

# Probabilistic Method and Random Graphs

## Lecture 10. The Method of Counting&Expectation

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<sup>1</sup>The slides are mainly based on Chapter 6 of Probability and Computing.

# Recap of Lecture 9

- Threshold phenomenon in E-R random graphs
  - Sharp threshold function of connectivity:  $\frac{\ln n}{n}$
  - That of the existence of major component :  $\frac{1}{n}$
  - Threshold function of cycles:  $\frac{1}{n}$
- W.h.p. a Hamiltonian cycle can be found in time  $O(n \ln n)$  in  $\mathcal{G}_{n,p}$  with  $p \geq 40 \frac{\ln n}{n}$ 
  - Independent adjacency list model

# Recap of Lecture 9

- Though elegant, E-R model is not practical
  - It can't be both sparse and heterogenous
- Random graphs with fixed degree distribution
  - Bollobas, about 1980
- Preferential attachment model
  - Barabasi&Albert, 1999
- Rewired ring model
  - Watts&Strogatz, 1998

# Probabilistic Method

## -Elegance from graph theory

- A warm-up example:
  - $n$  players against each other
  - “Top- $k$ ” players get prize

	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	Score
G1		3:1	5:3	4:2	0:1	3
G2			1:3	3:2	2:1	2
G3				0:2	1:0	2
G4					3:2	2
G5						1

- But, are you sure no **controversy** exists?
  - Controversy: a loser defeated all prize-winners
- Unfortunately, when  $k$  is small and  $n$  is big, controversy does exist w.h.p.
  - $k = 1$ . Controversy exists unless the prize-winner defeated all the other plays

# Proof (non-constructive)

Theorem: For small  $k$  and big  $n$ , controversy exists w.h.p.

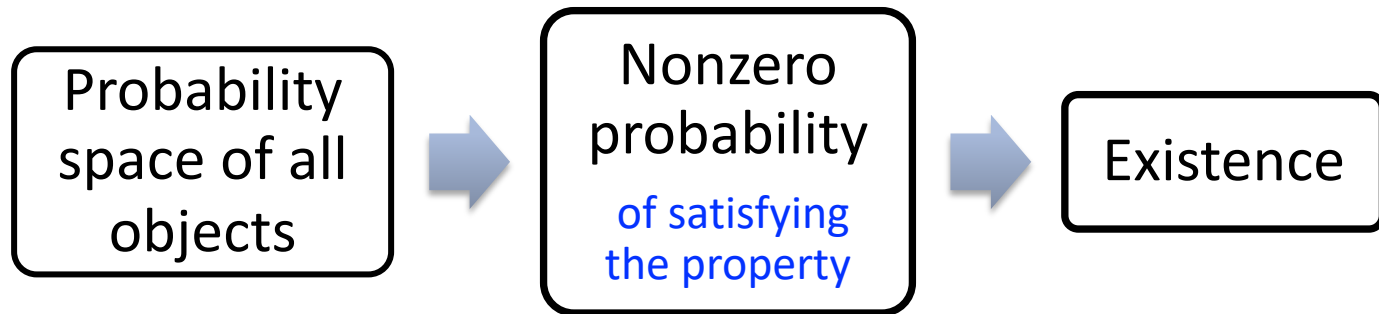
- $S$ : random  $k$ -subset of players
- $A_S$ : no controversy if  $S$  get prize
  - i.e. no another player defeated all players in  $S$
- Consider a random tournament
- $\Pr(A_S) = (1 - 2^{-k})^{n-k}$
- $\Pr(\text{no controversy}) \leq \Pr(\cup A_S) \leq \sum \Pr(A_S)$ 
$$= \binom{n}{k} (1 - 2^{-k})^{n-k}$$
$$= o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$
- Find a controversial one? Just sampling

Cool?

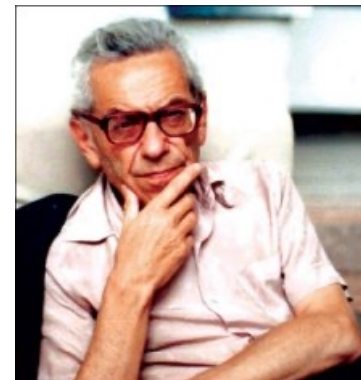
A piece of cake in **probabilistic method!**

# What is the Probabilistic Method?

- **Proving the existence** of an object that satisfies a certain property, **without constructing** it
- Underlying principle

