# Randomized Algorithms

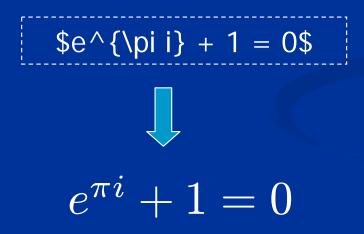
### Introduction to Property Testing

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### NOTICE

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### Outline

### Introduction

Sublinear-time algorithms Notions of approximation Definition of a property tester • A simple example Testing monotonicity of a list Testing connectivity of a graph Further readings





### Introduction

- With the recent advances in technology, we are faced with the need to process increasingly larger amounts of data in faster times.
- There are practical situations in which the input is so large, that even taking a linear time in its size to provide an answer is too much.
- Making a decision after reading only a small portion of the input, that is, in *sublinear time*, is thus considered to be an very important issue.



## Introduction (cont'd)

Sublinear time algorithms have received a lot of attention recently.

Recent results have shown that there are optimization problems whose value can be approximated in sublinear time.



## Introduction (cont'd)

- However, most algorithms which run in sublinear time must necessarily use randomization and must give an approximate answer.
- Surprisingly though, there are nontrivial problems for which deterministic exact algorithms exist!
- Let us see the following two examples.

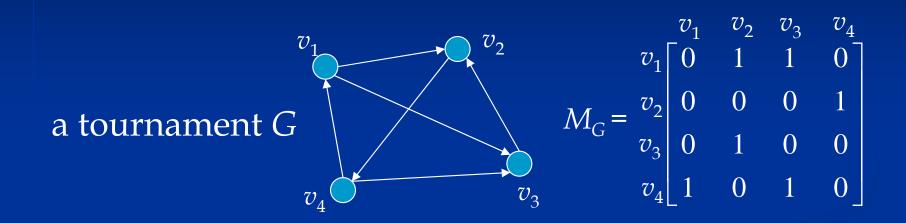


### Example 1: Tournament

- A tournament is a digraph such that for each pair of vertices u and v, exactly one of (u, v) and (v, u) is an edge.
- We can interpret the vertices as players such that each pair of players play a match, and an edge from one to another indicates that one player beats another, hence the name tournament.



## Tournament (cont'd)



Assume that we have a tournament G on n vertices represented in adjacency matrix form  $M_G$ .

• Thus the size of G is  $\binom{n}{2}$ .



## Tournament (cont'd)

### Input:

• a tournament G on n vertices represented in adjacency matrix form  $M_G$ .

### Output:

■ the source of *G* if it exists, otherwise output "No source exists". (source: the vertex of out-degree *n*−1)

There exists a deterministic algorithm that finds the source of G (a player who beats all others) if it exists in O(n) time.



# Tournament (cont'd)

Algorithm-Source-Finding:

1.  $S \leftarrow \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\};$ 2. while |S| > 1 do (a) Arbitrary pick  $v_i, v_j \in S$ ; (b) if  $M_G[i, j] = 1$  then remove  $v_j$  from S; else remove  $v_i$  from S; 3. Denote the remaining vertex in S by  $v_r$ ; 4. For i = 1 to n do if  $M_G[r,i] = 0$  then output "No source exists." and return; 5. Return  $v_r$ ; End of the Algorithm



### Example 2: Diameter

Assume that we have *n* points in a metric space.

• The input is an  $n \times n$  distance matrix D such that D(i, j) is the distance between i and j.

• We seek a sublinear time algorithm that outputs  $\max_{i,j} D(i,j)$ , i.e., the diameter.



## Diameter (cont'd)

### Input:

■ an  $n \times n$  distance matrix D such that D(i, j) is the distance between i and j.

### Output:

■ diameter of these *n* points (i.e.,  $\max_{i,j} D(i,j)$ )

Consider the following simple algorithm.



## Diameter (cont'd)

Algorithm-Diameter:

★ Pick a point u arbitrary and output  $z := \max_v D(u, v)$ . End of the Algorithm

Clearly this algorithm runs in O(n) time. Moreover, we argue that z, the value returned by this naïve looking algorithm, is a good approximation for the diameter d of the input.



