Lecture 1: Introduction

John Sylvester Nicolás Rivera Luca Zanetti Thomas Sauerwald



Lent 1920

Introduction

Probability Reviews

Our first randomised Algorithm



Probability and Computation

What? Randomised algorithms utilise random bits to compute their output.

Why? A randomised algorithm often provides an efficient (and elegant!) solution or approximation to a problem that is costly to solve deterministically.

"... If somebody would ask me, what in the last 10 years, what was the most important change in the study of algorithms I would have to say that people getting really familiar with randomized algorithms had to be the winner."

How? This theory course aims to strengthen your knowledge of probability theory and apply this to analyse examples of randomised algorithm.

"What if I don't care about randomised algorithms?"

Much of the theory in this course (Markov Chains, Concentration of measure, Spectral theory) is very relevant to current "hot" areas of research and employment such as Data science and Machine learning.





Randomised Algorithms



Graph Clustering/Sparsification





Particle Processes



Teaching Plan

- Probability and Concentration (4 lectures) Nicolas Rivera .
- Markov Chains (4 lectures) John Sylvester.
- Spectral techniques for MC's and algorithms (4 lectures) Luca Zanetti.
- Applications to randomised algorithms (4 lectures) Thomas Sauerwald.

Running along side these lectures will be

Problem classes (6/7 total) - Hayk Saribekyan and Leran Cai.

Lecture and Problem class times

- Lectures: Monday and Wednesday 2pm-3pm in LT2
- Problem class: Friday 2pm-3pm in LT2 (Starting 24th Jan)

Assessment

- Recall: There is a "tick style" Homework Assessment to be submitted by 2pm Monday 27th Jan via moodle and at reception.
- There will also be a 1.5 hour Written Test at the end of the term (Friday 13th March)



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In this course we will assume some basic knowledge of probability:

- random variable
- computation of mean and variance
- notions of independence
- general ideas of how to compute probabilities (manipulation and some counting)

You should also be familiar with some basic computer science/discrete mathematics knowledge like

- graphs
- basic algorithms (sorting, some graph algorithm, etc)



In Probability Theory we wish to evaluate the likelihood of certain results from an experiment. The setting of this is the *Probability Space* $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mathbf{P})$.





To ground the previous definition. Consider the outcome of a die.

- Sample Space: {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}
- Event Space: All subsets of {1,2,3,4,5,6}.
 Example of event: "The outcome is even" ={2,4,6}
- Probability measure: $\mathbf{P}[\mathcal{E}] = |\mathcal{E}|/6$. Example: $\mathbf{P}[$ "The outcome is even" $] = \mathbf{P}[\{2, 4, 6\}] = 3/6 = 1/2$.



We can do the same with two dice.

- Sample Space: {(1,1), (1,2), ..., (6,6)}
- Event Space: All subsets of {(1, 1), (1, 2), ..., (6, 6)}.
 Example of event: "The sum of the dice is 10" ={(4, 6), (5, 5), (6, 4)}
- Probability measure: $P[\mathcal{E}] = |\mathcal{E}|/36$. Example: P[" The sum of the dice is 10"] = 3/36 = 1/12



A *Random Variable X* on $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mathbf{P})$ is a function $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ mapping each sample "outcome" to a real number.

Examples of Random variables: Consider our example with two dice.

- The canonical random variables are X_1 and X_2 that output the value of the first and second die, respectively E.g. $X_1(2,3) = 2$, and $X_2(2,3) = 3$
- Y takes value 1 if the second die is greater than the first one, otherwise it is 0.

E.g. Y(2,3) = 1, Y(6,1) = 0

• Operations between random variables give new random variables. $Z = X_1 + X_2$ represent the sum.

E.g.
$$Z(2,3) = X_1(2,3) + X_2(2,3) = 2 + 3 = 5.$$

Usually, we do not write the $X(\omega)$ and we just write X, since we do not really care about evaluating X, and it help us to see the idea of random behind it.



Given a random variable X. We write the events $\{X = k\}$ and $\{X \le k\}$ as shortcut of

$$\{X = k\} = \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = k\}$$
$$\{X \le k\} = \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \le k\}$$

E.g. with the two dice

$$\{X_1 + X_2 = 10\} = \{\omega \in \Omega : X_1(\omega) + X_2(\omega) = 10\} = \{(4, 6), (5, 5), (6, 4)\}$$



Moments of a Random Variable

For $k \ge 1$ the k^{th} *Moment* of X is denoted $\mathbf{E}[X^k]$ and given by

$$\mathbf{E}\left[X^{k}\right] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} X(\omega)^{k} \cdot \mathbf{P}[\{\omega\}].$$

The *variance* of *X*, denoted **Var** [*X*], is given by

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[X\right] = \operatorname{\mathsf{E}}\left[\left(X - \operatorname{\mathsf{E}}[X]\right)^2\right]$$

The variance measures how much a random variable moves from it means.

