distinct vertices u, v are adjacent or share a common neighbor. Hence, the probability that every distinct pair of vertices share a common neighbor is a lower bound for  $\Pr[\operatorname{diam}(G) \leq 2]$ . Let X be the number of pairs of distinct vertices that do not share neighbors. We can conclude that

$$\Pr[\operatorname{diam}(G) \le 2] \ge \Pr[X < 1] \to 1 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

Therefore, the diameter of random graph G(n, p) with fixed p is at most 2 w.h.p.



# Approximating Number of Triangles

### **Algorithm** APPROXTRICOUNT(Graph G, Integer T)

```
\alpha \leftarrow 0
for i=1, 2, ..., T do

Pick an edge (u, v) u.a.r. from E(G)
Pick a vertex w u.a.r. from V(G) \setminus \{u, v\}

if (u, w) and (v, w) \in E(G) then

\hat{\tau} \leftarrow \frac{\alpha}{T} \cdot \frac{m(n-2)}{3}

return \hat{\tau}
```

### APPROXTRICOUNT Analysis

### Theorem (Expected output)

Let  $\tau$  be the true number of triangles in G. APPROXTRICOUNT returns a random variable  $\hat{\tau}$  with expected value

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\hat{\tau}\right] = \tau$$

### APPROXTRICOUNT Analysis

#### Proof.

Let us first identify the probability of the algorithm picking triangle t at iteration i. Consider a triangle t. WLOG, the edge (u,v) that we picked u.a.r. is part of t w.p. 3/m. Then, the probability that we pick a specific w such that  $\{u,v,w\}$  form t is  $\frac{1}{(n-2)}$ . Hence, the probability that we pick a triangle at iteration i is

$$\frac{3}{m}\cdot\frac{1}{n-2}=\frac{3}{m(n-2)}$$

Since there are  $\tau$  triangles in G, the probability that we pick any triangle at iteration i is

$$\mathbf{Pr}\left[\mathsf{Algorithm\ picks\ any\ triangle}\right] = \frac{3\tau}{m(n-2)}$$

### APPROXTRICOUNT Analysis

#### Proof.

Hence, it follows that after T iterations, the expected value of  $\alpha$  is

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\alpha\right] = \frac{3\tau \cdot T}{m(n-2)}$$

Finally, we have that

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\hat{\tau}\right] = \mathbf{E}\left[\frac{\alpha}{T} \cdot \frac{m(n-2)}{3}\right]$$

$$= \mathbf{E}\left[\alpha\right] \cdot \frac{m(n-2)}{3T}$$

$$= \frac{3\tau T}{m(n-2)} \cdot \frac{m(n-2)}{3T} = \tau$$

Therefore, the expected output of APPROXTRICOUNT is the true number of triangles.

# Picking a good T

#### Theorem

Suppose that au is the true number of triangles in G and let  $\epsilon>0$  and  $0<\delta\leq 1/2$ . Running ApproxTriCount(G, T) with  $T\geq \frac{3\tau}{\epsilon^2}\ln(2/\delta)$  returns  $\hat{\tau}$  satisfying  $|\hat{\tau}-\tau|<\epsilon$  w.p.

$$\Pr\left[|\hat{\tau} - \tau| < \epsilon\right] \le 1 - \delta$$

# Picking a good T

#### Proof.

First, note that  $\Pr[|\hat{\tau} - \tau| < \epsilon] \ge 1 - \delta$  is equivalent to  $\Pr[T|\hat{\tau} - \tau| \ge T\epsilon] \le \delta$ . To fit this problem into something C-H can handle, we let  $\epsilon = \delta \tau$ . Then, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Pr}\left[T|\hat{\tau} - \tau| \geq T\epsilon\right] &= \mathbf{Pr}\left[T|\hat{\tau} - \tau| \geq \delta(T\tau)\right] \\ &\leq 2\exp\left(-\frac{\delta^2 T\tau}{3}\right) \\ &= 2\exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon^2 T}{3\tau}\right) \end{aligned}$$

# Picking a good T

#### Proof.

Since  $T \geq \frac{3\tau}{\epsilon^2} \ln(2/\delta)$ , we have the following.

$$2 \exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon^2 T}{3\tau}\right) = \frac{2}{\exp\left(\frac{\epsilon^2 T}{3\tau}\right)}$$

$$\leq \frac{2}{\exp\left(\frac{\epsilon^2}{3\tau} \cdot \frac{3\tau}{\epsilon^2} \ln(2/\delta)\right)}$$

$$= \frac{2}{e^{\ln(2/\delta)}}$$

$$= \delta$$

Therefore, the claim of the theorem holds.