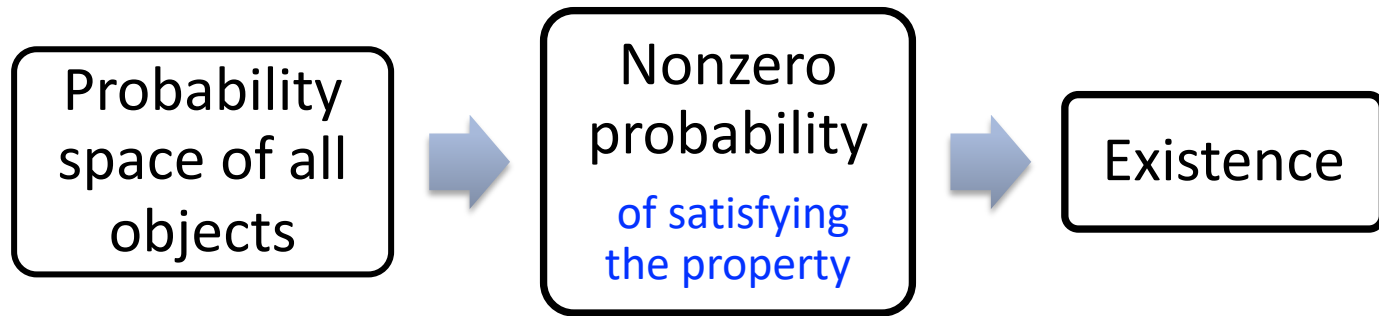


- Pioneered by Erdős in 1940's



# What is the Probabilistic Method?

- **Proving the existence** of an object that satisfies a certain property, **without constructing** it
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- Pioneered by Erdős in 1940's
- Naturally lead to (randomized) algorithms



# Main Probabilistic Methods

- Counting argument
- First-moment method
- Second-moment method
  - Higher-moment method
- Lovasz local lemma

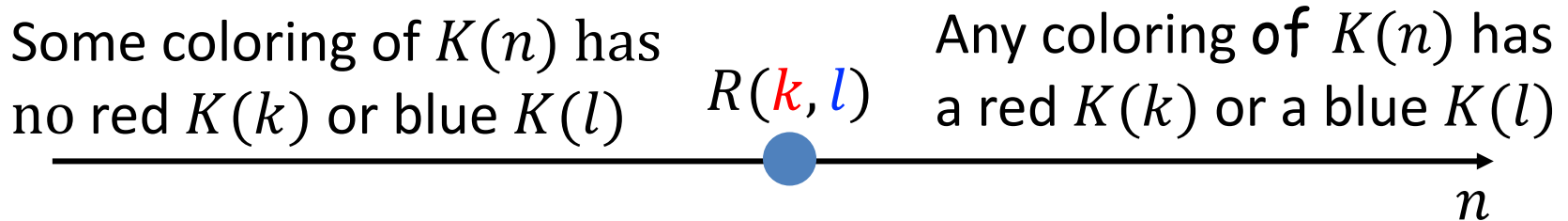
Algorithms

# Counting Argument

- Construct a probability space and calculate the probability
- Algorithm design: sampling
- Application
  - Tournament
  - Ramsey number: an observation by S. Szalai, 1950's

# Ramsey Number

- Given integers  $k, l, n$ , 2-color the edges of  $K(n)$ 
  - Is there a red  $K(k)$  or a blue  $K(l)$ ?
  - Not guaranteed for small  $n$
- Ramsey number  $R(k, l)$ 
  - the smallest  $n$  such that any 2-coloring of  $K(n)$  must have a red  $K(k)$  or a blue  $K(l)$



# Ramsey Number is Well Defined

- Ramsey Theorem:  $R(k, l)$  is finite for any  $k, l$ 
  - Ramsey proved it in 1930 and determined  $R(3,3) = 6$
  - Origin of Ramsey theory
    - The existence of rather big good substructure in a large structure
  - How much is  $R(k, l)$ ?



# Ramsey Number is Well Defined

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  - Ramsey proved it in 1930 and determined  $R(3,3)$
  - Origin of Ramsey theory
    - The existence of rather big good substructure in a large structure
  - How much is  $R(k, l)$ ?
- Upper bound:  $R(k, l) \leq R(k - 1, l) + R(k, l - 1)$ 
  - Proved by P. Erdős and G. Szekeres in 1935
  - The 2<sup>nd</sup> cornerstone of Ramsey theory
  - By  $R(k, 2) = R(2, k) = k$ ,  $R(k, l) \leq \binom{k + l - 2}{k - 1}$
  - It implies  $R(k, k) \leq 4^k$ 
    - Best:  $k^{-c \frac{\ln k}{\ln \ln k}} 4^k$  by Conlon in 2009,  $k^{-c \ln k} 4^k$  by Sah in 2020