### Diameter (cont'd)

### $\Box \underline{\text{Claim:}} d/2 \le z \le d.$

### Proof:

• Let *a* and *b* be two points such that D(a,b) = d and assume that z = D(u,v)

■ Since *D* is a metric space, we have

 $d = D(a, b) \le D(a, u) + D(u, b) \le D(u, v) + D(u, v) = 2z.$ 



To study approximation algorithms, we need to define notions of how good an approximation is.





### Definitions

Let  $\pi(x)$  be the optimal solution of an input x. For  $\beta > 1$ , we say that A is a  $\beta$ -multiplicative approximation algorithm if for all x,

$$\frac{\pi(x)}{\beta} \le A(x) \le \beta \pi(x).$$

We say that A is an  $\alpha$ -additive approximation algorithm if for all x,

$$\pi(x) - \alpha \le A(x) \le \pi(x) + \alpha.$$



# How to approximate a decision problem?

- In addition, *property testing*, an alternative notion of approximation for decision problems, has been applied to give sublinear time algorithms for a wide variety of problems.
- "Still, the study of sublinear time algorithms is very new, and much remains to be understood about their scope." Ronitt Rubinfeld
   ACM SIGACT News, Vol. 34, No. 4, 2003.



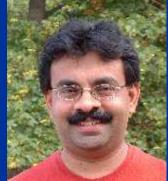
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## Property testing

### The notion of property testing was first formulated by Rubinfeld and Sudan.





Ronitt Rubinfeld and Madhu Sudan: Robust charaterization of polynomials with applications to program testing, *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 1996, Vol. 25, pp. 252-271.



Due to these two pioneers, plenty results have come out recently.

■ See the "Further readings" for reference.

Many outstanding scholars have devoted to this topic of research, such as:













Manuel Blum Madhu Sudan Ronitt Rubinfeld Luca Trevisan Bernard Chazelle



Noga Alon



Dana Ron



Rajeev Motwani



Oded Goldreich Sanjeev Arora





Eldar Fischer Carsten Lund



Tugkan Batu



Shafi Goldwasser Michael Luby















Mario Szegedy Lance Fortnow Ravi Kumar

Sampath Kannan Funda Ergűn 21

### Especially,

Property testing emerges naturally in the context of program checking and probabilistic checkable proofs (PCP).





Sanjeev Arora

Carsten Lund Rajeev Motwani Madhu Sudan

Mario Szegedy

<u>PCP theorem:</u> NP = PCP( $O(\log n), O(1)$ ) - JACM, Vol. 45, 1998.



## Roughly speaking, ...

A property tester is an algorithm which

- accepts with high probability if the input has a certain property, and
- rejects with high probability if the input is "far" from the property.
  - That is, the input cannot be modified slightly to make it
     possess the property.



- In order to define a property tester, it is important to define a notion of *distance* from having a property.
- Define a language P to be a class of inputs that have a certain property.
  - For example, connected graphs, monotone increasing integers, ...



Let  $\Delta(x, y)$  be the distance function between input *x* and *y*, with  $\Delta(x, y) \in [0, 1]$  and define

 $d(x,P) = \min_{y \in P} \Delta(x,y)$ 





For example, the Hamming distance/ #digits of two
 0-1 strings with equal length can be a Δ.

 $\Delta (01001_2, 01110_2) = 3/5.$ 

Let P be a set of 0-1 strings which has fewer 0's than 1's, we can easily have

 $d(01001_2, P) = 1/5.$ 



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So let us consider the formal definition of a property tester.





 $\square$  A property tester for (P, d) is defined as

 $\star$  Given input  $x, 0 < \epsilon < 1$ .

if  $x \in P$ , then  $\Pr[\text{return "Pass"}] \ge 2/3$ . if  $d(x, P) \ge \epsilon$ , then  $\Pr[\text{return "Fail"}] \ge 2/3$ .

<u>Remark:</u> If  $d(x, P) \ge \epsilon$ , we say x is  $\epsilon$ -far from P. If  $d(x, P) \le \epsilon$ , we say x is  $\epsilon$ -close from P.



# A simple example

- Consider the following example to figure out the concept of property testing.
- Suppose we have a sequence of *n* numbers, x<sub>1</sub>, ..., x<sub>n</sub>, we would like to determine if the sequence is monotonically increasing.
  - $\blacksquare \underline{\text{Input:}} x_1, \dots, x_n$
  - <u>Output:</u> Accepts or Rejects.