# Streaming Setting

Not all data is static—what if the data is given to you one by one?

# Reservoir Sampling

When it comes to sampling from a stream, one of the most popular algorithm used is reservoir sampling [5].

### **Algorithm** Sample(Data stream X) from [5]

```
s \leftarrow X[1]
for i = 2, 3, ..., n do

if COIN(1/i) lands heads then

s \leftarrow X[i]
return s
```

Note: Coin(p) flips a biased coin that lands heads w.p. p.

Main property of RS: At the end, we maintain a true random sample of X.

# Streaming Algorithm

### **Algorithm** SampleTriangleStream(Stream of edges E) from [3]

```
i \leftarrow 1
for edge e = (u, v) from stream do
    if Coin(1/i) lands heads then
        a \leftarrow u: b \leftarrow v
        Pick a vertex w u.a.r. from V \setminus \{a, b\}
    x \leftarrow F; y \leftarrow F
    if e = (a, w) then x \leftarrow T
    if e = (b, w) then v \leftarrow T
    Increment i
if x \wedge y then return 1 else return 0
```

Note: We assume that we already know the vertices beforehand.

### Lemma (Output value)

Suppose that SampleTriangle outputs a value  $\beta$ . The expected output is

$$\mathbf{E}[\beta] = \frac{|T_3|}{|T_1| + 2|T_2| + 3|T_3|}$$

where  $T_i$  refers to vertex triplets with i edges in its induced subgraph.

#### Proof.

First, we will show that there are in total

$$m(n-2) = |T_1| + 2|T_2| + 3|T_3|$$

choices for the algorithm to sample an edge and a vertex. Since we pick an edge then another vertex from what remains, the LHS is obvious.

For the RHS, let  $t = \{u, v, w\}$  be a triple of vertices.

- Let  $t \in T_1$ . There is only one way of picking t. WLOG, we do this by picking edge (u, v) and vertex w.
- Let  $t \in T_2$ . There are 2 ways of picking t. WLOG, we could pick the edge (u, v) along with vertex w or pick the edge (u, w) along with vertex v.
- Let  $t \in T_3$ . There are 3 ways of picking t. Indeed, we can pick any of the three edges along with the other vertex.

#### Proof.

Notice that SampleTriangleStream returns 1 if it picks (a, b) and w such that  $\{a, b, w\} \in T_3$  and (a, b) is the first edge of the triplet that shows up in the stream. Hence,

$$\mathbf{E}[\beta] = \frac{|T_3|}{|T_1| + 2|T_2| + 3|T_3|}$$





#### Theorem

Let s be the number of parallel instances of SampleTriangleStream where instance i returns  $\beta_i$ . Similarly, let

$$\hat{\mathcal{T}}_3 = \left(\frac{1}{s} \sum_{i=1}^s \beta_i\right) \cdot m(n-2)$$

Then,

$$\mathsf{Pr}\left[\left|\left.\hat{\mathcal{T}}_{3}-\left|\mathcal{T}_{3}
ight|
ight|<\epsilon
ight]\geq1-\delta$$

for any s satisfying

$$s \geq \frac{3|T_3|}{\epsilon^2} \cdot \ln(2/\delta)$$

#### Proof.

The proof is the same as when we were picking a good T for static G.



It is easy to see that we only need O(s) space to run this algorithm where each instance requires O(1) to keep track of a, b, w.

Note also that the running time on each instance is  $O\left(1+\frac{\log m}{m}\right)$  in amortized expectation.

This is because expensive operations are when COIN lands heads which happens  $O(\log m)$  times in expectation [3].

