Randomized Algorithms Lecture 10: the probabilistic method, ramsey numbers, and random graphs

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Graphs and Ramsey's Theorem

Theorem

[Ramsey,1928] (a special case, for graphs) For any positive integer, *k*, there is a positive integer, *n*, such that in any undirected graph with at least *n* vertices:

- either there are k vertices that form a k-clique.
- or, there are k vertices that form a k-independent-set.

For each integer $k \ge 1$, let R(k) be the smallest such integer $n \ge 1$ such that every undirected graph with *n* or more vertices has either a *k*-clique or a *k*-independent-set as an induced subgraph.

The numbers R(k) are called diagonal Ramsey numbers.

Proof of Ramsey's Theorem: Consider any integer $k \ge 1$, and any graph, $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ with at least $n = 2^{2k}$ vertices.

Initialize: $S_{Clique} := \{\}; S_{IndSet} := \{\};$ for i := 1 to 2k - 1 do Pick any vertex $v_i \in V_i;$ if $(v_i$ has at least 2^{2k-i} neighbors in G_i) then $S_{Clique} := S_{Clique} \cup \{v_i\}; V_{i+1} := \{\text{neighbors of } v_i\};$ else (* in case v_i has at least 2^{2k-i} non-neighbors in G_i *) $S_{IndSet} := S_{IndSet} \cup \{v_i\}; V_{i+1} := \{\text{non-neighbors of } v_i\};$ end if Let $G_{i+1} = (V_{i+1}, E_{i+1})$ be the subgraph of G_i induced by V_{i+1} ; end for

At the end, all vertices in S_{Clique} form a clique, and all vertices in S_{IndSet} form an independent set. Since $|S_{Clique} \cup S_{IndSet}| = 2k - 1$, either $|S_{Clique}| \ge k$ or $|S_{IndSet}| \ge k$. Q.E.D.

Remarks on the proof, and on Ramsey numbers

• The proof establishes that
$$R(k) \le 2^{2k} = 4^k$$
.

- **Question:** Can we give a better upper bound on *R*(*k*)?
- **Question:** Can we give a good lower bound on *R*(*k*)?



Paul Erdös (1913-1996)

Immensely prolific mathematician, eccentric nomad, father of the probabilistic method in combinatorics.

Lower bounds on Ramsey numbers: the birth of the Probabilistic Method

Theorem (Erdös, 1947) For all $k \ge 3$,

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

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Recall the **general idea of the probabilistic method**: to show the **existence** of a hard-to-find object with a desired property, Q, try to construct a probability distribution over a sample space Ω of objects, and show that with positive probability a randomly chosen object in Ω has the property Q.

Random Graphs

Definition The $G_{n,p}$ random graph model

A random graph G = (V, E) sampled from $G_{n,p}$ is obtained as follows:

- *G* has n = |V| nodes.
- For each of the ⁿ₂ possible pairs, {u, v}, with u, v ∈ V and u ≠ v, to determine whether or not {u, v} ∈ E, we flip an (independent) coin, which lands heads with probability p (and tails with probability (1 − p)). If it lands heads then {u, v} ∈ E; otherwise {u, v} ∉ E.

Proof that $R(k) > 2^{k/2}$ **using the probabilistic method:** Consider a random graph G = (V, E) sampled from $G_{n,\frac{1}{2}}$. (We will later determine that letting $n \le 2^{k/2}$ suffices.)

Let $V = \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$. Note that for $v_i \neq v_j$, $\Pr(\{v_i, v_j\} \in E) = \frac{1}{2}$. There are $\binom{n}{k}$ subsets of V of size k. Let $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_{\binom{n}{i}}$ be an enumeration of these subsets of V.

For $i = 1, 2, ..., {n \choose k}$, let E_i be the event that S_i forms either a k-clique or a k-independent-set in the graph. Note that:

$$\Pr(E_i) = 2 \cdot 2^{-\binom{k}{2}} = 2^{-\binom{k}{2}+1}$$

Proof of $R(k) > 2^{k/2}$ (continued):

Note that $E = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\binom{n}{k}} E_i$ is the event that there exists either a *k*-clique or a *k*-independent-set in the graph. But:

$$\Pr(E) = \Pr(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\binom{n}{k}} E_i) \le \sum_{i=1}^{\binom{n}{k}} \Pr(E_i) = \binom{n}{k} \cdot 2^{-\binom{k}{2}+1}$$

Question: How small must *n* be so that $\binom{n}{k} \cdot 2^{-\binom{k}{2}+1} < 1$?