E.g. Consider the two dice example, and let X_1 and X_2 the value of the first and second die respectively.

$$\mathbf{E}[X_1] = \sum_{i=1}^{6} \sum_{j=1}^{6} X_1((i,j)) \mathbf{P}[(i,j)] = \sum_{i=1}^{6} \sum_{j=1}^{6} \frac{j}{36} = \sum_{i=1}^{6} \frac{j}{6} = 3.5$$

Exercise: Let Z_1 and Z_2 be two random variables, and let a, b be constants. Prove that $\mathbf{E}[aZ_1 + bZ_2] = a\mathbf{E}[Z_1] + b\mathbf{E}[Z_2]$. **Exercise:** Prove that $Var[X] = \mathbf{E}[X^2] - (\mathbf{E}[X])^2$



Probability Mass Function

For a random variable *X* taking values in x_1, \ldots, x_n , we define its probability mass function $p_X : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ as

$$p_X(x) = \mathbf{P}[X = x].$$

The cumulative distribution function $F_X : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ of the random variable X is

$$F_X(x) = \mathbf{P}[X \leq x].$$

Recall that p_X or F_X are enough to compute moments of random variables.

Most of the random variables in this course are of discrete nature, meaning that they take a countable number of values. We will not discuss a lot about continuous random variables, but it is good to be comfortable with continuous distributions such as the Normal or Exponential distributions.



Most random variables are named after the shape of their pmf or cdf.

$$p_X(x) = \mathbf{P}[X = x].$$

- X is Bernoulli (also, X has Bernoulli distribution) of parameter $p \in (0, 1)$ if $p_X(1) = p$ and $p_X(0) = 1 p$
- X is Binomial of parameter (n, p) with $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $p \in (0, 1)$ if for $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$

$$p_X(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

- X is Geometric of parameter p if for $k \in \{1, 2, ..., \}$, $p_X(k) = p(1-p)^{k-1}$
- X is Poisson of parameter λ if for $k \in \{0, 1, ..., \}$, $p_X(k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$

Exercise: Compute the mean and variance of random variables with the distributions above.



- We say that to events $\mathcal{E}_1, \mathcal{E}_2 \in \Sigma$ are independent if and only if

$$\mathbf{P}[\mathcal{E}_1 \cap \mathcal{E}_2] = \mathbf{P}[\mathcal{E}_1] \mathbf{P}[\mathcal{E}_2].$$

■ In general, *E*₁,..., *E*_n are (mutually) independent if and only if for any subset *A* of {1,..., *n*} we have

$$\mathbf{P}[\cap_{i\in A}\mathcal{E}_i] = \prod_{i\in A} \mathbf{P}[\mathcal{E}_i].$$

- Two random variables X, Y are independent if for every x, y ∈ ℝ the events {X ≤ x} and {Y ≤ y} are independent.
- A collection of random variables X₁,..., X_m are (mutually) independent if for every x₁,..., x_n ∈ ℝ the events {X₁ ≤ x₁},..., {X_n ≤ x_n} are (mutually) independent.

Notation: Sometimes it is easier to write P[A, B] instead of $P[A \cap B]$



Consider again the two dice examples. Let X_1 and X_2 the random variables giving the outcome of the first and second die, respectively. We check that X_1 and X_2 are independent.

- $\mathbf{P}[X_1 \le k_1] = \mathbf{P}[\{(i,j) : i \le k, j \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}\}] = k_1 \times 6/(36) = k/6$
- $\mathbf{P}[X_1 \le k_1, X_2 \le k_2] = \mathbf{P}[\{(i, j) : i \le k_1, j \le k_2\}] = k_1 \times k_2/36$

Exercise. Let *X* and *Y* be two independent random variables with pmf p_X and p_Y . Suppose that *X* takes values x_1, \ldots, x_n and that *Y* takes values y_1, \ldots, y_m .

- 1. Prove that $\mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i p_X(x_i)$ and $\mathbf{E}[Y] = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i P_Y(x_j)$.
- 2. Prove that if X and Y are independent. Then f(X) and g(Y) are also independent for any function f and g.
- 3. Prove that $\mathbf{E}[XY] = \mathbf{E}[X]\mathbf{E}[Y]$
- 4. Prove that $\operatorname{Var}[X + Y] = \operatorname{Var}[X] + \operatorname{Var}[Y]$



Given two events *A* and *B* with P[B] > 0. We denote the conditional probability of *A* given *B* as P[A|B] and it is defined as

$$\mathbf{P}[A|B] = \frac{\mathbf{P}[A \cap B]}{\mathbf{P}[B]}.$$



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E (*A*, *B*): set of edges with one endpoint in $A \subseteq V$ and the other in $B \subseteq V$.

- MAX-CUT Problem

- Given: Undirected graph G = (V, E)
- Goal: Find $S \subseteq V$ such that $e(S, S^c) := |E(S, V \setminus S)|$ is maximised.