### Degree Theorem

### Theorem (Degree Theorem [4])

Let G be a random sparse graph. That is, p = o(1). Now, let  $\Delta(\mathcal{G}(n, p))$  and  $\delta(\mathcal{G}(n, p))$  denotes the maximum and minimum degree of  $\mathcal{G}(n, p)$ , respectively, then

**1** If  $np = \omega \log n$  where  $\omega \to \infty$ , then w.h.p.

$$\delta(\mathcal{G}(n,p)) \approx \Delta(\mathcal{G}(n,p)) \approx np$$

2 Let p = c/n for some constant c > 0, then w.h.p

$$\Delta(\mathcal{G}(n,p)) \approx \frac{\log n}{\log \log n}$$

# Degree Theorem Proof - Warm Up

### Degree Theorem - (i).

Let  $X_i$  be an indicator random variable counting if edge  $i^t h$  connected to u is presented or not, so.

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i \text{ is presented} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and,

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} X_i$$

Clearly, X is binomial, so  $\mathbb{E}[X] = (n-1)p = O(np) \approx np$ .



# Degree Theorem Proof - Warm Up

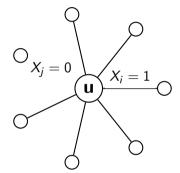


Figure: Degree Visualisation

### Degree Theorem Proof - Warm Up

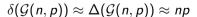
### Degree Theorem - (i).

If  $np = \omega \log n$  then

$$\Pr[\exists v : |\deg(v) - np| \ge \delta np] \le 2 \exp\left\{-\frac{\omega^{-2/3} np}{3}\right\} = 2 \exp\left\{-\frac{\omega^{1/3} \log n}{3}\right\} = \frac{2}{n^{\omega^{1/3}/3}}$$

Thus.

$$\Pr[\forall v : |\deg(v) - np| < \delta np] \ge 1 - O\left(n^{-\omega^{1/3}/3}\right)$$
 which occurs with high probability. Hence,





### Degree Theorem - (ii) Case 1 / Case 2.

We will prove the upper and lower bounds on d. Let  $d^- = \lceil \frac{\log n}{\log \log n - 2 \log \log \log n} \rceil$ , then,

$$\Pr[\exists v : \deg(v) \ge d] \le n \binom{n-1}{d} \left(\frac{c}{n}\right)^d$$

recall from many classes that  $\binom{n-1}{d} \leq \left(\frac{en}{d}\right)^d$ , so

$$\leq n \left(\frac{ec}{d}\right)^d = \frac{e^{\log n} \cdot e^d \cdot e^{d \log c}}{e^{d \log d}}$$

$$= \exp \left\{ \log n - d \log d + d + d \log c \right\} = \exp \left\{ \log n - d \log d + O(d) \right\}$$

$$\leq \exp\left\{\log n - \log n \log\log n + O(\lceil \frac{\log n}{\log\log n - 2\log\log\log n}\rceil)\right\}$$

$$\leq \exp\left\{-\log n\log\log n + O(\log n)\right\} = \exp\left\{\log n\left(O(1) - \log\log n\right)\right\}$$

$$< \exp\{-\log n\} = 1/n$$

#### Degree Theorem - (ii) Case 1 / Case 2.

$$\Pr[\forall v : \deg(v) < d^-] \ge 1 - \frac{1}{n}$$

with high probability. Now on to case 2, let  $d^+ = \lceil \frac{\log n}{\log \log n + 2 \log \log \log n} \rceil$  and  $X_d$  be the number of vertices of degree d, and  $X_{d,i}$  be respective Bernoulli r.v in  $\mathcal{G}(n,p)$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}[X_d] = \sum_{i \in I} \Pr[X_{d,i} = 1] = \sum_{i \in I} \left(\frac{c}{n}\right)^d \left(1 - \frac{c}{n}\right)^{n-d-1} = n \binom{n-1}{d} \left(\frac{c}{n}\right)^d \left(1 - \frac{c}{n}\right)^{n-d-1}$$

$$= \exp\left\{\log n - \frac{\log n}{\log \log n} (\log \log n - \log \log \log n + o(1)) + O(d)\right\} \to \infty$$

From here, the text also went to infinity and beyond and skipped directly to the results. So whatever comes after is from a fragment of my imagination adapting from another special case from another Theorem.

