Lecture 3: Aug 28, 2018
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## 1 Karger's Mincut Algorithm

```
Algorithm 1: KargerMinCut(G):
    \(G_{0} \leftarrow G\)
    for \(i \leftarrow 1\) to \(n-2\) do
    Pick an edge \(e_{i}\) uniformly at random from \(G_{i-1}\)
    \(G_{i} \leftarrow \operatorname{CONTRACT}\left(G_{i-1}, e_{i}\right)\)
    end
    return The number of edges between two remaining vertices in \(G_{n-2}\)
```



Figure 1: An example of running KargerminCut() on a graph $G$, suppose that the red edge is selected uniformly at random in each step. In this case, the returned cut size is 4, and this is not the size of a minimum cut in $G$.

Analysis: Let $C$ be the set of edges in a mincut in $G$. Note that $G$ could have several mincuts, and $C$ is one of these chosen arbitrarily. Define following events,

1. $E_{i}=$ the edge $e_{i}$ is not $C$.
2. $F_{i}=E_{1} \cap E_{2} \cap \cdots \cap E_{i}$. Thus, $F_{i}$ is the event that none of the edges $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots e_{i}$ belongs to $C$.

Lemma 1 Let $c$ be the size of a mincut in $G$. For any edge $e$ in $G, \operatorname{CONTRACT}(G, e)$ has a mincut of size no less than $c$.

Proof: By contradiction, suppose $G^{\prime}=\operatorname{CONTRACT}(G, e)$. Let $e=\{u, v\}$. Suppose that $G^{\prime}$ has a mincut $C^{\prime}$ of size $c^{\prime}<c$. Now, we undo the $C O N T R A C T$ operation, i.e., separate out $u$ and $v$, adding edges that were originally between $u$ and $v$, and also separating out edges going to $u v$ in $G^{\prime}$ to either $u$ or $v$. Because the only new edges we added are between $u$ and $v$, and they are in the same side of the cut $C^{\prime}$, the size of this cut remains unchanged. Now, the restored graph is the exactly the same as $G$, but it has a cut of size $c^{\prime}<c$. This contracts our assumption that $c$ is the size of mincut in G.

Recall that $F_{n-2}$ is the event that none of $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots e_{n-2}$ belongs to $C$. If $F_{n-2}$ happens, we know the algorithm KargerMinCut() will return a right answer. Thus, we are interested in $\operatorname{Pr}\left(F_{n-2}\right)$ and in particular showing that $\operatorname{Pr}\left(F_{n-2}\right)$ is large enough.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(F_{n-2}\right) & =\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{1} \cap E_{2} \cap \cdots \cap E_{n-2}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{1}\right) \operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{2} \mid E_{1}\right) \operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{3} \mid E_{1} \cap E_{2}\right) \cdots \operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{n-2} \mid E_{1} \cap E_{2} \cap \cdots \cap E_{n-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

So we now calculate $\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{1}\right)$ using the fact that $\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{1}\right)=1-\operatorname{Pr}\left(\overline{E_{1}}\right)$. Since $\overline{E_{1}}$ is teh complement of $E_{1}$, it is the event that $e_{1}$ belongs to $C$. Thus,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\overline{E_{1}}\right)=\frac{c}{\text { The number of edges in } G_{0}} .
$$

Now note that the number of edges in $G_{0}$ is at least $\frac{n \cdot c}{2}$. This follows from the fact that since the size of a mincut in $G_{0}$ is $c$, every vertex in $G_{0}$ has degree at least $c$. Otherwise, we could have separated that vertex with degree less than $c$ from the rest of the graph by deleting fewer than $c$ edges. Thus, we would have a cut of size less than $c$ in $G_{0}$. Thus,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\overline{E_{1}}\right) \leq \frac{c}{n \cdot c / 2}=\frac{2}{n}
$$

and therefore

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{1}\right) \geq 1-\frac{2}{n}=\frac{n-2}{n}
$$

We will next compute $\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{2} \mid E_{1}\right)$. We use $\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{2} \mid E_{1}\right)=1-\operatorname{Pr}\left(\overline{E_{2}} \mid E_{1}\right)$. As before,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\overline{E_{2}} \mid E_{1}\right)=\frac{c}{\text { The number of edges in } G_{1}} .
$$