## Testing monotonicity of a list

- Any deterministic decision algorithm runs in  $\Omega(n)$  time to read the input and make a decision.
- On the other hand, a property testing algorithm exists such that it
  - accepts, if the sequence is monotonically increasing
  - rejects with probability greater than 2/3, if more than  $\varepsilon n$  of the  $x_i$  need to be removed so that the resulting sequence becomes monotonically increasing.



WLOG, we can assume that all x<sub>i</sub>'s are distinct.
 Since we can interpret x<sub>i</sub> as (x<sub>i</sub>, i), which breaks ties without changing order.

Consider the following simple approach which can not be ensured to run in sublinear time.



### Algorithm 1

- Select *i* randomly and test whether  $x_i < x_{i+1}$ . Then return "Pass" if  $x_i < x_{i+1}$ , and return "Fail" otherwise.
- Consider the following sequence which is very far from monotonically increasing:



#### PASS



Generally, such sequence  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$  can be written as the following form:

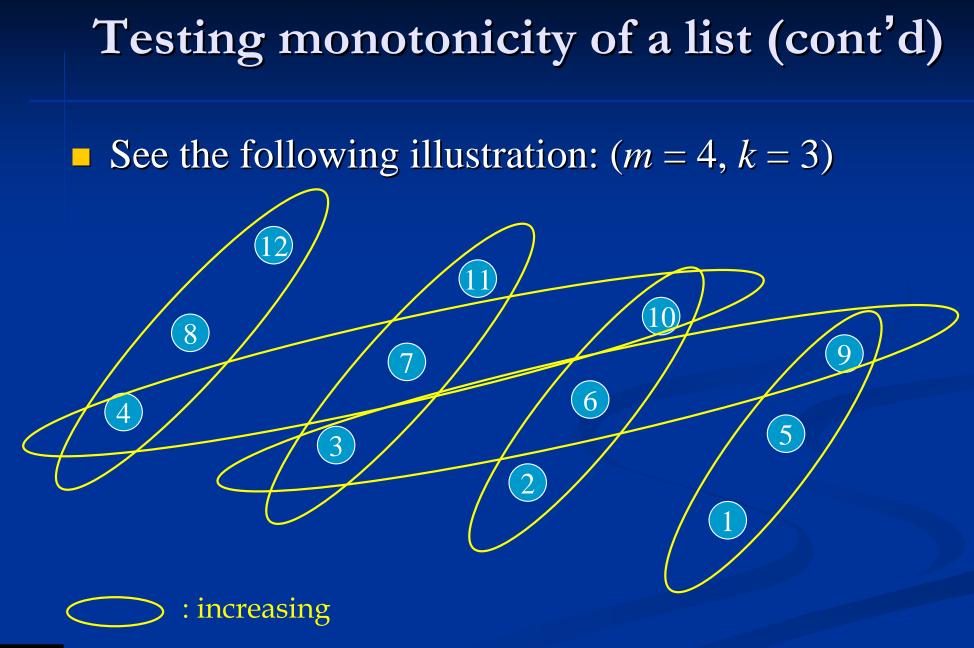
m, 2m, ..., km,m-1, 2m-1, ..., km-1, ...,1, m+1, 2m+1, ..., (k-1)m+1. (thus n = mk) where m, k are two integers greater than 1.

■ For example, when m = 4, k = 3: 4, 8, 12, 3, 7, 11, 2, 6, 10, 1, 5, 9



The distance of such sequence from monotonically increasing is at least ½.
WHY?
For example,
2, 4, 1, 3 → 2, 4 or 2, 3 or 1, 3 for monotonically increasing



