CS 6550: Randomized Algorithms

Spring 2019

Lecture 21: 2-SAT, MC Basics, and Page Rank

April 2, 2019

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**Disclaimer**: These notes have not been subjected to the usual scrutiny reserved for formal publications.

# 21.1 2-SAT

We can solve a 2-SAT problem in a polynomial time by reducing it to finding strongly connected components of a directed graph. Alternatively, we can solve it via a randomized algorithm. Here is a simple algorithm that solves 2-SAT.

#### 21.1.1 A randomized algorithm

This randomized algorithm finds a satisfying assignment of a 2-SAT problem and outputs it.

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Algorithm 1: Algorithm

input : 2-SAT problem with clauses C_1, \ldots, C_n

output: a satisfying assignment \sigma, if exists
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- 1 start with an arbitrary assignment  $\sigma_0$ ;
- 2 for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $k \cdot n^2$  do
- **3** take an unsatisfied clause C of  $\sigma_{i-1}$ ;
- 4 choose a random literal in C and satisfy it;
- **5** call the new assignment  $\sigma_i$ ;
- 6 if  $\sigma_i$  satisfies the problem then
- 7 output  $\sigma_i$

#### 21.1.2 Analysis

Fix a satisfying assignment, and call it  $\tau$ . Let  $\sigma_t$  be the assignment of the algorithm at the *t*-th iteration. Let  $X_t = \#$  of variables that agree between  $\sigma_t$  and  $\tau$ . If  $X_t = n$ , then the algorithm found a satisfying assignment. Also,  $X_t$  is a random walk in  $\{0, \ldots, n\}$ .

Claim 21.1  $Pr(X_{t+1} = i + 1 | X_t = i) \ge \frac{1}{2}$ 

**Proof:** Consider the unsatisfied clause C that is updated in  $X_t \to X_{t+1}$ . We know that  $\tau$  satisfies C. Hence, one or more of the 2 variables in C have opposite assignments between  $\tau$  and  $\sigma_t$ . Then, one or less of the 2 variables agree between  $\sigma_t$  and  $\tau$ .

Consider an unbiased walk  $y_t$  such that  $Pr(y_{t+1} = i + 1 | y_t = i) = Pr(y_{t+1} = i - 1 | y_t = i) = \frac{1}{2}$ . Couple with  $X_t$  so that

- If  $y_t = n$ , then  $X_t = n$  or  $\sigma_t$  is a satisfying assignment.
- If  $y_{t+1} = y_t + 1$ , then  $X_{t+1} = X_t + 1$ .

Let's define

- $T_j$  = time to reach  $X_t = n$  starting from  $X_0 = j$ .
- $h_j = \mathbb{E}[T_j].$

**Claim 21.2**  $h_0 \le n^2$ 

**Proof:** We have the following recurrence relation

$$h_j = 1 + \frac{1}{2}h_{j+1} + \frac{1}{2}h_{j-1}$$

It follows that

$$h_{j} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}h_{j+1} + \frac{1}{2}h_{j-1}$$
$$\iff 2h_{j} = 2 + h_{j+1} + h_{j-1}$$
$$\iff h_{j} - h_{j+1} = h_{j-1} - h_{j}$$

Given the base case  $h_0 - h_1 = 1$ ,  $h_j - h_{j+1} = 2j + 1$ . Then,

$$h_{0} = (h_{0} - h_{1}) + (h_{1} - h_{2}) + \dots + (h_{n-1} - h_{n})$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (h_{i} - h_{i+1})$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (2i + 1)$$

$$= 2(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i) + n$$

$$= \frac{2n(n-1)}{2} + n$$

$$= n^{2} - n + n$$

$$= n^{2}$$

Consequentially,

$$h_0 = \begin{cases} O(n^2), & \text{biased} \\ O(n\log n), & \text{unbiased} \end{cases}$$

## 21.2 Markov Chain

### 21.2.1 Definitions

**Definition 21.3**  $Pr(X_{t+1}|X_t = i_t, X_{t-1} = i_{t-1}, \dots, X_0 = i_0) = Pr(X_{t+1} = j|X_t = i_t)$  is called the Markov property.

**Definition 21.4** If a sequence of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  satisfies the Markov property,  $X_t$  is called a Markov chain on  $\{0, 1, \ldots, n\}$ .

**Definition 21.5** Let  $X_t$  be a Markov chain on a state space  $\Omega = \{1, 2, ..., N\}$ . Then, the transition matrix  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  is defined by

$$P(i,j) = Pr(X_{t+1} = j | X_t = i)$$

 $Also,\ it\ follows\ that$ 

$$P^t(i,j) = Pr(X_t = j | X_0 = i)$$

**Definition 21.6** A Markov chain is called irreducible if  $\forall i, j \in \Omega$ ,  $\exists t \text{ such that } P^t(i, j) > 0$ . In other words, the graph on  $P^t$  is one strongly connected component.