The number of edges in $G_{1}$ is no less than $\frac{(n-1) \cdot c}{2}$, the argument is similar to the above for $G_{0}$. Thus,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\overline{E_{2}} \mid E_{1}\right) \leq \frac{c}{(n-1) c / 2}=\frac{2}{n-1} \\
\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{2} \mid E_{1}\right) \geq 1-\frac{2}{n-1} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Similarly,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{3} \mid E_{1} \cap E_{2}\right) & \geq 1-\frac{2}{n-2} \\
\vdots & \\
\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{n-2} \mid E_{1} \cap E_{2} \cap \cdots \cap E_{n-3}\right) & \geq 1-\frac{2}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(F_{n-2}\right) & \geq\left(1-\frac{2}{n}\right)\left(1-\frac{2}{n-1}\right)\left(1-\frac{2}{n-3}\right) \cdots\left(1-\frac{2}{3}\right) \\
& \geq\left(\frac{n-2}{n}\right)\left(\frac{n-3}{n-1}\right)\left(\frac{n-4}{n-2}\right) \cdots\left(\frac{3-2}{3}\right) \\
& \geq \frac{2 \cdot 1}{n(n-1)}=\frac{2}{n(n-1)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In other words, Karger's MinCut algorithm produces a correct answer with probability $\geq \frac{2}{n(n-1)}$. To amplify the correctness probability, we repeat the alogrithm $t$ times. Then, return the smallest cut we found. The following shows the algorithm.

```
Algorithm 2: Improved KargerminCut(G):
    \(k \leftarrow \infty\)
    for \(i \leftarrow 1\) to \(t\) do
    \(z \leftarrow\) KargerMinCut(G)
    if \(z<k\) then
        \(k \leftarrow z\)
    end
    end
    return \(k\)
```

Analysis: Let $c=$ the size of minimal cut in graph $G, k$ is the number return by the algorithm. Then,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(k \neq c) \leq\left(1-\frac{2}{n(n-1)}\right)^{t}
$$

Here is an inequality that turns out to be super-useful:, $1+x \leq e^{x}$ for all reals $x$. Thus, we get

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(k \neq c) \leq e^{-\frac{2 t}{n(n-1)}}
$$

- If we pick $t=n(n-1)$, then $\operatorname{Pr}(k \neq c) \leq e^{-2}=\frac{1}{e^{2}}$.
- If we pick $t=n(n-1) \ln n$, then $\operatorname{Pr}(k \neq c) \leq e^{-2 \ln n}=\frac{1}{n^{2}}$.


## 2 Random Variables

Definition: A random variable is a variable that takes on different values with associated probabilities.

## EXAMPLE:

```
Algorithm 3:
while not }\frac{|L\}{3}\leq|\mp@subsup{L}{1}{}|\leq\frac{2|L\}{3}\mathrm{ do
    (L_, L2)\leftarrow RANDOMIZEDPARTITION(L)
end
return (L}\mp@subsup{L}{1}{},\mp@subsup{L}{2}{}
```

Let $I=$ number of iterations of the Algorihtm 3. The following is the probability distribution of $I$.

| $i$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | $\ldots$ | $i$ | $\cdots$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\operatorname{Pr}(I=i)$ | $\frac{1}{3}$ | $\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \frac{1}{3}$ | $\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{2} \frac{1}{3}$ | $\cdots$ | $\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{i-1} \frac{1}{3}$ | $\cdots$ |

Table 1: The probability distribution of $I$
This distribution is a geometric distribution with parameter $p=\frac{1}{3}$.
Definition: The expectation of a discrete random variable $X$ denoted $E[X]$ is

$$
E[X]=\sum_{i} i \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(X=i) .
$$

Following the definition, we can compute $E[I]$ by the following formula,

$$
\begin{gather*}
E[I]=\sum_{i \geq 1} i\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{i} \frac{1}{3}=\frac{1}{3} \sum_{i \geq 1} i\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{i} . \\
S=1 \cdot\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{0}+2 \cdot\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{1}+3 \cdot\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{2}+\cdots+i \cdot\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{i-1}+\cdots  \tag{1}\\
\frac{2}{3} S=\quad 1 \cdot\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{1}+2 \cdot\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{2}+\cdots+(i-1) \cdot\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{i-1}+i \cdot\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{i}+\cdots \tag{2}
\end{gather*}
$$

Subtracting (2) from (1), we get

$$
\frac{1}{3} S=\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{0}+\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{1}+\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{2}+\cdots=\frac{1}{1-2 / 3}=3
$$

Thus, $S=9$ and $E[I]=3$. In general, $E[X]=1 / p$, for a geometric random variable with parameter p.

