

# Randomised Algorithms

Lecture 5: Random Walks, Hitting Times and Application to 2-SAT

Thomas Sauerwald (tms41@cam.ac.uk)

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CAMBRIDGE

## Application 3: Ehrenfest Chain and Hypercubes

Random Walks on Graphs, Hitting Times and Cover Times

Random Walks on Paths and Grids

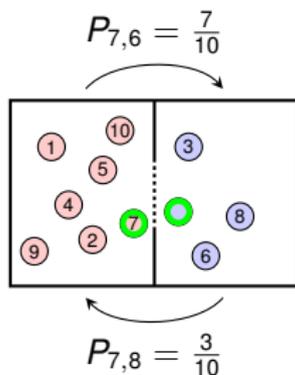
SAT and a Randomised Algorithm for 2-SAT

## The Ehrenfest Markov Chain

### Ehrenfest Model

- A simple model for the exchange of molecules between two boxes
- We have  $d$  particles labelled  $1, 2, \dots, d$
- At each step a particle is selected uniformly at random and switches to the other box
- If  $\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, d\}$  denotes the number of particles in the red box, then:

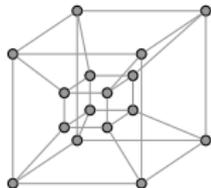
$$P_{x,x-1} = \frac{x}{d} \quad \text{and} \quad P_{x,x+1} = \frac{d-x}{d}.$$



Let us now enlarge the state space by looking at each particle **individually!**

### Random Walk on the Hypercube

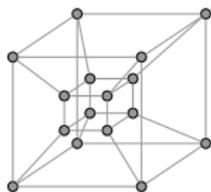
- For each particle an indicator variable  $\Rightarrow \Omega = \{0, 1\}^d$
- At each step: pick a **random** coordinate in  $[d]$  and **flip it**



## Analysis of the Mixing Time

(Non-Lazy) Random Walk on the Hypercube

- For each particle an indicator variable  $\Rightarrow \Omega = \{0, 1\}^d$
- At each step: pick a **random** coordinate in  $[d]$  and **flip it**



**Problem:** This Markov Chain is **periodic**, as the number of ones always switches between odd to even!

**Solution:** Add **self-loops** to break periodic behaviour!

**Lazy** Random Walk (1st Version)

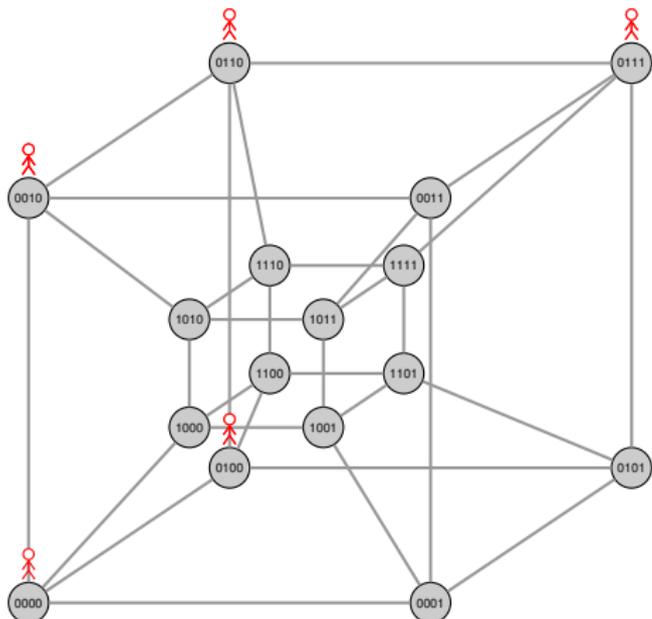
- At each step  $t = 0, 1, 2 \dots$ 
  - Pick a **random** coordinate in  $[d]$
  - With prob.  $1/2$  **flip** coordinate.

**Lazy** Random Walk (2nd Version)

- At each step  $t = 0, 1, 2 \dots$ 
  - Pick a **random** coordinate in  $[d]$
  - Set coordinate to  $\{0, 1\}$  **uniformly**.