# Known bounding ranges

$r \backslash s$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3			6	9	14	18	23	28	36	40–42
4				18	25 <sup>[5]</sup>	36–41	49–61	59 <sup>[10]</sup> –84	73–115	92–149
5					43–48	58–87	80–143	101–216	133–316	149 <sup>[10]</sup> –442
6						102–165	115 <sup>[10]</sup> –298	134 <sup>[10]</sup> –495	183–780	204–1171
7							205–540	217–1031	252–1713	292–2826
8								282–1870	329–3583	343–6090
9									565–6588	581–12677
10										798–23556

1989

2017

1997(49)

Vigleik Angeltveit; Brendan McKay (2017). “ $R(5,5) \leq 48$ ”. [arXiv](#)

# Proof of the upper bound

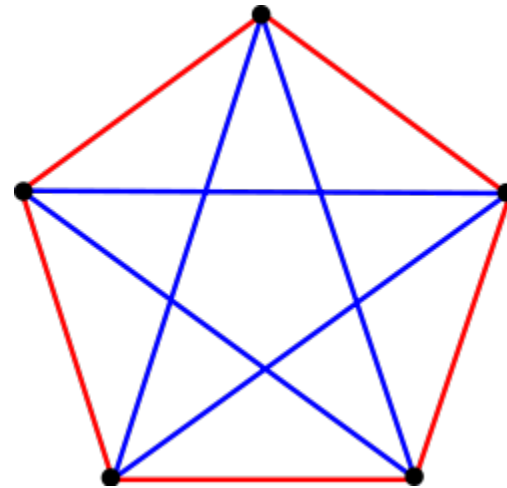
Theorem:  $R(k, l) \leq R(k - 1, l) + R(k, l - 1)$

- 2-color the complete graph on  $R(k - 1, l) + R(k, l - 1)$  vertices
- Pick a vertex  $u$ . Define subgraphs  $G_r$  and  $G_b$ :
  - $\forall v \neq u, v \in \begin{cases} G_r & \text{if } (u, v) \text{ is red} \\ G_b & \text{if } (u, v) \text{ is blue} \end{cases}$
- Either  $|G_r| \geq R(k - 1, l)$  or  $|G_b| \geq R(k, l - 1)$
- Do case-by-case analysis

# Example: Ramsey Number $R(3,3)$

$$R(3,3) \leq 6$$

Actually,  $R(3,3) > 5$





# Lower bound of $R(k, k)$

- $R(k, k) > 2^{k/2} = \sqrt{2}^k$  (Erdős, 1947)
  - Best:  $[1 + o(1)] \frac{k}{e} \sqrt{2}^{1+k}$  by Spencer in 1975
- For any complete graph with at most  $2^{k/2}$  vertices, there is a 2-coloring without monochromatic  $K(k)$
- Prove by the **probabilistic method**

Prove  $R(k, k) > 2^{k/2}$

- Randomly 2-color edges of  $K(n)$ 
  - Uniform distribution on all 2-coloring
- $A_S$ : the subgraph on  $S$  is monochromatic
  - $S$  is a random  $k$ -subset of the vertices
- $\Pr(A_S) = 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}}$
- $\Pr(\cup_S A_S) \leq \binom{n}{k} 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}} < \frac{2^{1+\frac{k}{2}} n^k}{k! \frac{k^2}{2^2}} < 1$  (If  $n = \lfloor 2^{k/2} \rfloor$ )
- $\Pr(\cap_S \overline{A_S}) > 0$ , so there is a coloring avoiding all  $A_S$

# Randomized Algorithms

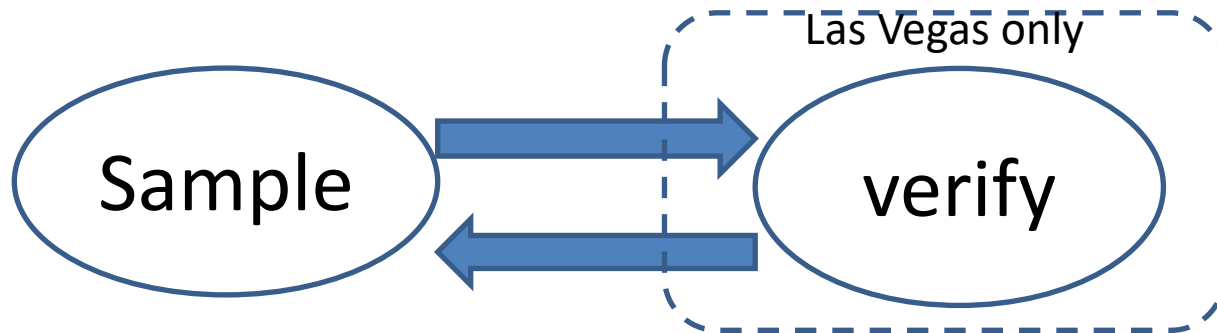
- But how to find a **good** coloring? By sampling!
- General approach