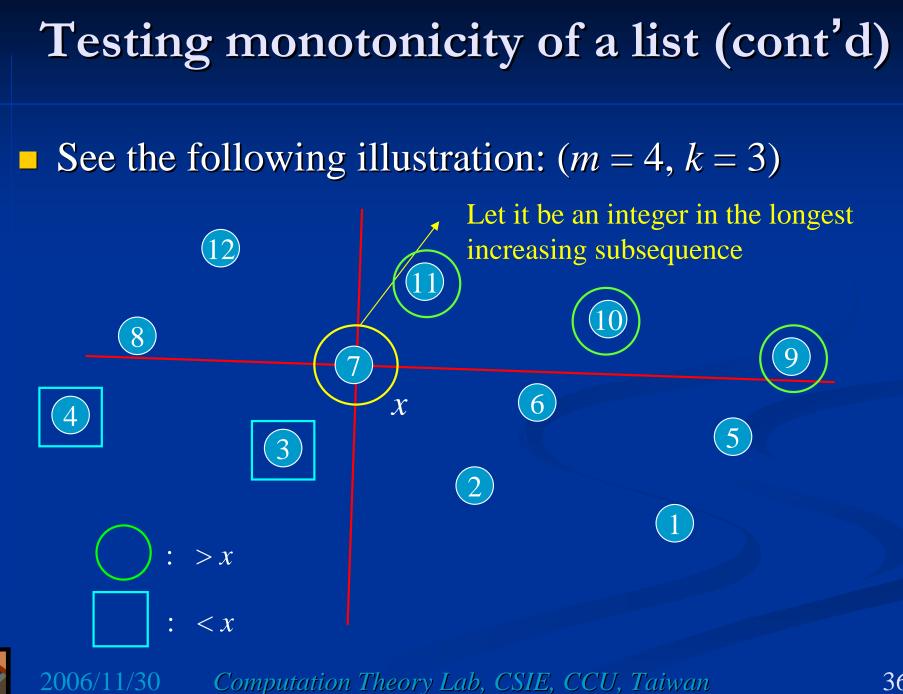


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We can easily prove that the length of a longest monotonically increasing subsequence in such a sequence must be at most k,

• Exercise. (Hint: Consult the previous illustration.)

So the distance of such sequence from monotonically increasing is at least *n* − *k* = (*m*−1)*k*, which is at least ½ of the length of the sequence.
 For example, 2, 4, 1, 3 → 2, 4 or 2, 3 or 1, 3



 $m, 2m, \dots, km, m-1, 2m-1, \dots, km-1, \dots, 1, m+1, 2m+1, \dots, (k-1)m+1$ 

- Algorithm 1 does not detect that the sequence is not monotonically increasing as long as it does not query a pair of locations of a yellow integer and its next integer respectively.
- Thus Algorithm 1 will need Ω(k) queries, that is, repeatedly runs Ω(k) times.
   WHY?



 $m, 2m, \dots, km, m-1, 2m-1, \dots, km-1, \dots, 1, m+1, 2m+1, \dots, (k-1)m+1$ 

- The probability that Algorithm 1 doesn't query any yellow integer is larger than 1 1/k for each run.
- The probability that Algorithm 1 queries a yellow integer at least once during  $c \cdot k$  runs is less than  $1 (1-1/k)^{ck}$ .



- $1 (1 1/k)^{ck} > 1 1/e^c > 2/3$  when *k* is large and c > 1.
  - That is, if we don't run Algorithm 1 for more than Ω(k) times, Algorithm 1 will not query any yellow integer with high probability (when k is large and c > 1.)

However, we cannot ensure the probability that Algorithm 1 query a yellow integer at least once during  $c \cdot k$  runs is at least 2/3.



# Thus the time complexity of this algorithm cannot be ensured to be sublinear.

Try another one!



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Consider another algorithm, which is a little sophisticated.

#### Algorithm 2

Samples the sequence at random points and checks if these random points form a monotonically increasing sequence.
 Return "Pass" if they do, and return "Fail" otherwise.



 However, consider the following sequence, which is again very far from monotonically increasing.

(m, m-1, ..., 1, 2m, 2m-1, ..., m+1, 3m, ..., 2m+1, ...

- Again, the distance of this sequence from monotonically increasing is at least <sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>.
- The algorithm detects that this sequence is not monotonically increasing only if two of its query points fall within [km, (k-1)m+1] for some k.



$$m, m-1, \dots, 1, 2m, 2m-1, \dots, m+1, 3m, \dots, 2m+1, \dots$$

- However, by the Birthday Paradox, this is unlikely if *m* is a constant and the number of samples is  $o((n/m)^{\frac{1}{2}}) = o(n^{\frac{1}{2}}).$
- With high probability, the values of the query points will form a monotonically increasing subsequence.
- Thus Algorithm 2 does not work well.