**Definition 21.7** A Markov chain is called aperiodic if  $\forall i \in \Omega$ , its period = 1. The period of a state *i* is defined by  $gcd(t: p^t(i, i) > 0)$ .

**Definition 21.8** A Markov chain is ergodic if and only if it is both irreducible and aperiodic.

**Definition 21.9** A stationary distribution  $\pi$  of a Markov chain is a distribution of state probabilities satisfying  $\pi P = \pi$ .

Example:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.2 & 0 & 0.5 & 0.3 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 & 0 \\ 0.7 & 0 & 0 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then,

$$P^{20} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.244190 & 0.244187 & 0.406971 & 0.104652\\ 0.244187 & 0.244186 & 0.406975 & 0.104651\\ 0.244181 & 0.244185 & 0.406984 & 0.104650\\ 0.244195 & 0.244188 & 0.406966 & 0.104652 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \pi = \lim_{t \to \infty} P^t \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0.2442 \\ 0.2442 \\ 0.4070 \\ 0.10465 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### 21.2.2 Properties

**Theorem 21.10** An ergonic, finite Markov chain has a unique stationary distribution  $\pi$ . Also, for all  $x_0 \in \Omega, j \in \Omega, \lim_{t \to \infty} Pr(X_t|X_0) = \pi(j)$ .

In order to find a stationary distribution  $\pi$ , we need Gaussian Elimination. However,  $|\Omega|$  is usually very big.

Claim 21.11 If P is symmetric, then  $\pi = uniform(\Omega)$ .

**Proof:** Let's verify that for  $\pi(i) = \frac{1}{N}, \pi P = \pi$ .

$$\begin{split} (\pi P)(i) &= \sum_{k \in \Omega} \pi(k) P(k, i) \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k \in \Omega} P(k, i) \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k \in \Omega} P(i, k) \qquad \qquad (P \text{ is symmetric}) \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \qquad \qquad (P \text{ is stochastic}) \end{split}$$

**Claim 21.12** *P* is reversible with respect to  $\pi$  if

$$\forall i, j \in \Omega, \pi(i)P(i, j) = \pi(j)P(j, i)$$

In the equation above,  $\pi$  is a stationary distribution.

#### **Proof:**

$$(\pi P)(i) = \sum_{k \in \Omega} \pi(k) P(k, i)$$
$$= \sum_{k \in \Omega} \pi(i) P(i, k)$$
$$= \pi(i) \sum_{k \in \Omega}$$
$$= \pi(i)$$

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**Example:** Consider a random walk on a d-regular undirected graph G. For edge(i, j),

$$P(i,j) = P(j,i) = \frac{1}{d}.$$

So, it is symmetric and

$$\pi(i) = \frac{1}{n} \text{ for } n = |V|.$$

Now, consider a random walk on a non-regular undirected graph G. Then,

$$\pi(i) = \frac{d(i)}{z}$$

where d(i) = degree of i, and  $z = \sum_j d(j) = 2m$ . It follows that

$$\pi(i)P(i,j) = \frac{d(i)}{z} \cdot \frac{1}{d(i)} = \frac{1}{z} = \pi(j)P(j,i).$$

# 21.3 PageRank

PageRank is a method to assign "importance" to webpages.

## 21.3.1 Problem Statement

Consider a graph G, where V = webpages and E = directed edges corresponding to hyperlinks.

- Idea 1: A link is a citation, so count the number of in-edges.
- Idea 2: Weight outgoing links by the number of hyperlinks on t. So, if page x has d outgoing links, then each gets  $\frac{1}{d}$  of a citation. Hence, it is like a random walk

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x:x\bar{y}\in E} \frac{1}{d(x)}$$

• Idea 3: Weight a page by its  $\pi(x)$ , hence:

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x:x\vec{y} \in E} \frac{\pi(x)}{d(x)}$$

This corresponds to the stationary distribution of the random walk on the web graph. The stationary distribution  $\pi$  is not necessarily unique because the graph may not be ergodic. In order to make it ergodic,

- 1. Choose  $0 < \alpha < 1$ .
- 2. From page  $x \in V$ ,
  - with prob  $\alpha$ , choose a random out-edge.
  - with prob  $1 \alpha$ , choose a random vertex in the whole graph.

Then, G is clearly ergodic and has a unique stationary distribution  $\pi$ . Also,  $\pi$  is the PageRank vector.

# References

[1] Norris, James R. Markov Chains. In Cambridge University Press, 1997.