6.856 — Randomized Algorithms

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Handout #10, 2002 — Homework 4 Solutions

M. R. refers to this text:

Motwani, Rajeez, and Prabhakar Raghavan. *Randomized Algorithms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995.

Problem 1

- (a) MR Exercise 4.2. Each node $a_i b_i$ sends a packet to node $b_i a_i$ through node $b_i b_i$. There are $2^{n/2} = 2^{\frac{\log N}{2}}$ packets that have to be routed through a given node xx. Half of these packets have to flip the $(\frac{n}{2} + 1)$ -st bit. All these messages have to cross the one edge that connects xx to the node with a different $(\frac{n}{2} + 1)$ -st bit. Therefore, at least $\frac{\sqrt{N}}{2} = \Omega\left(\sqrt{N}\right) = \Omega\left(\sqrt{\frac{N}{n}}\right)$ steps are needed.
- (b) MR 4.9. Consider the transpose permutation again, and again restrict attention to packets with $b_i = 0^{n/2}$. We show that with high probability, $2^{\Omega(n)}$ packets go through vertex 0^n , which means we take time at least $2^{\Omega(n)}/n = 2^{\Omega(n)}$. For the proof, fix attention on $\binom{n/2}{k}$ packets whose a_i have exactly k ones (we'll fix k later). Note that the bit fixing algorithm must change these k ones to zeroes, and must change a corresponding k zeroes to ones. We go through vertex 0^n if all k ones in a_i are corrected to zeroes before any of the zeroes in b_i are corrected to ones. Since the corrections are in random order, meaning that the first k bits to be fixed are a random subset of the 2k that must be fixed, the probability that this happens is

$$\binom{2k}{k}^{-1}.$$

It follows that the expected number of packets hitting 0^n is

$$\frac{\binom{n/2}{k}}{\binom{2k}{k}} \geq \frac{\left(\frac{n}{2k}\right)^k}{\left(\frac{2ek}{k}\right)^k} = \left(\frac{n}{4ek}\right)^k$$

Now suppose we take k = n/8e. Then we get an expected packet number of $2^{n/8e} = 2^{\Omega(n)}$. Since each packet is deciding independently whether to go through 0^n , we can apply the Chernoff bound to deduce that at least $\frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^{n/8e}$ packets go through 0^n with high probability.

Problem 2

1. As mentioned in the problem statement, every X_i has a distribution equal to the length of a sequence of coin flips until we see the first heads. Therefore $\sum X_i$ has the same distribution as the length of a sequence of coin flips until we see the *n*-th head.

Imagine having an infinite sequence of coin flips, then $\sum X_i$ gives the position of the *n*-th head. The event $X > (1 + \delta)2n$ is therefore the same as saying that the *n*-th head does not occur among the first $(1 + \delta)2n$ coin flips. Let Y be the random variable giving the number of heads among the first $(1 + \delta)2n$ coin flips. Then we have

$$\Pr[X > (1+\delta)2n] = \Pr[Y < n]$$

Since Y is the sum of independent Poisson trials, we can apply a Chernoff bound on Y to bound the above probability. Noting that $\mu_Y = (1 + \delta)n$, we have

$$\Pr[X > (1+\delta)2n] = \Pr[Y < n] = \Pr\left[Y < (1 - \frac{\delta}{1+\delta})(1+\delta)n\right]$$
$$\leq \exp\left(-(1+\delta)n \cdot \frac{\delta^2}{2(1+\delta)^2}\right)$$
$$= \exp\left(-\frac{n\delta^2}{2(1+\delta)}\right).$$

2. (optional) Instead of considering E[X] directly, we consider $E[\exp(tX)] = E[\exp(t\sum X_i)]$ = $E[\Pi \exp(tX_i)] = \Pi E[\exp(tX_i)]$, where we fix t later. By applying a Markov bound, we obtain

$$\Pr[X > (1+\delta)2n] = \Pr[\exp(tX) > \exp(t(1+\delta)2n)]$$
$$\leq \frac{E[\exp(tX)]}{\exp(t(1+\delta)2n)}$$
$$= \frac{\Pi E[\exp(tX_i)]}{\exp(t(1+\delta)2n)} \quad (*)$$

Now we have (assuming $e^t < 2$):

$$E[\exp(tX_i)] = \frac{1}{2}e^t + \frac{1}{4}e^{2t} + \frac{1}{8}e^{3t} + \dots = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{e^t}{2}\right)^k = \frac{e^t/2}{1 - e^t/2} = \frac{e^t}{2 - e^t}$$

Substitution in (*) yields:

$$\Pr[X > (1+\delta)2n] \le \frac{e^{tn}}{(2-e^t)^n e^{t(1+\delta)2n}} = \left(\frac{1}{(2-e^t)e^{t(1+2\delta)}}\right)^n$$

Taking the derivative by t, and setting it equal to zero shows that this term takes its minimum for $t = \ln(1 + \delta/(1 + \delta))$, which implies $e^t < 2$ as desired. We therefore have the bound

$$\Pr[X > (1+\delta)2n] \le \left(\left(1 - \frac{\delta}{1+\delta}\right) \left(1 + \frac{\delta}{1+\delta}\right)^{(1+2\delta)} \right)^{-n} \quad (**)$$

This becomes a bit tighter than the result from (a) if δ becomes small. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be some small constant. Then there is some δ_0 such that for all $\delta < \delta_0$, we have:

$$1 - \delta/(1+\delta) > \exp(-\varepsilon)$$
$$(1 + \delta/(1+\delta))^{(1+\delta)/\delta} > \exp(1-\varepsilon)$$
$$\delta^2/(1+\delta) + \delta > \delta^2$$

We can use these to bound (**):

$$(**) \le \left(\exp(-\varepsilon + (1-\varepsilon)(\delta^2/(1+\delta) + \delta))\right)^{-n} \le \exp(-n((1-\varepsilon)\delta^2 - \varepsilon))$$

Thus, we come arbitrarily close to $\exp(-n\delta^2)$ as ε tends to 0.