# Can we do better?YES!



F. Ergün, S. Kannan, R. Kumar, R. Rubinfeld and M. Viswanathan proposed a  $O((1/\epsilon) \log n)$  property tester. - JCSS, Vol. 60, 2000



Consider the following algorithm. [EKKRV00]

Algorithm  $3((x_1,\ldots,x_n),\epsilon)$ 

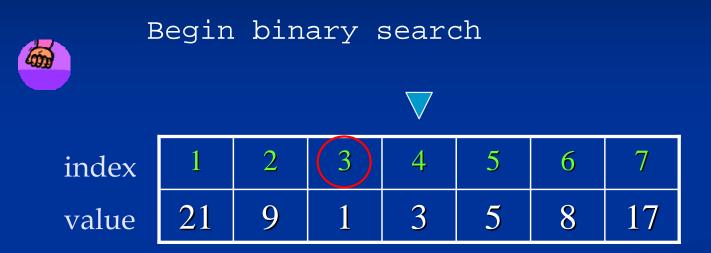
**\star** Repeat Step 1 to 3 for  $O(1/\epsilon)$  times:



- 1. Pick i uniformly at random from 1 through n.
- 2. Query  $\overline{x_i}$ .
- **3.** Perform binary search for  $x_i$ . If the search does not found  $x_i$ , return "Fail" (i.e., Reject).
- ★ Return "Pass" (i.e., Accept) if all searches are successful.



## For example,

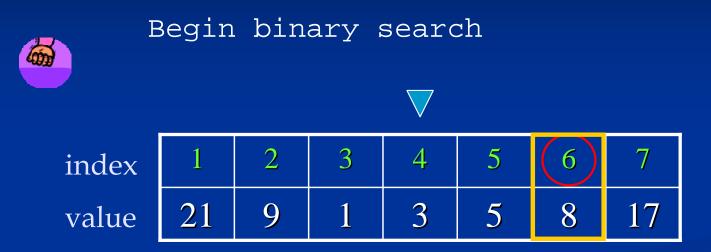


Search for value **1**. Output: **Fail!** 



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## Another example,



Search for value 8. Output: Pass!



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- Algorithm 3 runs in time O((1/ɛ) log n) since each binary search takes O(log n) time.
- If the sequence {x<sub>i</sub>} is monotonically increasing, then clearly the algorithm accepts.
- We need to show that if at least *ɛn* of the sequence need to be removed for it to be monotonically increasing, then the algorithm rejects (resp. accepts) with probability at least 2/3 (resp., less than 1/3).
   Suppose not, that Algorithm 3 accepts with probability at least 1/3.



#### Proof by contradiction:

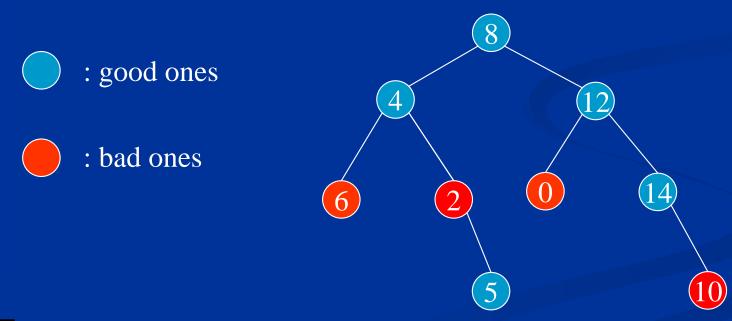
ε-far ⇒ accept with probability < 1/3</li>
 accept with probability ≥ 1/3 ⇒ ε-close

We call index *i* is "good" if the binary search for x<sub>i</sub> is successful, otherwise we call index *i* is "bad".



#### ■ For example,







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• We claim that less than *ɛn* of the indices are bad.

- Otherwise, each time through the loop, the algorithm finds a bad index with probability at least ɛ.
- Then Algorithm 3 accepts with probability at most  $(1-\varepsilon)^{c/\varepsilon} < e^{-c} < 1/3$  for some constant *c*.
- A contradiction then occurs.
- Now, the remaining part is to prove that the good points indeed form a monotonically increasing subsequence.



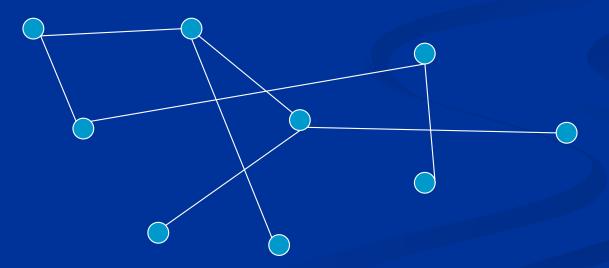
Consider any two good indices i, j, where i < j.