These two chains are equivalent!

## Example of a Random Walk on a 4-Dimensional Hypercube



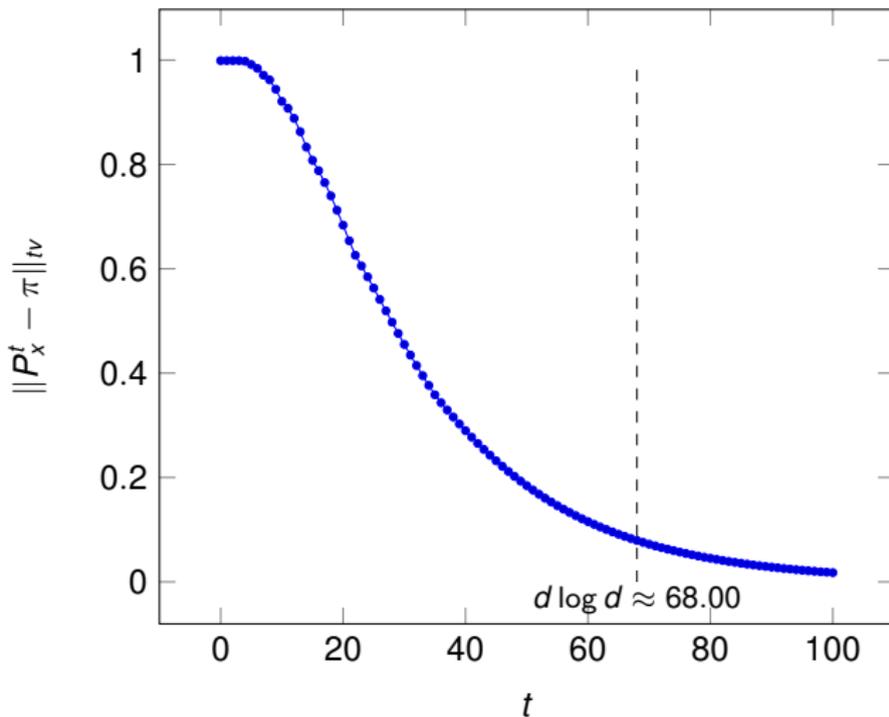
$t$	Coord.	$X_t$
0	2	0 0 0 0
1	3	0 1 0 0
2	3	0 1 0 0
3	4	0 1 1 0
4	2	0 1 1 1
5	4	0 1 1 1
6	2	0 1 1 0
7	4	0 0 1 0
8	3	0 0 1 0
9	1	0 0 1 0
10	done!	0 0 1 0

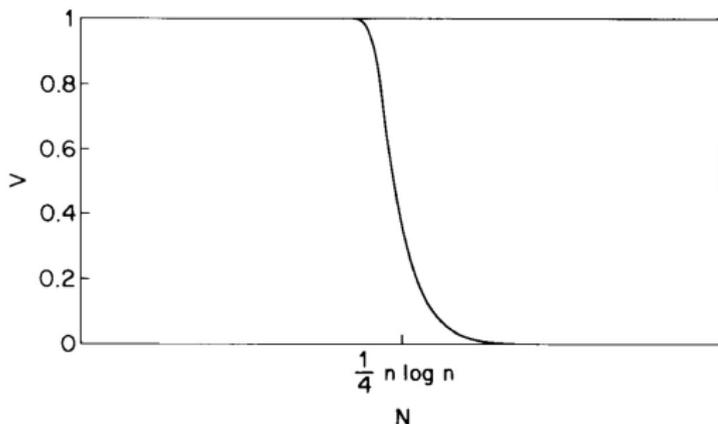
Once **all coordinates** have been **picked** at least once, the state is uniformly at random in  $\{0, 1\}^d$ .

Coupon Collector  $\leadsto$  mixing time should be  $O(d \log d)$

We won't formalise this argument here (see [\[Ex. 4/5.11\]](#))

## Total Variation Distance of Random Walk on Hypercube ( $d = 22$ )





**Fig. 1.** The variation distance  $V$  as a function of  $N$ , for  $n = 10^{12}$ .

Source: "Asymptotic analysis of a random walk on a hypercube with many dimensions", P. Diaconis, R.L. Graham, J.A. Morrison; Random Structures & Algorithms, 1990.