### Degree Theorem - (ii) Case 2.

Let's first do some acrobatics. Notice that,

$$\binom{n-1}{d} = \frac{(n-1)!}{d!(n-d)!} = \frac{(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)...(n-d)}{d!} = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{d-1}(n-i)}{d!}$$

Consider the first few expansions of the numerator, we get

$$\prod_{i=1}^{d} (n-i) = n^{d} - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} i\right) \cdot n^{d-1} + (\cdot)O\left(n^{d-2}\right) + \dots$$

$$= n^{d} + O(d^{2})n^{d-1} + O(n^{d-2}) + \dots$$

$$= n^{d} \left[1 - O(d^{2})O(1/n) + O(d^{3})O(1/n^{2}) + \dots\right]$$

$$= n^{d} \left[1 + O(d^{2})O(1/n)\right] = n^{d} \left[1 + O\left(\frac{d^{2}}{n}\right)\right]$$

#### Degree Theorem - (ii) Case 2.

$$\mathbb{E}[X_d] = n \binom{n-1}{d} \left(\frac{c}{n}\right)^d \left(1 - \frac{c}{n}\right)^{n-d-1}$$

$$= n \frac{n^d}{d!} \left(1 + O\left(\frac{d^2}{n}\right)\right) \left(\frac{c}{n}\right)^d \exp\left\{-(n-1-d)\left(\frac{c}{n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)\right)\right\}$$

$$= n \frac{c^d}{d!} \left(1 + O\left(\frac{d^2}{n}\right)\right) \exp\left\{-c + O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) + \frac{c}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{cd}{n} + O\left(\frac{d}{n^2}\right)\right\}$$

$$= n \frac{c^d}{d!} \left(1 + O\left(\frac{d^2}{n}\right)\right) \exp\left\{O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) + (1-d)\frac{c}{n} + O\left(\frac{d}{n^2}\right)\right\}$$

$$= n \frac{c^d e^{-d}}{d!} \left(1 + O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right)$$

$$= O(n)$$

### Degree Theorem - (ii) Case 2.

We now compute the following quantity,

$$\Pr[\deg(u) = \deg(v) = d] = \frac{c}{n} \left( \binom{n-2}{d-1} \left( \frac{c}{n} \right)^{d-1} \left( 1 - \frac{c}{n} \right)^{n-1-d} \right)^{2} + \left( 1 - \frac{c}{n} \right) \left( \binom{n-2}{d} \left( \frac{c}{n} \right)^{d} \left( 1 - \frac{c}{n} \right)^{n-2-d} \right)^{2}$$

First line takes care of where there is an edge between u and v, and the second is there when there isn't. So

$$= \mathbf{Pr}[\deg(u) = d]\mathbf{Pr}[\deg(v) = d] \left(1 + O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right)$$

### Degree Theorem - (ii) Case 2.

Recall that 
$$Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$$
, so

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right)^2\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n X_i X_j\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{E}\left[X_i X_j\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{Pr}[X_i = d, X_j = d]$$

Now,

$$\mathbb{E}[X]^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{Pr}[X_i = d]\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{Pr}[X_j = d]\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{Pr}[X_i = 1] \mathbf{Pr}[X_j = d]$$

So,

$$Var(X_d) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} [\mathbf{Pr}[X_i = d, X_j = d] - \mathbf{Pr}[X_i = 1] \mathbf{Pr}[X_j = d]] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} Cov(X_i, X_j)$$

### Degree Theorem - (ii) Case 2.

Substituting in earlier results yields,

$$Var(X_d) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left[ \mathbf{Pr}[\deg(u) = d] \mathbf{Pr}[\deg(v) = d] \left( 1 + O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \right) - \mathbf{Pr}[\deg(u) = d] \mathbf{Pr}[\deg(v) = d] \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i \neq j=1}^{n} \left[ \mathbf{Pr}[\deg(u) = d] \mathbf{Pr}[\deg(v) = d] O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \right] + \sum_{i=j}^{n} Cov(X_i, X_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i \neq j=1}^{n} \left[ \mathbf{Pr}[\deg(u) = d] \mathbf{Pr}[\deg(v) = d] O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \right] + \sum_{i=j}^{n} Var(X_i)$$

#### Degree Theorem - (ii) Case 2.

Variance of indicator (Bernoulli) is just pq, so

$$\mathsf{Var}(X_d) \leq \sum_{i \neq j=1}^n O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) + \sum_{i=j}^n \mathsf{Pr}[X_i = d](1 - \mathsf{Pr}[X_i = d])$$