Consider the first point in the binary search path where x<sub>i</sub> and x<sub>j</sub> diverge and assume that point has value u.

Since *i* and *j* are good and i < j, we can conclude that  $x_i \le u \le x_j$ . This concludes the proof.



# Now, let us consider another problem: Testing connectivity of a graph.





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# **Connected and Disconnected**





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# Degree bound

• We say a graph G(V, E) has a degree bound d if for each vertex  $v \in V$ ,

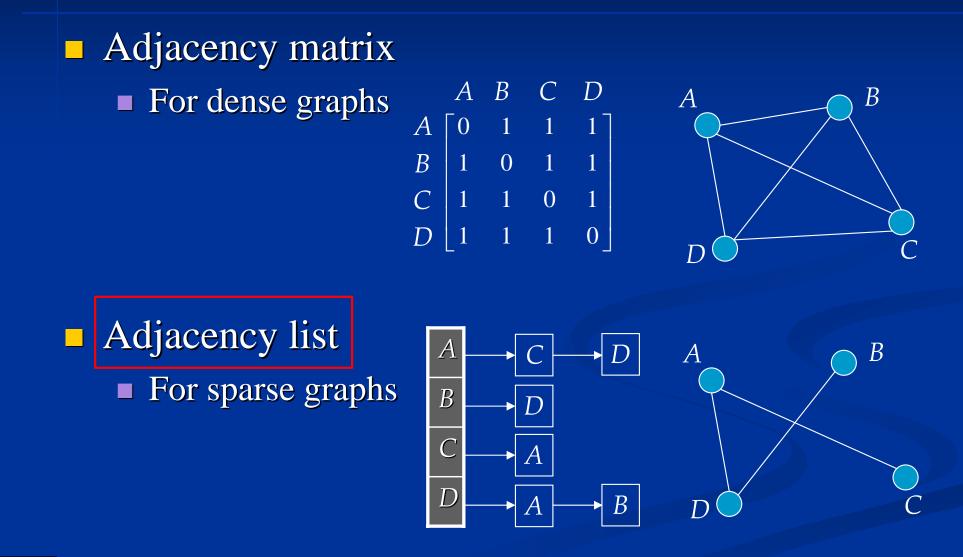
## $\deg(v) \le d$

# where deg(v) is the number of vertices adjacent to v in G.



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# **Graph representations**





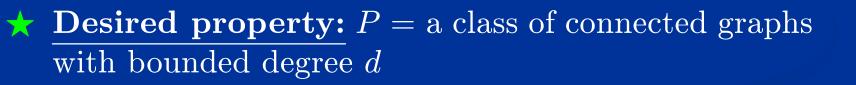
# Testing connectivity of a graph

- We will adopt the adjacency list model with a given degree bound *d* to proceed with our discussion.
  - The graph possesses O(dn) edges.





 $\star$  Input: a graph G(V, E) with bounded degree d, given as adjacency list



Let  $\mathcal{G}_n^d$  denote the set of graphs of n nodes with a bounded degree d.



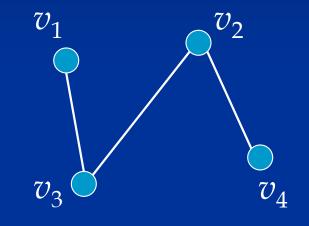
Let  $G \in \mathcal{G}_n^d$ , we define the distance of G from connected to be

$$\operatorname{dist}(G, P) = \frac{2\rho_d(G)}{dn}$$

where  $\rho_d(G)$  is the minimum number of modifications of edges needed for *G* to be connected such that the degree bound *d* is still maintained.



# For example, (d=2)



 $\operatorname{dist}(G, P) = \frac{2\rho_2(G)}{dn} = \frac{1}{4}.$ 

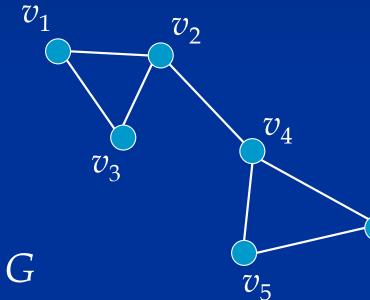


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## Another example, (d=2)



dist
$$(G, P) = \frac{2\rho_2(G)}{dn} = \frac{1}{2}$$
.  
WHY?