- This is a numerical plot of a **theoretical bound**, where  $d = 10^{12}$   
(Minor Remark: This random walk is with a loop probability of  $1/(d + 1)$ )
- The variation distance exhibits a so-called **cut-off** phenomena:
  - Distance remains close to its maximum value 1 until step  $\frac{1}{4} n \log n - \Theta(n)$
  - Then distance moves close to 0 before step  $\frac{1}{4} n \log n + \Theta(n)$

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## Stopping and Hitting Times

A non-negative integer random variable  $\tau$  is a **stopping time** for  $(X_t)_{t \geq 0}$  if for every  $s \geq 0$  the event  $\{\tau = s\}$  depends only on  $X_0, \dots, X_s$ .

**Example** - College Carbs Stopping times:

- ✓ “We had **rice** yesterday”  $\leadsto \tau := \min\{t \geq 1 : X_{t-1} = \text{“rice”}\}$
- ✗ “We are having **pasta** next Thursday”

For two states  $x, y \in \Omega$  we call  $h(x, y)$  the **hitting time** of  $y$  from  $x$ :

$$h(x, y) := \mathbf{E}_x[\tau_y] = \mathbf{E}[\tau_y \mid X_0 = x] \quad \text{where } \tau_y = \min\{t \geq 1 : X_t = y\}.$$

Some distinguish between  $\tau_y^+ = \min\{t \geq 1 : X_t = y\}$  and  $\tau_y = \min\{t \geq 0 : X_t = y\}$

— A Useful Identity —

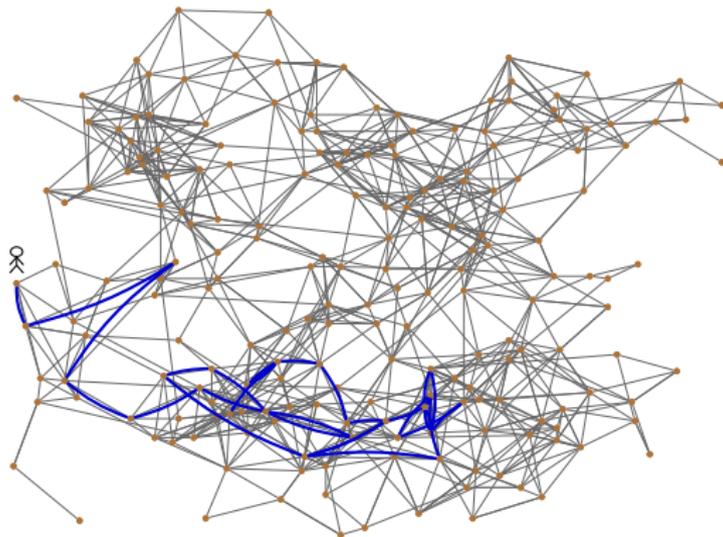
Hitting times are the solution to a **set of linear equations**:

$$h(x, y) \stackrel{\text{Markov Prop.}}{=} 1 + \sum_{z \in \Omega \setminus \{y\}} P(x, z) \cdot h(z, y) \quad \forall x, y \in \Omega.$$

## Random Walks on Graphs

A Simple Random Walk (SRW) on a graph  $G$  is a Markov chain on  $V(G)$  with

$$P(u, v) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\deg(u)} & \text{if } \{u, v\} \in E, \\ 0 & \text{if } \{u, v\} \notin E. \end{cases}, \quad \text{and} \quad \pi(u) = \frac{\deg(u)}{2|E|}$$