## Lecture Notes CS:5360 Randomized Algorithms <br> Lecture 4: Aug 30, 2018 <br> Scribe: Runxiong Dong

## 3 Geometric Random Variable

Definition: A geometric random variable $X$ with parameter $p, 0<p<1$, has the following probability distribution over $i=1,2,3, \cdots$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X=i)=(1-p)^{i-1} p .
$$

It is easy to show the the probabilities indeed add upto 1 . In other words,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{i \geq 1} \operatorname{Pr}(X=i)=1 \\
& \sum_{i \geq 1} \operatorname{Pr}(X=i)=p+p(1-p)+p(1-p)^{2}+\cdots \\
&=p\left(1+(1-p)+(1-p)^{2}+\cdots\right) \\
&=p\left(\frac{1}{1-(1-p)}\right) \\
&=p \cdot \frac{1}{p} \\
&=1
\end{aligned}
$$

From line 2 to line 3 , it is because the fact that $\frac{1}{1-x}=1+x^{1}+x^{2}+\cdots$, for $0<x<1$.
Lemma 2 Let $X$ be a discrete random variable that takes on values $i=1,2,3, \cdots$.

$$
E[X]=\sum_{i \geq 1} \operatorname{Pr}(X \geq i)
$$

EXAMPLE: let $X$ be a geometric random variable with parameter $p . \operatorname{Pr}(X \geq t)=(1-p)^{t-1}$, since $\operatorname{Pr}(X \geq t)$ means that the first $t-1$ trails fail. Then, using this fact and Lemma 2, we can compute $E[X]$ as following,

$$
\begin{aligned}
E[X] & =\sum_{i \geq 1} \operatorname{Pr}(X \geq i) \\
& =\sum_{i \geq 1}(1-p)^{i-1} \\
& =\frac{1}{1-(1-p)} \\
& =\frac{1}{p} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## 4 Linearity of Expectation

Theorem 3 Let $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}, \cdots, X_{n}$ be random variables with finite expectations. Then,

$$
E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{n} E\left[X_{i}\right]
$$

Important note: no independence needed!
Definition: Independence of random variables, random variables $X$ and $Y$ are independent if all values $x, y$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X=x \cap Y=y)=\operatorname{Pr}(X=x) \operatorname{Pr}(Y=y) .
$$

EXAMPLE: let $X=$ sum of two 6 -sided dice outcomes. To compute $E[X]$, we have two ways, first directly by definition. Looking at the following probability distribution table. So we can

| $i$ | 2 | 3 | 4 | $\ldots$ | 11 | 12 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\operatorname{Pr}(X=i)$ | $\frac{1}{36}$ | $\frac{2}{36}$ | $\frac{3}{36}$ | $\ldots$ | $\frac{2}{36}$ | $\frac{1}{36}$ |

Table 2: The probability distribution of $X$
calculate $E[X]$ as follows.

$$
E[X]=\sum_{i=2}^{12} \operatorname{Pr}(X=i) \cdot i
$$

However, this sum is kind of tedious to deal with. So let us look at this another way, using linearity of expectation. For $i=1,2: X_{i}=$ outcome of $i^{t h}$ dice. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
X & =X_{1}+X_{2} \\
E[X] & =E\left[X_{1}+X_{2}\right] \\
& =E\left[X_{1}\right]+E\left[X_{2}\right] \\
& =2 E\left[X_{1}\right] \\
& =2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} \cdot(1+2+3+4+5+6) \\
& =7
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 4 Let $X, Y$ be random variables with finite expectation, then $E[X+Y]=E[X]+E[Y]$.

Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
E[X+Y] & =\sum_{i} \sum_{j}(i+j) \operatorname{Pr}(X=i \cap Y=j) \\
& =\sum_{i} \sum_{j} i \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(X=i \cap Y=j)+\sum_{i} \sum_{j} j \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(X=i \cap Y=j) \\
& =\sum_{i} i \sum_{j} \operatorname{Pr}(X=i \cap Y=j)+\sum_{j} j \sum_{i} \operatorname{Pr}(X=i \cap Y=j) \\
& =\sum_{i} i \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(X=i)+\sum_{j} j \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(Y=j) \\
& =E[X]+E[Y]
\end{aligned}
$$

## 5 Coupon Collector's Problem

Suppose each box of cereal contain one of $n$ distinct coupons, and assume a coupon in a box is chosen uniformly at random from $n$ distinct coupons. You win once you obtain at least one of every distinct type of coupon. The question is how many boxes of cereal you must buy to win. Let $X=$ the number of boxes to buy for winning. Apparently, $X$ is a random variable, you can be luck enough so that only buy $n$ boxes to win, but this is just high unlikely when $n$ is large. We are interested in $E[X]$. Let $X_{i}=$ the number of boxes you need to buy while you have $i-1$ distinct coupons.


Figure 2: The visualization of buying enough cereal boxes to win
By the definition of $X_{i}, i=1,2, \cdots, n$.

$$
X=X_{1}+X_{2}+\cdots+X_{n}
$$

$X_{i}$ is a geometric random variable with $p=\frac{n-(i-1)}{n}$. Thinking of $X_{i}$, when you have $i-1$ distinct coupons, the probability to obtain a new distinct coupon is $1-\frac{i-1}{n}=\frac{n-(i-1)}{n}$, every time you buy one cereal box. Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E\left[X_{i}\right]=\frac{1}{p}=\frac{n}{n-(i-1)} \\
E[X]= & E\left[X_{1}+X_{2}+X_{3}+\cdots+X_{n}\right] \\
= & E\left[X_{1}\right]+E\left[X_{2}\right]+E\left[X_{3}\right]+\cdots+E\left[X_{n}\right] \\
= & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{n}{n-i+1} \\
= & n \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n-i+1} \\
= & n\left(1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\cdots+\frac{1}{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$H_{n}$ is the $n^{\text {th }}$ harmonic number,

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{n} & =1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\cdots+\frac{1}{n} \\
& =\ln n+O(1)
\end{aligned}
$$

## 6 Randomized QuickSort

```
Algorithm 4: QuickSort( \(L[1 . . n]\) ):
/* Assume \(L\) contains distinct elements, which can be removed later
\(c \leftarrow\) some constant
if \(n \leq c\) then
    BubbleSort ( \(L\) )
    return \(L\)
else
    \(p \leftarrow\) index chosen from \(\{1,2,, \cdots, n\}\) uniformly at random
    \(L_{1}, L_{2} \leftarrow \varnothing\)
    for \(i \leftarrow 1\) to \(n\) do
        if \(L[i]<L[p]\) then
            \(L_{1} \leftarrow L_{1} \circ L[i]\)
        end
        if \(L[i]>L[p]\) then
            \(L_{2} \leftarrow L_{2} \circ L[i]\)
            end
    end
    QuickSort \(\left(L_{1}\right)\)
    QuickSort \(\left(L_{2}\right)\)
end
return \(L_{1} \circ L[p] \circ L_{2}\)
```

In the worst case, QuickSort form $\Omega\left(n^{2}\right)$ comparison. If the pivot is always the median of current array, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& T(n)=2 T\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil\right)+O(n) \\
& T(n)=O(n \log n)
\end{aligned}
$$

This is the best case, and we don't have to be that lucky, if pivot partition $L$ into sublists $L_{1}, L_{2}$ such that

$$
\frac{|L|}{3} \leq\left|L_{1}\right| \leq \frac{2|L|}{3}
$$

we can also have a good running time on expectation. If the above relation fulfilled, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& T(n)<T\left(\frac{n}{3}\right)+T\left(\frac{2 n}{3}\right)+O(n) \\
& \Rightarrow \quad T(n)=O(n \log n)
\end{aligned}
$$

$L_{1}, L_{2} \leftarrow$ RandomizedPartition $(L)$ is a way to achieve it.

