

Randomized Algorithms 2020-1

Lecture 1

Min Cut Algorithm *

Moni Naor

The lecture introduces randomized algorithms. Why are they interesting? They may solve problems faster than deterministic ones, they may be essential in some settings, especially when we want to go to the sublinear time complexity realm¹, they are essential in distributed algorithms e.g. for breaking symmetry, they yield construction of desirable objects that we do not know how to build explicitly and are essential for cryptography² and privacy³. Another type of study is to analyze algorithms when assuming some distribution on the input, or some mixture of worst case and then a perturbation of the input (known as *smoothed analysis*). But our emphasis would be worst case data where the randomness is created independently of it. That is we assume the algorithm or computing device in addition to the inputs gets also a random ‘tape’ (like the other tapes of the Turing Machine, but this one with truly random symbols).

One nice feature that some randomized algorithms have is that they are simple. We demonstrated this in two algorithms (actually got only to see the min-cut algorithm).

Randomized algorithms existed for a long time, since the dawn of computing (for instance the numerical “Monte Carlo Method”⁴ from the 1940’s or Shannon’s work [8], also from that time.

The Minimum Cut Problem

The algorithm we saw demonstrates simplicity in a spectacular way. No need for flows, just pick a random edge and contract! The min-cut algorithm is due to Karger from SODA 1993 (the motivation was parallel algorithm). There is a faster version with Stein where the repetition is done in a clever way (i.e. not starting from scratch each time), yielding a near $O(n^2)$ algorithm [1] and nearly linear in [2].

*These notes summarize the material covered in class, usually skipping proofs, details, examples and so forth, and possibly adding some remarks, or pointers. In the interest of brevity, most references and credits were omitted.

¹For instance, the famed PCP Theorem, that states that every NP statement can be verified using a few queries *must* use randomness for picking the queries. Another area is property testing.

²Where no task is possible without good randomness

³Differential privacy is a notion for sanitizing data that involves necessarily randomization, e.g. adding noise to an aggregate of a population.

⁴Do not confuse with the term “Monte Carlo Algorithm” which is a general name for an algorithm whose running time is deterministic (usually polynomial) but may err.

Question: What happens if instead of picking a random edge you pick at random a pair of vertices and contract? Is the resulting algorithm a good min-cut algorithm?

The analysis of the algorithm had the form of analyzing the probability of a bad event in step i of the algorithm, given that a bad event had not occurred so far (the bad event was picking an edge from the cut). If that probability has an upper bound of P_i , then the probability of a bad event ever occurring is bounded by $\prod_{i=1}^n P_i$. In this case $P_i = 1 - 2/(n - i + 1)$.

Question: The algorithm also showed a bound on the number of min-cuts, since for every min-cut the probability of outputting this specific cut was $1/n^2$. In contrast show that for s-t cuts (where there are two input nodes s and t and should be separated, there can be exponentially many min-cuts.

Question: some student asked, what happens if the edges are sampled by picking a node $u \in V$ uniformly at random and then picking a random neighbor v of u and outputting the edge (u, v) (I assume that if there are parallel edges, then the neighbor gets the appropriate weight).

1. Show that this is *not* identical to picking an edge at random from E .
2. What can you say about the probability of success of the algorithm when edges are chosen this way?

Another important idea we discussed is *amplification*. Given an algorithm which has some small probability of success, but running it many times, as a function of the probability, we can get a high probability of success. In this case the basic algorithm had probability $1/n^2$ of finding the min-cut, so after running it n^2 time and taking the best (smallest cut) we have probability $(1 - 1/n^2)^{n^2} \approx 1/e$. Repeating it a few more times gets us high probability of success.

Entropy: what Ryan O'Donnell lecture on Entropy, number 24a and 24b from his course on a CS Theory Toolkit: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=b6x4AmjdvvY> (later on perhaps we will talk about 24c).

References

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- [3] Jon Kleinberg and Eva Tardos, **Algorithm Design**. Addison Wesley, 2006. The relevant chapter 13.
- [4] Russell Impagliazzo and Avi Wigderson, *P = BPP if E Requires Exponential Circuits: Derandomizing the XOR Lemma*, STOC 1997, pp. 220–229.
- [5] Dick Lipton's blog, "Rabin Flips a Coin", March 2009
<https://rjlipton.wordpress.com/2009/03/01/rabin-flips-a-coin/>

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