Applications:

- Semi-supervised learning
- Data mining

Comments:

- Max-Cut is NP-hard
- NP-hard to approximate with ratio $> 16/17 \approx .941$





— Algorithm: RandMaxCut —

Input G = (V, E). -Start with $S = \emptyset$. -For each $v \in V$ add v to S independently with probability 1/2. Return S.



Running any randomised algorithm induces a probability space.

Algorithm: RandMaxCut Given G = (V, E) as input we output a cut-set S. -Start with $S = \emptyset$. -For each $v \in V$ add v to S independently with probability 1/2. Return S.

This is an example of a *Product Space*.

RandMaxCut on G with |V| = n generates a Probability space $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mathbf{P})$ with

- $\Omega = \{0,1\}^n = \{(\omega_1,\ldots,\omega_n), \omega_i \in \{0,1\} \forall i\}.^1$
- Σ = P({0,1}ⁿ) (the family of all subsets of Ω)
- **P** is given by $\mathbf{P}[\omega] = \frac{1}{2^n}$
- For example the event $\{i \in S\}$ above: $\mathbf{P}[i \in S] = |\{\omega \in \Omega : \omega_i = 1\}|/2^{-n} = 1/2$.

 ${}^{1}{0,1}^{n} = {0,1} \times \cdots \times {0,1}$ is a Cartesian product of sets ${0,1}$.



In practice, we don't need to define the probability space but it is good to know it is there.



In this algorithm, we are interested in the size of the cut created from our (random) set S, i.e. $e(S, S^c)$.

- In the analysis of randomised algorithm it is very important to have simple description of random variables
- Lets find a simple way of writting $e(S, S^c)$.
- Define X_i as 1 if vertex $i \in S$, 0 otherwise. X_i is what we call an **indicator** random variable
- For $i \neq j$, The event $\{X_i(1 X_j) + (1 X_i)X_j = 1\} = \{i \in S, j \in S^c\} \cup \{i \in S^c, j \in S\}$, that is $Y_{ij} = X_i(1 X_j) + (1 X_i)X_j$ indicates whether vertices *i* and *j* are in different sides of the partition.
- $e(S, S^c) = \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} Y_{ij}$



Simple Randomised Algorithm for Max-Cut

• Define X_i as 1 if vertex $i \in S$, 0 otherwise

•
$$Y_{ij} = X_i(1 - X_j) + (1 - X_i)X_j$$

• $e(S, S^c) = \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} Y_{ij}$

We can analyse the size of the cut. Let's compute its expectation

$$\mathbf{E} [e(S, S^{c})] = \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \mathbf{E} [Y_{ij}]$$

$$= \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \mathbf{E} [X_{i} (1 - X_{j}) + (1 - X_{i}) X_{j}]$$

$$= \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \mathbf{E} [X_{i}] \mathbf{E} [1 - X_{j}] + \mathbf{E} [1 - X_{i}] \mathbf{E} [X_{j}] = (1/2) |E|$$

Hence, we conclude that

$$\frac{1}{2}|E| = \mathsf{E}\big[\, \textit{e}(S,S^c)\,\big] \leq \max_{S}\textit{e}(S,S^c) \leq |E| \leq 2\mathsf{E}\big[\,\textit{e}(S,S^c)\,\big]$$

Thus, in expectation, our algorithm gives us a 2-approximation of the Max-Cut.



Let's measure how much the random variable $e(S, S^c)$ moves from its mean. We would like to compute the variance but it is a bit hard.

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E} \Big[e(S, S^c)^2 \Big] &= \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \sum_{\{k,\ell\} \in E} \mathbf{E} \big[Y_{ij} Y_{k\ell} \big] \\ &= \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \mathbf{E} \big[Y_{ij} \big] + \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \sum_{\{k,\ell\} \neq \{i,j\}} \mathbf{E} \big[Y_{ij} Y_{k\ell} \big] \\ &\leq \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \mathbf{E} \big[Y_{ij} \big] + \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \sum_{\{k,\ell\} \in E} \mathbf{E} \big[Y_{ij} \big] \mathbf{E} \big[Y_{k\ell} \big] \\ &= \mathbf{E} \big[e(S, S^c) \big] + \mathbf{E} \big[e(S, S^c) \big]^2 \\ \end{split}$$
In this course you don't have to be afraid of inequalities.



We have

$$\mathsf{E}\big[\, \textit{e}(\textit{S},\textit{S}^{c})\,\big] \leq \mathsf{E}\big[\,\textit{e}(\textit{S},\textit{S}^{c})\,\big] + \mathsf{E}\big[\,\textit{e}(\textit{S},\textit{S}^{c})\,\big]^{2}$$

Then using that **Var** $[X] = \mathbf{E}[X^2] - \mathbf{E}[X]^2$, we get

 $\operatorname{Var}\left[e(S, S^{c}) \right] \leq \operatorname{E}\left[e(S, S^{c}) \right].$

Next class we will see that this upper bound on the variance implies that the random variable is very close to its mean.