Since 0 < p, q, < 1 and 1 = p,  $Var(1) < \mathbb{E}[1]$ , hence

$$\leq \sum_{i\neq j=1}^n O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) + \mathbb{E}[X]$$

$$=\sum_{i=1}^n\sum_{j\neq i}^nO\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)+\mathbb{E}[X]$$

$$= O(n) + O(n)$$

$$= O(n)$$

## Degree Theorem Proof

#### Degree Theorem - (ii) Case 2.

Using Chebyshev's,

$$\Pr[X_d = 0] \le \Pr[|X_d - \mathbb{E}[X_d]| \ge \mathbb{E}[X_d]] \le \frac{\operatorname{Var}(X_d)}{(\mathbb{E}[X])^2} \le \frac{O(n)}{(O(n))^2} \le O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$

Hence,

$$\Pr[X_d > 0] \ge 1 - O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$

Which occurs with high probability. From these two, we get that  $\forall v \in G, \deg(v) < d^-$ , and  $\exists u \in G : \deg(u) > d^+$ , so

$$\frac{\log n}{\log \log n + \log \log \log n} \le \deg(u) \le \frac{\log n}{\log \log n - 2 \log \log \log n}$$

$$\Omega\left(\frac{\log n}{\log \log n}\right) \le \deg(u) \le O\left(\frac{\log n}{\log \log n}\right)$$

# Global Mincut History

- **Q** Recall that a cut means a set of edge E where G/E separate G into two disjoint set A, B
- ② Note that **global mincut** is not the same as s-t mincut aka. max-flow min-cut
- Global mincut problem that asks how many edges you have to remove to disconnect a graph
- **3** Computing this is hard. The search space is large, exponentially large, however, there is a polynomial time algorithm from Stoer-Wagner computing this in  $O(|V||E| + |V|^2 \log |V|)$  time.
- **5** Today, let's look at an approximation that runs in  $O(|V|^2 \text{polylog}|V|)$  time and returns the minimum cut w.h.p.

# Global Mincut Algorithm - Karger

- The following subroutine will be useful. The subroutine will keep contracting the graph randomly until there are t vertices left.
- It picks an edge described by two vertices on the edge uniformly at random and calls a contract on it.
- **3** Contract subroutine is different from what have seen in class. Contract will replace the two vertices, u, v, with a new vertex w and take all the adjacent edges of u, v with it. Note that it doesn't merge edges, instead, it keeps all edges so this can be a multigraph.

## Algorithm CONTRACTION(Graph G, Integer t) Karger's

```
while |V(G)| > t do
 (u, v) \leftarrow \text{sample edge } e \text{ u.a.r from } G 
 G \leftarrow \text{CONTRACT}(u, v) 
return G
```

# Global Mincut Algorithm - Karger

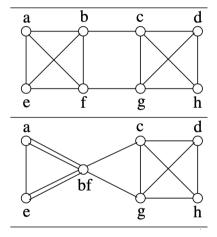


Figure: Contraction example

## Global Mincut Algorithm

• To find mincut, we call contraction(2). This produces a graph with two vertices at the end, therefore we easily get a cut which is the leftover edges between them.

$$abef \bigcirc \bigcirc cdgh$$

Figure: contraction(2) result. [1]

# Edge Survivability Probability Bound

#### Lemma

Let contraction(t) be defined as above, then after t iterations, the probability of min-cut edge surviving is.

$$extbf{Pr}[mincut\ edges\ survive] \geq rac{t(t-1)}{n(n-1)} = \Omega\left(rac{t^2}{n^2}
ight)$$

## Lemma (Edge Survivability Probability Bound)

The probability of min-cut edges being selected for contraction after  $i^{th}$  round is,  $\mathbf{Pr}[\text{min-cut edge selected}] \leq \frac{2}{n-i}$ 

$$\Pr[min\text{-}cut\ edge\ selected}] \leq \frac{2}{n-1}$$

# Edge Survival Probability After t Iterations

#### Proof.

We first calculate the probability of a mincut edge being selected. Let k be the minimum edge cut set size, and  $i^{th}$  be the iteration, then the probability that we will select any  $e_i$  is

$$Pr[Anye_j \text{ selected}] = k/|E|$$

Consider the number of edges in the graph. We know that,

$$|E| \geq (n-i)k/2$$

Otherwise, we can produce a smaller min edge cut set. Combining this yields,

$$\Pr[e_j \text{ selected}] = \frac{k}{|E|} \le \frac{k}{k(n-i)/2} = \frac{2}{n-i}$$