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# Idea

- If a graph is far from connected, there must be many components,
  - That in turn implies that there are many small components.
- Consider the following algorithm proposed by O.
   Goldreich and D. Ron.





- Algorithmica, Vol. 32, 2002.



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Algorithm  $\operatorname{GR}(G, \epsilon)$  [GR02]

I. Pick m = O(<sup>1</sup>/<sub>ϵd</sub>) nodes of G uniformly at random. Let S denote the set of these picked nodes.
2. For each node s ∈ S, do BFS and stop if:

(a) <sup>8</sup>/<sub>ϵd</sub> nodes have been reached
(b) exhaust the component

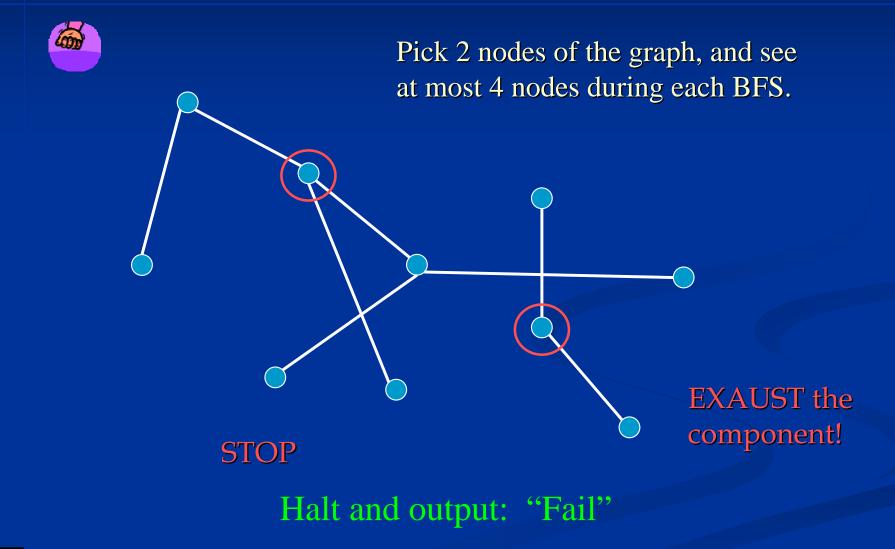
If (b) ever happens, return "Fail"; otherwise, return "Pass".

(Here we assume that  $|V| \ge 8/\epsilon d$ .)



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## An illustration





■ The running time of Algorithm GR is

$$O(\frac{1}{\epsilon d} \cdot \frac{8}{\epsilon d} \cdot d) = O(\frac{1}{\epsilon^2 d}),$$

which is sublinear.

• Why does this algorithm work?



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For  $G \in \mathcal{G}_n^d$ , if  $G \in P$ , it is obvious that the algorithm must output "Pass".

Maybe you don't think that this is trivial. You can prove this claim for an easy exercise.

#### So, what if $G \notin P$ ?

We have to prove that if G is far from P, (i.e., G is far from connected with degree bound d) Algorithm GR will output "Fail" with probability at least 2/3.



Consider the following observation first.

## Observation:

If  $G \in \mathcal{G}_n^d$  is  $\epsilon$ -far from connected, then G has at least  $\epsilon dn/2$  connected components.

### Proof:

■ If *G* has less than  $\varepsilon dn/2$  connected components, we can add less than  $\varepsilon dn/2$  edges to make *G* connected.

■ *G* is not  $\varepsilon$ -far from connected. (Because  $\varepsilon dn/dn = \varepsilon$ )



A class of connected graphs with bounded degree *d* 

If  $G \in \mathcal{G}_n^d$  is  $\epsilon$ -far from (P), then G has at least  $\epsilon dn/4$  connected components.

#### Proof: Exercise!

Lemma 1:

• Hint: Consider the previous observation and the second example for illustrating dist(G, P).



## Corollary 1:

If  $G \in \mathcal{G}_n^d$  is  $\epsilon$ -far from P, then G has at least  $\epsilon dn/8$  connected components each containing less than  $\frac{8}{\epsilon d}$  nodes.

Proof:

 $\frac{8}{\epsilon d}$ .

