

15-251: Great Ideas in Theoretical Computer Science

Lecture 19: Randomized Algorithms I



Nov 1st, 2018

Most Common 3 Random Variables

Bernoulli Random Variable

$X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ means:

“ X is a Bernoulli random variable with success probability p .”

$X = \text{Bernoulli}(p)$

$$\Pr[X = 1] =$$

$$\Pr[X = 0] =$$

$$\text{So } \text{range}(X) =$$

Check:

$$\mathbb{E}[X] =$$

Binomial Random Variable

$X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$ means:

$$X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$

where $X_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ for all $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$,

and the X_i 's are independent.

So $\text{range}(X) = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$

Check:

$$\Pr[X = i] =$$

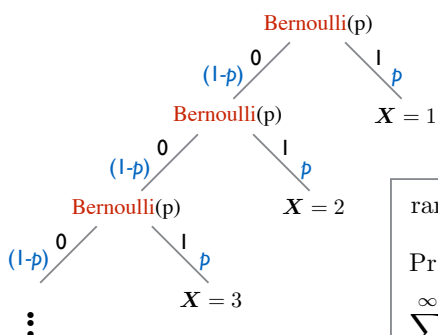
$$\mathbf{E}[X] =$$

Geometric Random Variable

$X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$ means:

“number of p -biased coin flips until we see **H** for the first time.”

Geometric Random Variable



$$\text{range}(X) = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

$$\Pr[X = i] =$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr[X = i] = 1$$

(geometric sum)

$$\mathbf{E}[X] =$$

Markov's Inequality

A non-negative random variable X is rarely much bigger than its expectation $E[X]$.



Theorem:

Let X be a random variable that is always non-negative.
Then for any $c \geq 1$,

Randomized Algorithms

Randomness and algorithms

How can randomness be used in computation?

Given some algorithm that solves a problem:

- (i) the input can be chosen randomly
- (ii) the algorithm can make random choices

Which one will we focus on?

Randomness and algorithms

What is a randomized algorithm?

A *randomized algorithm* is an algorithm that is allowed to “**flip a coin**” (i.e., has access to random bits).

In 15-251:

A randomized algorithm is an algorithm that is allowed to call:

Randomness and algorithms

A randomized algorithm computes a decision/computational problem if _____
(what?)

Deterministic vs Randomized

Deterministic

```
def A(x):  
    y = 1  
    if(y == 0):  
        while(x > 0):  
            x = x - 1  
    return x+y
```

Randomized

```
def A(x):  
    y = Bernoulli(0.5)  
    if(y == 0):  
        while(x > 0):  
            x = x - 1  
    return x+y
```

For any fixed input (e.g. $x = 3$):

- the **output**
- the **running time**

- the **output**
- the **running time**

Deterministic vs Randomized

A **deterministic algorithm** A computes $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ in time $T(n)$ means:

- **correctness**: $\forall x \in \Sigma^*$,
- **running time**: $\forall x \in \Sigma^*$,

Note: we require **worst-case** guarantees for **correctness** and **run-time**.

Deterministic vs Randomized

A Try

A **randomized algorithm** A computes $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ in time $T(n)$ means:

- **correctness**: $\forall x \in \Sigma^*$,
- **running time**: $\forall x \in \Sigma^*$,

Is this interesting?

$$\forall x \in \Sigma^*$$

Deterministic

Correctness

Run-time

Randomized

Type 0
Type 1
Type 2
Type 3

	Correctness	Run-time
Type 0		
Type 1		
Type 2		
Type 3		

Type 0:
Type 1:
Type 2:
Type 3:

Example: Battleship

Input: An array B with $n/4$ 1's and $3n/4$ 0's.

Output: An index that contains a 1.

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	

Example: Battleship

Input: An array B with $n/4$ 1's and $3n/4$ 0's.

Output: An index that contains a 1.

Deterministic

Randomized

Type 1 (Monte Carlo)

Type 2 (Las Vegas)

Example: Battleship

Input: An array B with $n/4$ 1's and $3n/4$ 0's.

Output: An index that contains a 1.

Correctness

Run-time

Monte Carlo

Las Vegas

Formal Definitions

Formal Definition: Deterministic

Let $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ be a computational problem.

We say that deterministic algorithm A computes f in time $T(n)$ if:

$$\forall x \in \Sigma^*, \quad A(x) = f(x)$$

$$\forall x \in \Sigma^*, \quad \# \text{ steps } A(x) \text{ takes is } \leq T(|x|).$$

Picture:



Deterministic:

Formal Definition: Monte Carlo

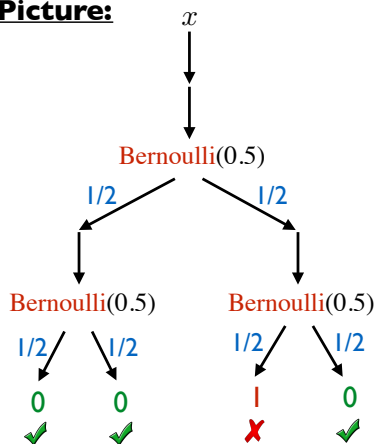
Let $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ be a computational problem.