Therefore, the probability that no  $e_i$  is selected is

$$\Pr[\text{no } e_j \text{ selected}] \ge 1 - \frac{2}{n-i}$$

# Karger's Analysis

#### Proof.

Let the event that after t iterations the mincut edges survive by  $E_s$ , and  $E_i$  be an event that in the iteration  $i^{th}$ , the edges survive. Then, by the above inequality

$$\mathbf{Pr}[E_s] = \prod_{i=0}^{n-t-1} \mathbf{Pr}[E_i] \ge \prod_{i=0}^{n-t-1} \left( 1 - \frac{2}{n-i} \right) = \prod_{i=0}^{n-t-1} \left( \frac{n-i-2}{n-i} \right) \\
= \frac{n-2}{2} \cdot \frac{n-3}{n-1} \cdot \frac{n-4}{n-2} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{t+1}{t+3} \cdot \frac{t}{t+2} \cdot \frac{t-1}{t+1} \\
= \frac{t(t-1)}{n(n-1)} = \Omega\left(\frac{t^2}{n^2}\right)$$

If t = 2, the probability is  $\Omega(1/n^2)$ , therefore we should run this  $n^2$  times to get the mincut. Contraction runs in  $O(n^2)$  so total running time is  $O(n^4)$ .

# Fast Mincut [2]

## **Algorithm** FASTMINCUT(Graph G) Karger-Stein's

```
if |V(G)| \le 6 then |C| \leftarrow \text{brute force mincut} return |C| else |C| \leftarrow \text{contraction}(G, t), \text{contraction}(G, t) |C| \leftarrow \text{Contraction}(G, t), \text{contraction}(G, t) return |C| \leftarrow \text{Contraction}(G, t) return |C| \leftarrow \text{Contraction}(G, t)
```

# Fast Mincut Running Time

## Theorem (Fast Mincut Running Time)

(i) Let fast-mincut, contraction be defined as above, and G be any connected graph, then the total running time of fast-mincut on G is

$$T(n) = O(n^2 \log n)$$

(ii) Moreover, to produce a minimum cut of G, we runs  $c \log n$  copies leading to  $T(n) = O(n^2 \log^2 n)$ 

with high probability.

## Theorem (Minimum Cut Probability)

Running c log n copies of fast-mincut produces a mincut in at least one of the copies with high probability.

# Fast Mincut Running Time - Proof

#### Fast Mincut Running Time.

To prove (i), we consider the following recurrence of fast-mincut.

$$T(n) = 2T(\lceil 1 + n/\sqrt{2} \rceil) + O(n^2)$$

$$\approx 2T(n/\sqrt{2}) + O(n^2)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{2\log n} 2^i \cdot \frac{n^2}{2^i} = \sum_{i=1}^{2\log n} n^2$$

$$= O(n^2 \log n)$$

To prove (ii), we use theorem 16, therefore we run  $c \log n$  copies, so it follows that

$$T(n) = O(n^2 \log^2 n)$$

And it produces a minimum cut with high probability.



# Fast Mincut Analysis Intuition

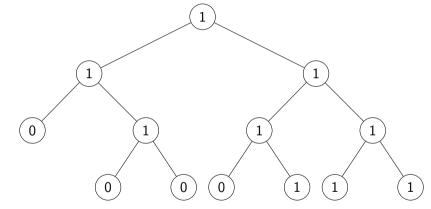


Figure: Binary Tree representing the process. 1 represents the min-cut still being in the subproblem at recursion depth *I*, and 0 otherwise.

# Minimum Cut Probability Proof

- To prove theorem 16 (minimum cut probability) we need more advanced tools
- We here present two proofs one based on Stochastic Processes and sheer power and another we will use Chernoff's bound on offspring distribution
- The main idea is to analyze this as a Galton-Watson Branching Processes with approximately binomial offspring distribution
- The setup is as follows, for each recursive call of fast-mincut, it produces  $H_1$  and  $H_2$ . If the minimum cut is in  $H_i$  we say  $Y_i$  produces an offspring. So each  $Y_i$  can produce 0, 1, or 2 offspring(s). If  $Y_i = 0$ , then both  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  do not contain minimum cut, if  $Y_i = 1$  then either one of them contains the cut, and if  $Y_i = 2$  both of them contain a cut.
- **1** The quantity of interest is then the **survival probability** after  $2 \log n$  generations. Or simply,  $1 \rho_n$ , where  $\rho_n$  is the **probability of extinction** on generation n.

