

6.842 Randomness & Computation : Lecture 1

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What is course about?

- How can randomness help?
 - algorithm design
simpler, faster, new problems
 - show existence of combinatorial objects
expander graphs, codes, good solutions
 - easy to verify proofs
interactive proofs, PCPs
 - distributed algorithms
 - learning, testing algorithms

Do we require randomness?

- can we do without it?
- can we use less?
- in what settings do we need it?

Settings where randomness is inherent:

- uniform generation - approximate counting
- learning theory
- testing

Relation to complexity theory

- hardness vs. randomness
- hardcore sets

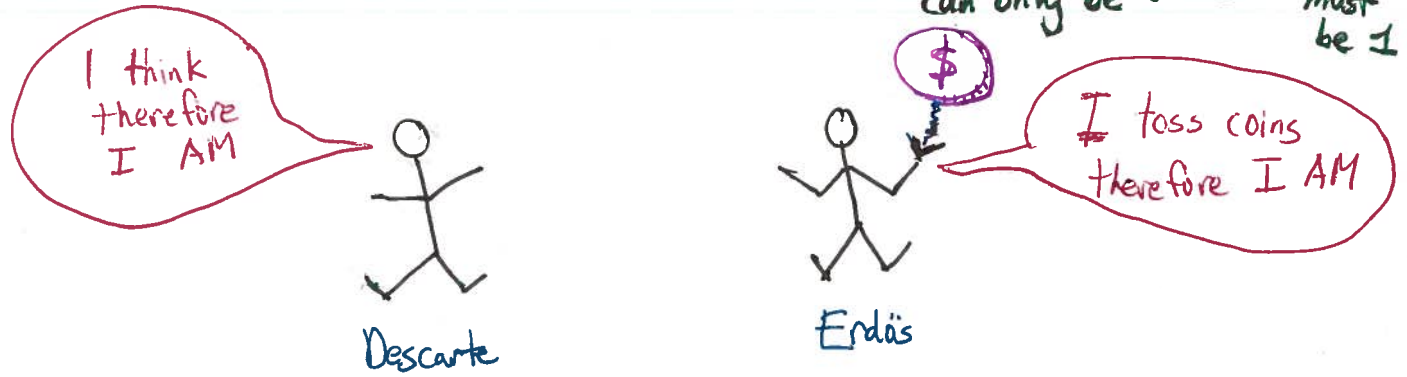
Tools:

- Fourier representation
- random walks / Markov chains
- algebraic techniques
- probabilistic proofs
- Lovasz Local Lemma
- graph expansion, extractors
- Szemerédi Regularity Lemma

The probabilistic method

+ excuse for probability review

Show object exists by proving probability it exists is > 0
 can only be 0 or 1 so must be 1



-or- "fancy counting" using language of probability

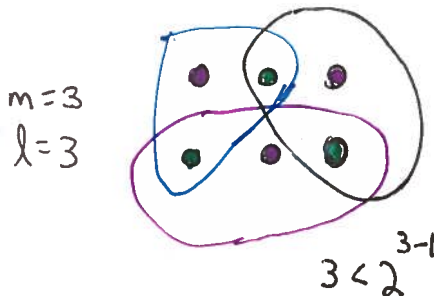
Example: X is a set of elements.

Input Given $S_1, \dots, S_m \subseteq X$
 each of size l

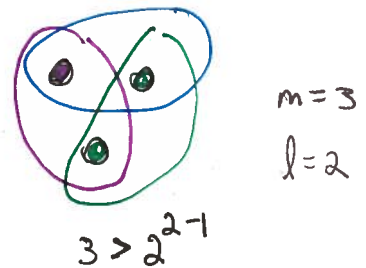
Output Can we 2-color objects in X st. each S_i not monochromatic?

Important special case: $m < 2^{l-1}$ (not too many sets)

Thm if $m < 2^{l-1}$, \exists proper 2-coloring



\vee



Pf • randomly color elts of X red/blue (independently, prob $\frac{1}{2}$)

• $\forall i, \Pr[S_i \text{ monochromatic}] = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2^l}}_{\text{all red}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2^l}}_{\text{all blue}} = \frac{1}{2^{l-1}}$

• $\Pr[\exists i \text{ st. } S_i \text{ monochromatic}] \leq \sum_i \Pr[S_i \text{ monochromatic}]$ union bnd

$\leq m \cdot \frac{1}{2^{l-1}}$

$\leq \frac{2^{l-1}}{2^{l-1}} < 1$

by assumption on m

$\therefore \Pr[\text{all } S_i \text{ 2-colored}] > 0 \Rightarrow \exists \text{ setting of colors which gives 2-coloring} \blacksquare$

i.e. there are many colorings, but if rule out monochromatic ones, still have some left over. We don't know how many.