 Let n<sub><</sub> be the number of components of size less than <sup>8</sup>/<sub>ϵd</sub>. → We call them small components for simplicity.
 Let n<sub>></sub> be the number of components of size at least

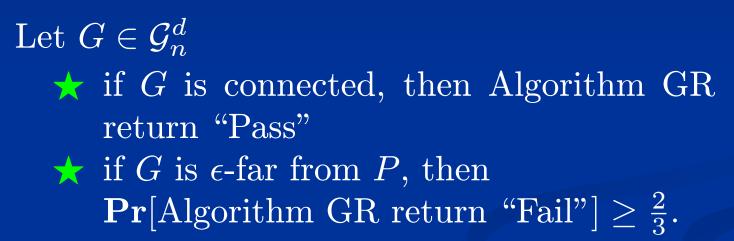
 Assume that G is ε-far from P. Then from Lemma 1 we have that G has at least εdn/4 connected components.

Since  $n_{<} + n_{>}$  is the total number of connected components in *G*, we have  $n_{<} + n_{>} \ge \varepsilon dn/4$ .

Since n<sub>></sub> · 8/εd ≤ n, we have n<sub>></sub> ≤ εdn/8.
 Therefore, n<sub><</sub> ≥ εdn/4 − εdn/8 = εdn/8, the corollary immediately follows.



### **Theorem 1:**



### Proof of Theorem 1 is as follows.



#### Testing connectivity of a graph (cont'd)

■ If *G* is connected, Algorithm GR must output "Pass".

■ Trivial.

Consider the case that G is  $\varepsilon$ -far from P.





#### Testing connectivity of a graph (cont'd)

#### By Corollary 1,

From Corollary 1.

 $\mathbf{Pr}[s \text{ is in a small component}]$ number of nodes in small components

# n number of small components

 $\mathcal{N}$ 

Each component is of size at least one and they are disjoint.



#### Testing connectivity of a graph (cont'd)

Since *m* is chosen to be *c*/ɛ*d* for some constant *c*, we have

 $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathrm{no}\ s\ \mathrm{is\ in\ a\ small\ component}]$ 

$$\leq (1 - \frac{\epsilon d}{8})^{\frac{c}{\epsilon d}} \\ \leq e^{-c'}$$

 $< \frac{1}{3}.$ 

These inequalities holds as long as we pick c large enough (c' is a constant that depends on c).

#### Therefore, the proof is done.



#### ■ I think I should finish this talk now.

#### Related works on Property testing are listed at "Further readings" as follows.



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#### Further readings

- 1. [A02] Testing subgraphs in large graphs, N. Alon, *Random Structures and Algorithms*, Vol. 21, 2002, pp. 359-370.
- 2. [AFKS00] Efficient testing of large graphs, N. Alon, E. Fischer, M. Krivelevich and M. Szegedy, *Combinatorica*, Vol. 20, 2000, pp. 451-476.
- 3. [AK02] Testing *k*-colorability, N. Alon and M. Krivelevich, *SIAM Journal on Discrete Mathematics*, Vol. 15, 2002, pp. 211-227.
- 4. [AKKLR03] Testing low-degree polynomials over GF(2), N. Alon, T. Kaufman, M. Krivelevich, S. Litsyn and D. Ron, RANDOM-APPROX'03, pp. 188-199.
- 5. [AKKR06] Testing triangle-freeness in general graphs, N. Alon, T. Kaufman, M. Krivelevich and D. Ron, SODA'06, pp. 279-288.
- 6. [AKNS01] Regular languages are testable with a constant number of queries, N. Alon, M. Krivelevich, I. Newman and M. Szegedy, *SIAM Journal on Computing*, Vol. 30, 2001, pp. 1842-1862.
- 7. [AS05] Every monotone graph property is testable, N. Alon and A. Shapira, STOC'05, pp. 128-137.
- 8. [AS03a] Testing satisfiability, N. Alon and A. Shapira, *Journal of Algorithms*, Vol. 47, 2003, pp. 87-103.



- 9. [AS03b] Testing subgraphs in directed graphs, N. Alon and A. Shapira, STOC'03, pp. 700-709.
- 10. [AS04] A characterization of easily testable induced subgraphs, N. Alon and A. Shapira, SODA'04, pp. 935-944.
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- This powerpoint file can be downloaded from the following hyperlink:
  - http://www.cs.ccu.edu.tw/~lincc/research/randalg/slides/Intr oductionToPropertyTesting.ppt