# Stochastic Processes - Branching Processes

#### Definition (Branching Processes)

A Galton-Watson Branching Processes is a Discrete Time Homogenous Markov Chain that satisfies the following properties. Let  $Z_t$  be a random variable counting the number of individuals in generation  $t^{th}$  and  $Y_t^t$  be individual  $i^{th}$  at time t.

- **①** A population starts with one individual at time t = 0 so  $Z_0 = 1$ .
- 2 Every individual lives on a unit of time and produces Y offspring.
- **3** Y can tales values 0, 1, 2, ... with probability Pr[Y = k].
- 4 All individuals reproduce independently.

The collection of  $Z_n = \{Z_0, Z_1, Z_2, \ldots\}, n \in \mathbb{N}$  is called a branching process.

## Stochastic Processes - Main Theorems

#### Theorem (Distribution at time n)

Let  $G(s) = \mathbb{E}[s^Y] = \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} \Pr[y=1]s^y$  be the probability generating function of each individual Y. Let  $Z_0 = 1$ , and  $Z_n$  be the population size at time n. We now define G(s) to be the probability generating function of  $Z_n$ , then

$$G_n(s) = G(G(G(\ldots G(s)\ldots)))$$

is the composition of G n times.

#### Theorem (Expected Population Size At Time n)

Let  $\{Z_0, Z_1, Z_2, \ldots\}$  be a branching process with  $Z_0 = 1$ . Let Y denote the family size distribution, and suppose that  $\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mu$ . Then,

$$\mathbb{E}[Z_n] = \mu^n$$

## Stochastic Processes - Main Theorems

## Theorem (Extinction Probability)

Let the branching process be defined as above, G(s) be the generating function of Y,  $G_n$  be the generating function of  $Z_n$ , and  $\rho_n$  be the extinction probability at generation n. Then,

$$\rho_n = G(\rho_{n-1}) = G_n(0)$$

Moreover,

$$\rho^* \iff s = G(s)$$

where  $\rho^* = \lim_{n \to \infty} \rho_n$ .

# Minimum Cut Probability Proof

#### Minimum Cut Probability - Stochastic Processes.

Let E be the event where mincut edges survive. Then, using t, for finite n, we can show that the probability that edge in min-cut will survive contraction(t) is,

$$\Pr[E] \ge \frac{t(t-1)}{n(n-1)} = \frac{(\lceil 1 + n/\sqrt{2} \rceil)(\lceil 1 + n/\sqrt{2} \rceil - 1)}{n(n-1)} = \frac{n+\sqrt{2}}{2n-2} > \frac{1}{2}$$

Since we call this recursively and independent of each other, we can view this as a **branching process** where any node can have zero, one or two children depending on if the mincut survived in zero, one or both children. Let  $Y_i$  denotes the number of children that individual  $Y_i$  has, then

$$\mu = \mathbb{E}[Y_i] = np > 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

## Fast Mincut Probabilistic Analysis - Stochastic Processes

#### Minimum Cut Probability - Stochastic Processes.

Recall from **Stochastic Processes** the probability that a branching process will be extinct by generation n is  $\rho_n = G(\rho_{n-1}) = G_n(0)$  where  $G(\cdot)$  is probability generating function of Y, and  $G_n(\cdot)$  is  $n^{th}$  composition of G. Then, taking p = 1/2, the lower bound,

$$G(s) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Pr[Y = i] s^{i} = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2} s + \frac{1}{4} s^{2} = \frac{1}{4} (1 + s)^{2}$$

Then, for  $\rho_n$ 

$$\rho_n = \frac{1}{4} (1 + \rho_{n-1})^2$$

Now we just need to solve this recurrence.