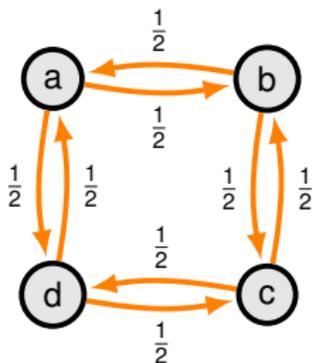
## Lazy Random Walks and Periodicity

The Lazy Random Walk (LRW) on  $G$  given by  $\tilde{P} = (P + I)/2$ ,

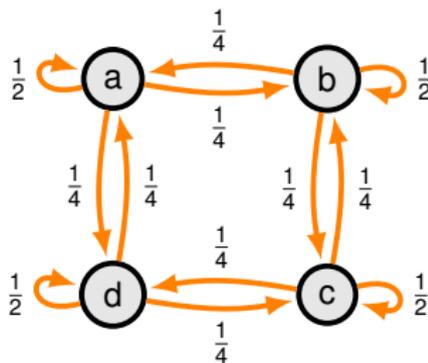
$$\tilde{P}_{u,v} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2 \deg(u)} & \text{if } \{u, v\} \in E, \\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } u = v, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$P$  - SRW matrix  
 $I$  - Identity matrix.

**Fact:** For any graph  $G$  the LRW on  $G$  is **aperiodic**.



SRW on  $C_4$ , *Periodic*



LRW on  $C_4$ , *Aperiodic*

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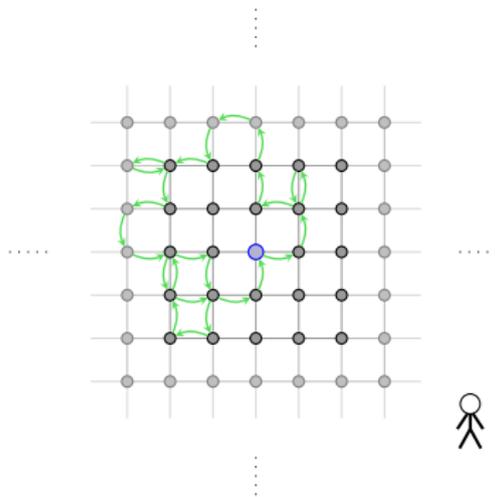
Random Walks on Paths and Grids

SAT and a Randomised Algorithm for 2-SAT

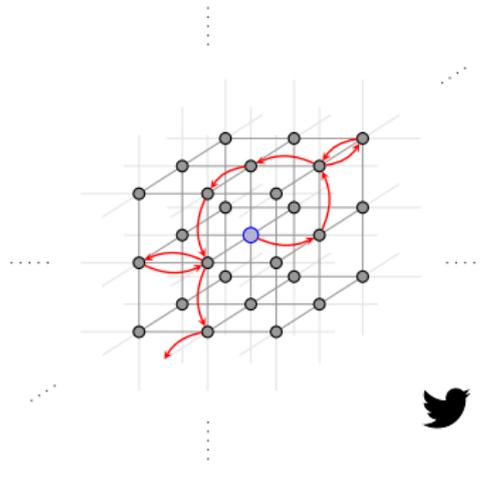
# 1921: The Birth of Random Walks on (Infinite) Graphs (Polyá)

Will a random walk always return to the origin?

Infinite 2D Grid



Infinite 3D Grid



*"A drunk man will find his way home, but a drunk bird may get lost forever."*

But for any regular (finite) graph, the expected return time to  $u$  is  $1/\pi(u) = n$

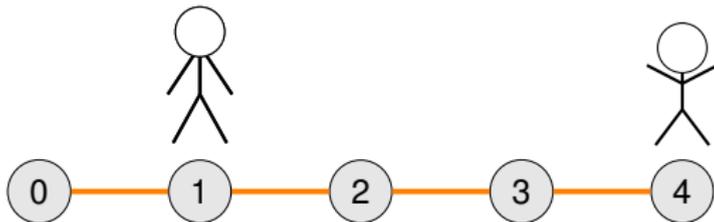
## SRW Random Walk on Two-Dimensional Grids: Animation

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For animation, see full slides.

## Random Walk on a Path (1/2)

The  $n$ -path  $P_n$  is the graph with  $V(P_n) = [0, n]$ ,  $E(P_n) = \{\{i, j\} : j = i + 1\}$ .