Sample

Monte Carlo

# Randomized Algorithms

- But how to find a **good** coloring? By sampling!
- General approach



- Prerequisites
  - Efficient sampling
  - Small probability of failure
  - Efficient verification (Las Vegas only)

# First-Moment method

- Use the expectation in probabilistic reasoning
- Two types of first-moment method

- Expectation argument

$$\Pr(X \geq \mathbb{E}[X]) > 0, \Pr(X \leq \mathbb{E}[X]) > 0$$

- Markov's inequality for non-negative  $X$

- $\Pr(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{a}$

- When  $X$  is integer-valued,

$$\Pr(X \neq 0) = \Pr(X > 0) = \Pr(X \geq 1) \leq \mathbb{E}[X]$$

# First-Moment argument

- 3-CNF Boolean formula
  - $(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge \dots \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee \overline{x_3} \vee x_4)$
- For such a formula, at most how many clauses can be satisfied simultaneously?
  - **MAX-3SAT** is NP-hard

# First-Moment argument

- 3-CNF Boolean formula
  - $(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge \dots \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee \overline{x_3} \vee x_4)$
- Theorem: there is a truth assignment which satisfies  $\geq \frac{7}{8}$ -fraction of the clauses
- Proof:
  - Randomly assign truth values to each variable
  - Define r.v.  $X_i$  indicating whether clause  $i$  is true
  - $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \frac{7}{8} \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{7}{8}n$  with  $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$
  - The theorem holds since  $\Pr(X \geq \mathbb{E}[X]) > 0$

# Remark

- Probability of sampling a good truth assignment  $\geq \frac{1}{n+1}$ , leading to an efficient alg.
  - Optimum, since impossible to get a  $\left(\frac{7}{8} + \varepsilon\right)$ -approx.
    - J. Hastad. Some optimal inapproximability results. STOC 1997



# Proof of $\Pr\left(\sum X_i \geq \frac{7}{8}n\right) \geq \frac{1}{n+1}$

- Let  $X = \sum X_i$  and  $p = \Pr\left(X \geq \frac{7}{8}n\right)$

- $\frac{7}{8}n = \mathbb{E}[X]$

$$= \sum_{i < \frac{7}{8}n} i * \Pr(X = i) + \sum_{i \geq \frac{7}{8}n} i * \Pr(X = i)$$

$$\leq \left(\frac{7}{8}n - \frac{1}{8}\right) (1 - p) + np$$

$$= \frac{7}{8}n - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{n+1}{8}p$$

# Expectation argument

- Turán Theorem
  - Any graph  $G=(V,E)$  contains an independent set of size at least  $\frac{|V|}{D+1}$ , where  $D = \frac{2|E|}{|V|}$
- Proof: Consider the following **random process** for constructing an independent set  $S$ :
  - Initialize  $S$  to be the empty set
  - Repeat: randomly choose a vertex  $u$  outside the neighborhood of  $S$  and add  $u$  to  $S$
  - Return  $S$

# Proof (Continued)

- $S$  is an independent set
- Vertex  $u$  is selected with probability  $\geq \frac{1}{d(u)+1}$ 
  - See the next slide
- So,  $\mathbb{E}[|S|] \geq \sum \frac{1}{d(u)+1} \geq \frac{|V|}{D+1}$  due to convexity
- **Remark:** probability of sampling a good independent set is  $\geq \frac{1}{2D|V|^2}$

$$\text{Proof: } \Pr(u \text{ is selected}) \geq \frac{1}{d(u)+1}$$

- $u$  is selected if and only if  $A$  occurs
  - $A$ : when sampling first occurs in the neighborhood of  $u$ ,  $u$  rather than its neighbors is sampled
    - Neighborhood:  $u$  and its then-valid neighbors
  - Denote the neighborhood by  $N$ , and the number of then-valid neighbors by  $x$ . Note that  $x \leq d(u)$
- $\Pr(A) = \Pr(u \text{ is chosen} \mid \text{sampling occurs in } N)$ 
$$= \frac{1}{x+1} \geq \frac{1}{d(u)+1}$$

# References

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