

# Markov Chains and Random Walks

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- A **stochastic process** is a sequence of random variables  $\{X_t\}_{t=0}^n$ .
- Usually the subindex  $t$  refers to time steps and if  $t \in \mathbb{N}$ , the stochastic process is said to be **discrete**.
- The random variable  $X_t$  is called the **state at time  $t$** .
- If  $n < \infty$  the process is said to be **finite**, otherwise it is said **infinite**.
- A **stochastic process** is used as a model to study the probability of events associated to a random phenomena.

# An example: Gambler's Ruin

## Model used to evaluate insurance risks.

- You place bets of 1€. With probability  $p$ , you gain 1€, and with probability  $q = 1 - p$  you lose your 1€ bet.
- You start with an initial amount of 100€.
- You keep playing until you lose all your money or you arrive to have 1000€.

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## Model used to evaluate insurance risks.

- You place bets of  $1\text{€}$ . With probability  $p$ , you gain  $1\text{€}$ , and with probability  $q = 1 - p$  you lose your  $1\text{€}$  bet.
- You start with an initial amount of  $100\text{€}$ .
- You keep playing until you lose all your money or you arrive to have  $1000\text{€}$ .
- One goal is finding the probability of winning i.e. getting the  $1000\text{€}$ .

Notice in this process, once we get  $0\text{€}$  or  $1000\text{€}$ , the process stops.

One simple model of stochastic process is the **Markov Chain**:

- Markov Chains are defined on a finite set of **states** ( $S$ ), where at time  $t$ ,  $X_t$  could be any state in  $S$ , together with by the matrix of **transition probability** for going from each state in  $S$  to any other state in  $S$ , including the case that the state  $X_t$  remains the same at  $t + 1$ .
- **In a Markov Chain, at any given time  $t$ , the state  $X_t$  is determined only by  $X_{t-1}$ .**  
memoryless: does not remember the history of past events,

Other memoryless stochastic processes are said to be **Markovian**.

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- Observe that the number of states is finite.

# Markov-Chains: An important tool for CS

- One of the simplest forms of stochastic dynamics.
- Allows to model stochastic temporal dependencies
- Applications in many areas
  - Surfing the web
  - Design of randomized algorithms
  - Random walks
  - Machine Learning (Markov Decision Processes)
  - Computer Vision (Markov Random Fields)
  - etc. etc.

# Formal definition of Markov Chains

A finite, time-discrete Markov Chain, with finite state  $S = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$  is a stochastic process  $\{X_t\}$  s.t. for all  $i, j \in S$ , and for all  $t \geq 0$ ,

$$\Pr[X_{t+1} = j \mid X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_t = i] = \Pr[X_{t+1} = j \mid X_t = i].$$

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We can abstract the time and consider only the probability of moving from state  $i$  to state  $j$ , as  $\Pr[X_{t+1} = j \mid X_t = i]$

# MC: Transition probability matrix

For  $v, u \in S$ , let  $p_{u,v}$  be the probability of going from  $u \rightsquigarrow v$  in  $q$  steps i.e.  $p_{u,v} = \Pr[X_{s+1} = v \mid X_s = u]$ .

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$P = (p_{u,v})_{u,v \in S}$  is a matrix describing the **transition probabilities of the MC**

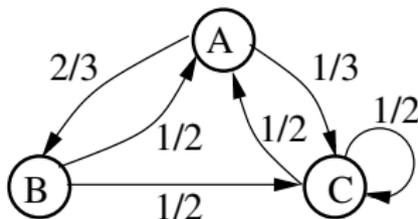
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$P = (p_{u,v})_{u,v \in S}$  is a matrix describing the **transition probabilities of the MC**

**$P$  is called the transition matrix**  $P$  also defines digraph, possibly with loops.

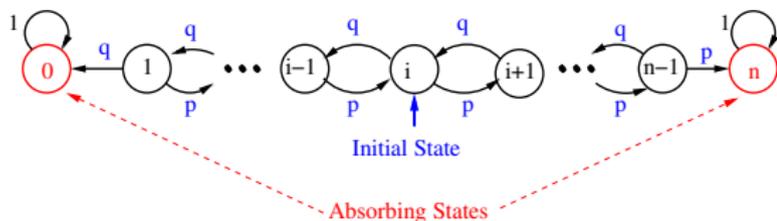


# Gambler's Ruin: MC digraph

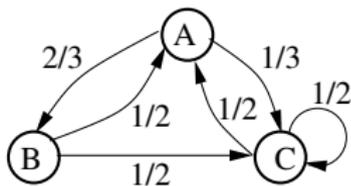
- You place bets of  $1\text{€}$ . With probability  $p$ , you gain  $1\text{€}$ , and with probability  $q = 1 - p$  you lose your  $1\text{€}$  bet.
- You start with an initial amount of  $i \text{€}$  and keep playing until you lose all your money or you arrive to have  $n\text{€}$ .
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# Transition matrix: Example



$$\begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} A & B & C \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} A \\ B \\ C \end{matrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2/3 & 1/3 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix} = P$$

Notice the entry  $(u, v)$  in  $P$  denotes the probability of going from  $u \rightarrow v$  in one step.

Notice, in a MC the transition matrix is stochastic, so sum of transitions out of any state must be 1.