We say that randomized algorithm A is a $T(n)$ -time **Monte Carlo algorithm** for f with ϵ error probability if:

$$\forall x \in \Sigma^*,$$

$$\forall x \in \Sigma^*,$$

Picture:



Monte Carlo:

Each input x induces a probability tree.

Formal Definition: Las Vegas

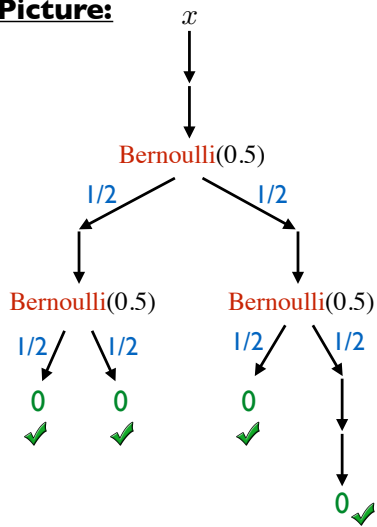
Let $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ be a computational problem.

We say that randomized algorithm A is a $T(n)$ -time **Las Vegas algorithm** for f if:

$$\forall x \in \Sigma^*,$$

$$\forall x \in \Sigma^*,$$

Picture:



Las Vegas:

Each input x induces a probability tree.

More Examples

3 IMPORTANT PROBLEMS

Integer Factorization

Input: integer N

Output: a prime factor of N

isPrime

Input: integer N

Output: True if N is prime.

Generating a (random) n -bit prime

Input: integer n

Output: a (random) n -bit prime

Most crypto systems start like:

- pick two random n -bit primes P and Q .
- let $N = PQ$. (N is some kind of a "key")
- (more steps...)

We should be able to do **efficiently** the following:

- check if a given number is prime.
- generate a random prime.

We should **not** be able to do **efficiently** the following:

- given N , find P and Q . (the system is broken if we can do this!!!)

isPrime

```
def isPrime(N):  
    if (N < 2): return False  
    maxFactor = round(N**0.5)  
    for factor in range(2, maxFactor+1):  
        if (N % factor == 0): return False  
    return True
```

Problems:

isPrime

Amazing result from 2002:

There is a poly-time algorithm for isPrime.



Agrawal, Kayal, Saxena

However, best known implementation is $\sim O(n^6)$ time.
Not feasible when $n = 2048$.

isPrime

So that's **not** what we use in practice.

Everyone uses the **Miller-Rabin** algorithm (1975).



CMU
Professor



The running time is:

Why is the previous result a breakthrough?

Generating an n-bit prime

```
repeat:  
  let N be a random n-bit number  
  if isPrime(N): return N
```

Prime Number Theorem (informal):

⇒ expected run-time of the above algorithm ~

No poly-time deterministic algorithm is known
to generate an n -bit prime!!!

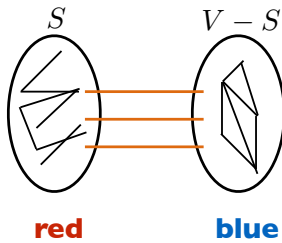
Randomized Algorithms meet Approximation Algorithms

Randomized approximation algorithms for
optimization problems

Cut Problems

Max Cut Problem (Ryan O'Donnell's favorite problem):

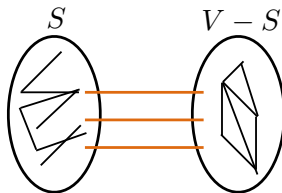
Given a connected graph $G = (V, E)$,
color the vertices **red** and **blue** so that the number of
edges with two colors ($e = \{u, v\}$) is maximized.



Cut Problems

Max Cut Problem (Ryan O'Donnell's favorite problem):

Given a connected graph $G = (V, E)$,
find a subset $S \subset V$ such that
number of edges from S to $V - S$ is maximized.



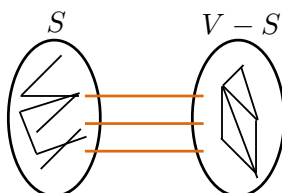
size of the cut = # edges from S to $V - S$.

Max Cut Problem is **NP**-hard!

Cut Problems

Min Cut Problem (my favorite problem):

Given a connected graph $G = (V, E)$,
find a non-empty subset $S \subset V$ such that
number of edges from S to $V - S$ is **minimized**.



size of the cut = # edges from S to $V - S$.

Randomized Approximation Algorithm for Max Cut

Most Useful Equality in Probability Theory:

Linearity of Expectation

$$\mathbf{E}[X + Y] = \mathbf{E}[X] + \mathbf{E}[Y]$$

X and Y need not be independent!

($\mathbf{E}[X \cdot Y] = \mathbf{E}[X] \cdot \mathbf{E}[Y]$ not always true!)

Most Useful Type of Random Variable:

Indicator Random Variable

Event \rightarrow Random Variable

Let A be an event. The *indicator r.v.* for A is:

$$I_A = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } A \text{ occurs} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\Pr[I_A = 1] =$$

$$\mathbf{E}[I_A] =$$

High Level Idea

Want to compute $E[X]$:

Write $X = I_1 + I_2 + \cdots + I_n$. (sum of indicator r.v.'s)

Then $E[X] =$

$=$

$=$

$=$

Approximation Alg. for Max Cut

Analysis

NEXT TIME:

**Monte Carlo Algorithm
for Min Cut**