For
$$k \ge 2$$
: $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1)}{k(k-1)\dots 1} < \frac{n^k}{2^{k-1}}$

Thus, if $n \leq 2^{k/2}$, then

$$\binom{n}{k} \cdot 2^{-\binom{k}{2}+1} < \frac{(2^{k/2})^k}{2^{k-1}} \cdot 2^{-\binom{k}{2}+1} = \frac{2^{k^2/2}}{2^{k-1}} \cdot 2^{-k(k-1)/2+1}$$
$$= 2^{\frac{k^2}{2}-k+1} \cdot 2^{-\frac{k^2}{2}+\frac{k}{2}+1} = 2^{-\frac{k}{2}+2}$$

Completion of the proof that $R(k) > 2^{k/2}$:

For all k > 4, $2^{-\frac{k}{2}+2} < 1$. So, for $k \ge 4$, $\Pr(E) < 1$, and thus $P(\overline{E}) = 1 - P(E) > 0$. But note that $P(\overline{E})$ is the probability that in a random graph of size $n < 2^{k/2}$, there is no *k*-clique and no *k*-independent-set. Thus, since $Pr(\overline{E}) > 0$, such a graph must exist for any $n < 2^{k/2}$. Hence, $R(k) > 2^{k/2}$, for k > 4. It is easy to argue "by hand" that R(3) = 6, and clearly $6 > 2^{3/2} =$ 2.828

Hence, for all $k \ge 3$, $R(k) > 2^{k/2}$.

A randomized algorithm?

- ▶ The proof directly yields a randomize Monte Carlo algorithm for generating a random graph $G \sim G_{n,1/2}$ of size $n << 2^{k/2}$ which, with high probability, will have no k-clique and no k-independent set.
- However, checking whether a graph, G has a k-clique (or kindependent set), given both G and k as input, is NP-complete. So, we can't check it efficiently for large k.
- Hence, we have no way to convert this Monte Carlo algorithm to an efficient randomized Las Vegas algorithm that always produces a graph with no k-clique and no k-independent set.

Remarks on Ramsey numbers

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Despite decades of research by many combinatorists, nothing significantly better was known until very recently! In particular: no constant c > √2 is known such that c^k ≤ R(k), and no constant c' < 4 was known such that R(k) ≤ (c')^k.

Major breakthrough (!!) announced this year: [Campos,Griffiths,Morris, Sahasrabudhe,2023]: There is a fixed constant $\epsilon > 0$ (specifically, $\epsilon = 2^{-7}$), such that for all sufficiently large k: $R(k) \le (4 - \epsilon)^k$.

For specific small *k*, more is known:

$$R(1) = 1$$
; $R(2) = 2$; $R(3) = 6$; $R(4) = 18$
 $43 \le R(5) \le 48$
 $102 \le R(6) \le 165$

Why can't we just compute R(k) exactly, for small k?

For each *k*, we know that $2^{k/2} < R(k) < 2^{2k}$,

So, for small fixed k, we could try to check, exhaustively, for each r such that $2^{k/2} < r < 2^{2k}$, whether there exists a graph G with r vertices such that G has no k-clique and no k-independent set.

Question: How many graphs on *r* vertices are there?

There are $2^{\binom{r}{2}} = 2^{r(r-1)/2}$ (labeled) graphs on r vertices. So, for $r = 2^k$, we would have to check $2^{2^k(2^k-1)/2}$ graphs!! So for k = 5, just for $r = 2^5$, we have to check 2^{496} graphs !!

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Maximum Satisfiability (MAXSAT)

A propositional boolean formula in Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF), is a conjunction of disjunctive clauses, where each disjunctive clause is a "Or" of literals: $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \cup \{\neg x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$. An example of a CNF formula looks something like this:

 $(x_1 \vee \neg x_2 \vee \neg x_3) \wedge (\neg x_1 \vee \neg x_2) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3 \vee x_4) \wedge \dots$

The MAX-*k***-SAT problem**: Given a CNF formula, φ , with *n* variables and *m* clauses, where each clause has at most *k* literals, what is the maximum number clauses that can be simultaneously satisfied by a true/false assignment to all the variables?

Theorem: MAX-*k*-SAT is NP-hard, for all $k \ge 2$. In fact, it is NP-hard even to approximate the maximum number of clauses within some constant factor (the constant depending on k when there are exactly *k* literals in each clause).

Theorem

Given a CNF boolean formula with m clauses, where each clause contains at least k literals, there exists a truth assignment to the variables that satisfies at least $m \cdot (1 - \frac{1}{2^k})$ clauses.

(In particular, note that this means that for a 3-CNF formula where every clause contains exactly 3 literals, there exists an assignment that satisfies a 7/8 fraction of the clauses.)

Proof: Randomly assign true or false, with probability 1/2 each, independently, to each of the *n* variables.

The probability that the *i*'th clause, with k_i literals, is satisfied is $(1 - \frac{1}{2^{k_i}})$. Hence, the expected total number of clauses that are satisfied (using linearity of expectation) is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} (1-2^{-k_i}) \ge m(1-2^k).$$

- This proof can be converted to a randomized Las Vegas algorithm (with expected polynomial running time) for computing such a truth assignment that satisfies 7/8 fraction of the clauses, when every clause has exactly 3 literals (MAX-E-3SAT).
- Furthermore, the algorithm can be derandomized, using the method of conditional expectations.

Astonishingly:

Theorem

[Hastad,2001] If for any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a polynomial-time $(\frac{7}{8} + \epsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for MAX-E-3SAT, then $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$.

The proof (beyond the scope of this course) involves much of the deep theoretical developments behind the **PCP** ("Probabilitically Checkable Proof") characterization of **NP**.

References

- Chapter 6, sections 6.1-6.3 of [MU].
- We will continue with Chapter 6 and the probabilistic method next time.