Can we explicitly output a good 2-coloring?

bruteforce algorithm: try all possible colorings (exponential time)

want to "delete" all colorings that make any set monochromatic + show that there is still a leftover

Another example:

A is subset of positive integers (>0)

Def A is sum-free if $\nexists a_1, a_2, a_3 \in A$ st. $a_1 + a_2 = a_3$

Thm (Erdős '65)

$\forall B = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\} \exists$ sum-free $A \subseteq B$ st. $|A| > \frac{n}{3}$

note: not true
if $|A|$
greater than $\frac{12n}{29}$

An example:

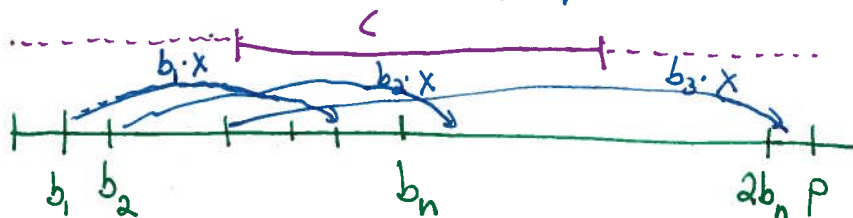
$$B = \{1..n\}$$

can take $A = \{\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil, \dots, n\}$

Proof wlog b_n is max

pick prime $p > 2b_n$ st. $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$

i.e. $p = 3k+2$ for some int k



Let $C = \{k+1, \dots, 2k+1\}$ "middle third"

$$\mathbb{Z}_p = \{0, \dots, p-1\}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$$

group, has multiplicative inverses (mod p) \Leftarrow need p to be a prime prob method ④

Note: (1) $C \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_p$

(2) C sum-free, even in \mathbb{Z}_p

$$(3) \frac{|C|}{p-1} = \frac{k+1}{p-1} = \frac{k+1}{3k+1} > \frac{1}{3}$$

why? any 2 elts sum to at least $2k+2$ + at most

$$(4k+2), \text{ which is } \equiv k \pmod{3k+2} \text{ + thus } \notin C$$

too bad
 $C \not\subseteq B!$

let's use randomness

Constructing A :

pick $x \in_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{Z}_p^*$: then x defines a random linear map $f_x(a) = x \cdot a \pmod p$

let $A_x \leftarrow \{b_i \text{ st. } (x \cdot b_i \pmod p) \in C\}$ elements of B in preimage of C under x

ie. x maps these guys to "middle $\frac{1}{3}$ "

Claim 1 A_x is sum-free

Pf suppose not, then let $b_i, b_j, b_k \in A_x$ st. $b_i + b_j = b_k$

then $x \cdot b_i + x \cdot b_j = x \cdot b_k \pmod p$

all in C by construction

$\Rightarrow C$ not sum-free (in \mathbb{Z}_p)

Claim 2 $\exists x$ st. $|A_x| > \frac{n}{3}$

Pf

Fact $\forall y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ & $\forall i$, exactly one $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ satisfies $y \equiv x \cdot b_i \pmod{p}$

$$\Rightarrow \forall y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*, \forall i \quad \Pr_x [y \text{ mapped to } b_i] = \frac{1}{p-1}$$

this is why p is chosen to be prime

Proof of fact: essentially follows from b_i has an inverse

$$x \equiv y \cdot b_i^{-1} \pmod{p}$$

since $b_i \in \{1, \dots, p-1\}$, $b_i \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ & has (non zero) inverse

so $x \neq 0$ exists

if x_1, x_2 satisfy $x_1 b_i \equiv x_2 b_i \pmod{p}$

then $x_1 \equiv x_2 \pmod{p}$

$\Rightarrow x$ is unique

$\forall i$, the Fact $\Rightarrow |C|$ choices of x st. $x \cdot b_i \pmod{p} \in C$
(one for each elt of C)

define $\delta_i^{(x)} \leftarrow \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \cdot b_i \pmod{p} \in C \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$ $\leftarrow b_i$ maps to C

$$E_x [b_i^{(x)}] = \Pr_x [b_i^{(x)} = 1] = \frac{|C|}{p-1} > \frac{1}{3}$$

Average value of $|A_x| \rightarrow E_x [|A_x|] = E_x [\sum_i \delta_i^{(x)}] = \sum_i E_x [b_i^{(x)}] \Rightarrow \frac{n}{3}$

\therefore at least one x st. $|A_x| > \frac{n}{3}$