## Recurrence - Oh no...

#### Input

$$\left\{T(n) = \frac{1}{4} \left(1 + T(n-1)\right)^2, T(0) = 0\right\}$$

#### Alternate form

$$\{(T(n-1)+1)^2 = 4 T(n), T(0) = 0\}$$

#### Expanded form

$$\left\{T(n) = \frac{1}{4} \, T(n-1)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \, T(n-1) + \frac{1}{4}, \, T(0) = 0\right\}$$

Figure: Wolfram cannot solve this. GG

## Recurrence - But Wait.

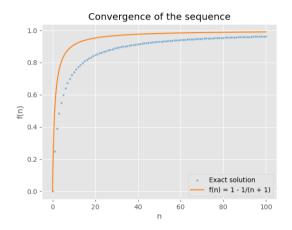


Figure: Asymptotic Recurrence Solution

## Fast Mincut Probabilistic Analysis - Stochastic Processes

#### Minimum Cut Probability - Stochastic Processes.

With divine intervention (linear regression on sampled points), we claim  $\rho_n = O(1 - 1/n)$ , then we perform inductive verification. Let  $\rho_0 = 0$  and c = 1, then

$$\rho_{n} = \frac{1}{4} \left( 1 + \rho_{n-1} \right)^{2} \le \frac{1}{4} \left( 1 + c - \frac{c}{n-1} \right)^{2} = \frac{(n-1+nc-2c)^{2}}{4(n-1)^{2}} \le \frac{(2n-3)^{2}}{4(n-1)^{2}} \\
= \left( \frac{2n-3}{2n-2} \right)^{2} = \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2n-2} \right)^{2} = 1^{2} - 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2n-2} + \left( \frac{1}{2n-2} \right)^{2} \\
= 1 - \frac{1}{n-1} + \frac{1}{(2n-2)^{2}} \\
\le 1 - \frac{1}{n}$$

For  $n \ge 2$ . So, the recurrence has asymptotic solution of O(1-1/n)

## Fast Mincut Probabilistic Analysis - Stochastic Processes

## Minimum Cut Probability - Stochastic Processes.

Since we only consider up to  $2 \log n$  layers, it follows that

$$\rho_n = 1 - 1/n = 1 - 1/\log n \le \exp\{-1/\log n\}$$

Then, if we repeat this  $c \log^2 n$  times, we get that

$$\rho_n = \prod_{i=0}^{c \log^2 n} \exp\left\{-1/\log n\right\} = \exp\left\{-c \frac{\log^2 n}{\log n}\right\} = \exp\left\{\log n^{-c}\right\} = \frac{1}{n^c}$$

So the probability of survival after  $c \log^2 n$  runs is,

 $Pr[mincut edge survive] \ge 1 - \frac{1}{n^c}$ 

which occurs with high probability.



## Fast Mincut Probabilistic Analysis - Chernoff

#### Minimum Cut Probability - Chernoff.

Here, we also show Chernoff-based proof. Consider the number of individuals on generation n. Let.

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if the individual is present,} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise, i.e parent doesn't reproduce} \end{cases}$$

and,

$$X = \sum_{i} X_{i}$$

Consider the quantity  $\mathbb{E}[X]$  which is the expected number of individual in generation n. We know that this is the same as

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[Z_{n-1}] = \mu^{n-1} = (np)^{n-1} > (1/2 \cdot 2)^{n-1} = 1$$

# Fast Mincut Probabilistic Analysis - Chernoff

#### Minimum Cut Probability - Chernoff.

Since each  $X_i \sim I(p)$  and i.i.d, for  $\delta = 1/2$ , using Chernoff's we obtain,

$$\Pr[X \le (1 - \delta)\mathbb{E}[X]] = \Pr[X \le (1 - \delta)\mathbb{E}[Z_n]] \le \exp\left\{-\frac{\delta^2}{2}\mu^{n-1}\right\} \le \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{8}\right\}$$

If we run the algorithm  $c \log n$  times, the probability of failure is at most

$$\Pr[\mathsf{fail}] \le (\exp\{-1/8\})^{c \log n} = \exp\left\{\log n^{\frac{-c}{8}}\right\} = \frac{1}{n^{c/8}}$$

So, the probability of at least one success after  $c \log n$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\mathsf{survive}] &\geq \Pr[X \leq (1 - \delta)\mathbb{E}[X]] = \Pr[X > 1/2] = \Pr[X \geq 1/2] \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{n^{c/8}} = 1 - \frac{1}{n^c} = 1 - O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \end{aligned}$$

which occurs with high probability.



# Thank you!

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