Proposition

For the SRW on  $P_n$  we have  $h(k, n) = n^2 - k^2$ , for any  $0 \leq k < n$ .



**Exercise:** [\[Exercise 4/5.15\]](#) What happens for the LRW on  $P_n$ ?

## Random Walk on a Path (2/2)

Proposition

For the SRW on  $P_n$  we have  $h(k, n) = n^2 - k^2$ , for any  $0 \leq k < n$ .

Recall: Hitting times are the solution to the set of linear equations:

$$h(x, y) \stackrel{\text{Markov Prop.}}{=} 1 + \sum_{z \in \Omega \setminus \{y\}} P(x, z) \cdot h(z, y) \quad \forall x, y \in V.$$

Proof: Let  $f(k) = h(k, n)$  and set  $f(n) := 0$ . By the Markov property

$$f(0) = 1 + f(1) \quad \text{and} \quad f(k) = 1 + \frac{f(k-1)}{2} + \frac{f(k+1)}{2} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq k \leq n-1.$$

System of  $n$  independent equations in  $n$  unknowns, so has a unique solution.

Thus it suffices to check that  $f(k) = n^2 - k^2$  satisfies the above. Indeed

$$f(0) = 1 + f(1) = 1 + n^2 - 1^2 = n^2,$$

and for any  $1 \leq k \leq n-1$  we have,

$$f(k) = 1 + \frac{n^2 - (k-1)^2}{2} + \frac{n^2 - (k+1)^2}{2} = n^2 - k^2. \quad \square$$

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**SAT and a Randomised Algorithm for 2-SAT**

## SAT Problems

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A **Satisfiability (SAT)** formula is a logical expression that's the conjunction (AND) of a set of **Clauses**, where a clause is the disjunction (OR) of **Literals**.

A **Solution** to a SAT formula is an assignment of the variables to the values **True** and **False** so that all the clauses are satisfied.

**Example:**

**SAT:**  $(x_1 \vee \overline{x_2} \vee \overline{x_3}) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee \overline{x_3}) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_4) \wedge (x_4 \vee \overline{x_3}) \wedge (x_4 \vee \overline{x_1})$

**Solution:**  $x_1 = \text{True}$ ,  $x_2 = \text{False}$ ,  $x_3 = \text{False}$  and  $x_4 = \text{True}$ .

- If each clause has  $k$  literals we call the problem  **$k$ -SAT**;  $n$  is the number of variables.
- In general, determining if a SAT formula has a solution is **NP-hard**
- A huge amount of problems can be posed as a SAT:
  - Model checking and hardware/software verification
  - Design of experiments
  - Classical planning
  - ...

## 2-SAT

RANDOMISED-2-SAT (Input: a 2-SAT-Formula)

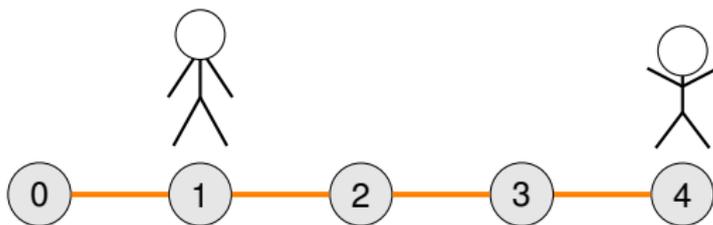
- 1: Start with an arbitrary truth assignment
  - 2: **Repeat up to  $2n^2$  times**
  - 3: Pick an **arbitrary** unsatisfied clause
  - 4: Choose a random **literal** and **switch** its value
  - 5: **If** formula is satisfied **then return** "Satisfiable"
  - 6: **return** "Unsatisfiable"
- Call each loop of (2) a **step**. Let  $A_i$  be the variable assignment at step  $i$ .
  - Let  $\alpha$  be **any solution** and  $X_i = |\text{variable values shared by } A_i \text{ and } \alpha|$ .