Problem 3

(a) The probability of a sample yielding the mean of n/2 can be approximated by Stirling's formula as follows:

$$\frac{\binom{n}{n/2}}{2^n} = \frac{n!}{(n/2)!^2 2^n} \approx \frac{\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n}{\pi n \left(\frac{n}{2e}\right)^n 2^n} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi n}} = \Theta(1/\sqrt{n}).$$

It is also not hard to see that all other outcomes have lower probability. It follows that the range of values in $n/2 \pm c\sqrt{n}$ has total probability O(c), so by appropriate choice of the constant, one can achieve the desired probability of being outside the range.

(b) We use the set notation, where we have a universe U = {1,...,n}, subsets S₁, S₂, ..., S_n ⊆ U, and a partition P ⊂ U. We call a partition good for S_i if the discrepancy of S_i is at most 2/3c√n, where c is chosen according to part (a). A partition is good for a choice of sets S
= (S_i)_{i=1,...,n} if it is good for all sets.

We choose the sets as follows: we set $S_1 = U$, and let the other S_i be independent random sets that include each element with probability 1/2. We want to show that there exists a choice of sets \bar{S} , so that no partition is good for it. Using the probabilistic method, this amounts to showing:

$$\Pr_{\bar{S}}[\exists \text{ good partition } P \text{ for } \bar{S}] < 1$$

We have

$$\Pr_{\bar{S}}[\exists \text{ good partition } P \text{ for } \bar{S}] \leq \sum_{P} \Pr_{\bar{S}}[P \text{ is good for } \bar{S}]$$
$$= \sum_{P} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \Pr_{S_{i}}[P \text{ is good for } S_{i}],$$

by a union bound and the independence of the S_i . Let P be fixed in the following, and we will estimate $\prod_{i=1}^{n} \Pr_{S_i}[P \text{ is good for } S_i]$. Since $S_1 = U$, this quantity is non-zero only if

$$|P| \in [n/2 - c\sqrt{n}/3, n/2 + c\sqrt{n}/3], \quad (*)$$

since P would otherwise split S_1 too unevenly. So we can assume that P is in this range for the following.

Consider some set S_i for $i \ge 2$. Let X, Y, Z be the following random variables:

$$X = |S_i \cap P|, \quad Y = |S_i \cap \overline{P}|, \quad Z = |\overline{S}_i \cap \overline{P}|.$$

Note that all three are Poisson variables, and that Y + Z = n - |P|. So we have:

$$1 - \Pr[P \text{ is good for } S_i] = \Pr[|X - Y| \ge \frac{2}{3}c\sqrt{n}]$$

= $\Pr[|X + Z - n + |P|| \ge \frac{2}{3}c\sqrt{n}]$
= $\Pr[X + Z - n + |P| \ge \frac{2}{3}c\sqrt{n}] + \Pr[X + Z - n + |P| \le -\frac{2}{3}c\sqrt{n}]$
 $\stackrel{(*)}{\ge} \Pr[X + Z \ge n/2 + c\sqrt{n}] + \Pr[X + Z \le n/2 - c\sqrt{n}]$
= $\Pr[|X + Z - n/2| \ge c\sqrt{n}] \ge \frac{3}{4}$

It follows that the probability that P is good for S_i is at most 1/4. So we have

$$\Pr_{\bar{S}}[\exists \text{ good partition } P \text{ for } \bar{S}] \leq \sum_{P} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \Pr_{S_{i}}[P \text{ is good for } S_{i}]$$
$$\leq 2^{n} \cdot \frac{1}{4^{n-1}} < 1,$$

which proves the existence of the desired sets for large enough n.

Problem 4 In the analysis of the min-cut algorithm (cf. section 1.1 in the text), it was shown that the algorithm chooses a particular min-cut with probability $1/\binom{n}{2}$ (see page 8 of the text). If there were k different minimum cuts, then the probability that any one of them would be output is at least $k/\binom{n}{2}$. This follows from the fact that these resultant events are all disjoint; if one min-cut is chosen then no other min-cut is chosen on that run of the algorithm. If there were $\binom{n}{2}$ min-cuts, then the probability that any one at all would be chosen would be exactly 1. If there were more, the probability of a min-cut being found would be greater than one, which is a contradiction. Thus the number of min-cuts in a graph cannot exceed $\binom{n}{2}$.

Note that it is incorrect to argue that since the algorithm collapses edges until two vertices remain, and there are at most $\binom{n}{2}$ pairs of vertices that could be left at the end, the number of min-cuts is bounded by the same number. This reasoning is unsound, as multiple reductions can lead to the same pair of nodes. Consider a ring graph with four nodes, numbered clockwise 1,2,3,4. One could reduce the graph to 1,2 by contracting 3 and 4 into 1, or contracting 3 and 4 into 2. The pair 1,2 represents at least two different cuts, one separating the graph into 1 and 2,3,4 and one into 1,3,4 and 2. Thus a pair can represent more than one minimum cut, and the argument that there are $\binom{n}{2}$ pairs of vertices is insufficient to prove the bound.