**Example 1 : Solution Found**

$$(x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (x_4 \vee \bar{x}_3) \wedge (x_4 \vee \bar{x}_1)$$

T   F   F   T   T   T   T   T   T   F

$$\alpha = (T, T, F, T).$$



$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$
0	F	F	F	F
1	F	T	F	F
2	T	T	F	F
3	T	T	F	T

## 2-SAT

RANDOMISED-2-SAT (Input: a 2-SAT-Formula)

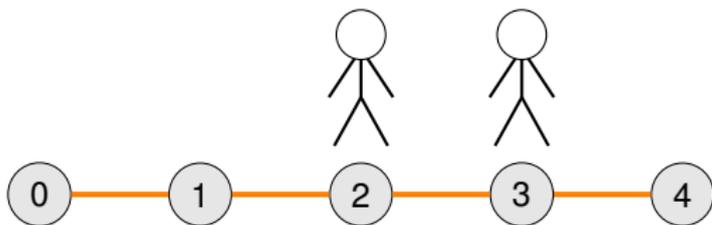
- 1: Start with an arbitrary truth assignment
  - 2: **Repeat up to  $2n^2$  times**
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- Call each loop of (2) a **step**. Let  $A_i$  be the variable assignment at step  $i$ .
  - Let  $\alpha$  be any solution and  $X_i = |\text{variable values shared by } A_i \text{ and } \alpha|$ .

**Example 2 : (Another) Solution Found**

$$(x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (x_4 \vee x_3) \wedge (x_4 \vee \bar{x}_1)$$

T F F T T T T F T F

$$\alpha = (T, F, F, T).$$



$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$
0	F	F	F	F
1	F	F	F	T
2	F	T	F	T
3	T	T	F	T

## 2-SAT and the SRW on the Path

Expected iterations of (2) in RANDOMISED-2-SAT

If the formula is **satisfiable**, then the **expected number of steps** before RANDOMISED-2-SAT outputs a valid solution is at most  $n^2$ .

**Proof:** Fix any solution  $\alpha$ , then for any  $i \geq 0$  and  $1 \leq k \leq n - 1$ ,

- (i)  $\mathbf{P}[X_{i+1} = 1 \mid X_i = 0] = 1$
- (ii)  $\mathbf{P}[X_{i+1} = k + 1 \mid X_i = k] \geq 1/2$
- (iii)  $\mathbf{P}[X_{i+1} = k - 1 \mid X_i = k] \leq 1/2$ .

Notice that if  $X_i = n$  then  $A_i = \alpha$  thus **solution** found (may find another first).

Assume (pessimistically) that  $X_0 = 0$  (none of our initial guesses is right).

The process  $X_i$  is complicated to describe in full; however by (i) – (iii) we can **bound** it by  $Y_i$  (SRW on the  $n$ -path from 0). This gives (see also [Ex 4/5.17])

$\mathbf{E}[\text{time to find sol}] \leq \mathbf{E}_0[\min\{t : X_t = n\}] \leq \mathbf{E}_0[\min\{t : Y_t = n\}] = h(0, n) = n^2$ . □

Running for  $2n^2$  steps and using Markov's inequality yields:

Proposition

If the formula is **satisfiable**, RANDOMISED-2-SAT will return a valid solution in  $O(n^2)$  steps with probability at least  $1/2$ .

## Boosting Success Probabilities

### Boosting Lemma

Suppose a randomised algorithm succeeds with probability (at least)  $p$ . Then for any  $C \geq 1$ ,  $\lceil \frac{C}{p} \cdot \log n \rceil$  repetitions are sufficient to succeed (in at least one repetition) with probability at least  $1 - n^{-C}$ .

**Proof:** Recall that  $1 - p \leq e^{-p}$  for all real  $p$ . Let  $t = \lceil \frac{C}{p} \log n \rceil$  and observe

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}[t \text{ runs all fail}] &\leq (1 - p)^t \\ &\leq e^{-pt} \\ &\leq n^{-C}, \end{aligned}$$

thus the probability one of the runs succeeds is at least  $1 - n^{-C}$ . □

### RANDOMISED-2-SAT

There is a  $O(n^2 \log n)$ -step algorithm for 2-SAT which succeeds w.h.p.