# Longer transition probabilities

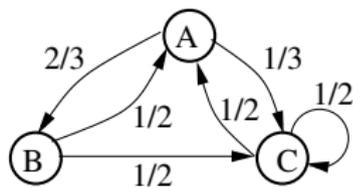
For  $v, u \in S$ , let  $p_{u,v}^t$  be the probability of going from  $u \rightsquigarrow v$  in exactly  $t$  steps i.e.  $p_{u,v}^t = \Pr[X_{s+t} = v \mid X_s = u]$ .

Formally for  $s \geq 0$  and  $t > 1$ ,  $p_{u,v}^t = \Pr[X_{s+t} = v \mid X_s = u]$ .

A times, we may use  $P_{u,v}^t$  to indicate entry  $(u, v)$  in the matrix  $P$ , i.e.  $p_{u,v}^t = P_{u,v}^t = \Pr[X_{s+t} = v \mid X_s = u]$ .

How can we relate  $P^t$  with  $P$ ?

# The powers of the transition matrix



$$\begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} A & B & C \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} A \\ B \\ C \end{matrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2/3 & 1/3 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix} = P$$

In ex.  $\Pr[X_1 = C | X_0 = A] = P_{A,C}^1 = 1/3$ .

$\Pr[X_2 = C | X_0 = A] = P_{AB}^1 P_{BC}^1 + P_{AC}^1 P_{CC}^1 = 1/3 + 1/6 = P_{A,C}^2$

In general, assume a MC with  $k$  states and transition matrix  $P$ , let  $u, v \in S$ :

- What is the  $\Pr[X_1 = u | X_0 = v]$ , i.e.  $= P_{v,u}$ ?
- What is the  $\Pr[X_2 = u | X_0 = v] = P_{v,u}^2$ ?

# The powers of the transition matrix

Use Law Total Probability+ Markov property:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[X_2 = u|X_0 = v] &= \sum_{w=1}^m \Pr[X_1 = w|X_0 = v] \Pr[X_2 = u|X_1 = w] \\ &= \sum_{w=1}^m P_{v,w} P_{w,u} = P_{v,u}^2.\end{aligned}$$

In general  $\Pr[X_t = w|X_0 = v] = P_{v,w}^t$  and  
 $\Pr[X_{k+t} = w|X_k = v] = P_{v,w}^t$ .

The argument can be generalized to

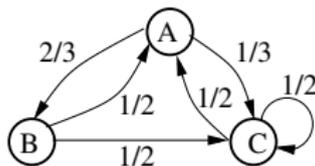
Given the transition matrix  $P$  of a MC, then for any  $t > 1$ ,

$$P^t = P \cdot P^{t-1}.$$

Notice the entry  $(u, v)$  in  $P^t$  denotes the probability of going from  $u \rightarrow v$  in  $t$  steps.

# Distributions at time $t$

To fix the initial state, we consider a random variable  $X_0$ , assigning to  $S$  an initial distribution  $\pi_0$ , which is a row vector indicating at  $t = 0$  the probability of being in the corresponding state. For example, in the MC:



we may consider,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & B & C \\ (0 & 0.3 & 0.6) = \pi_0 \end{array}$$

# Distributions at time $t$

Starting with an initial distribution  $\pi_0$ , we can compute the state distribution  $\pi_t$  (on  $S$ ) at time  $t$ ,

For a state  $v$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_t[v] &= \mathbf{Pr}[X_t = v] \\ &= \sum_{u \in S} \mathbf{Pr}[X_0 = u] \mathbf{Pr}[X_t = v | X_0 = u] \\ &= \sum_{u \in S} \pi_0[u] P_{v,u}^t.\end{aligned}$$

i.e.  $\pi_t[y]$  is the probability at step  $t$  the system is in state  $y$ .

Therefore,  $\pi_t = \pi_0 P^t$  and  $\pi_{s+t} = \pi_s P^t$ .

# Gambler's Ruin: Exercise

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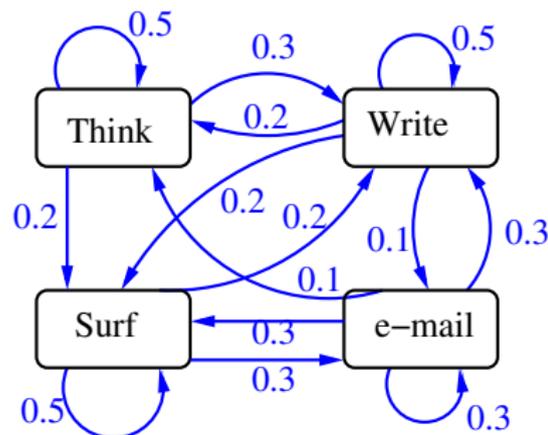
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- We have a state for each possible amount of money you can accumulate  $S = \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ .
- Which is the initial distribution  $\pi_0$ ?
- And, the state distribution at time  $t = 3$ ?

# Example MC: Writing a research paper

Recall that Markov Chains are given either by a **weighted digraph**, where the edge weights are the transition probabilities, or by the  $|S| \times |S|$  **transition probability matrix  $P$** ,

**Example: Writing a paper**  $S = \{r, w, e, s\}$



$$\begin{matrix} & r & w & e & s \\ r & \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.3 & 0 & 0.2 \\ 0.2 & 0.5 & 0.1 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.3 & 0.3 \\ 0 & 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix} \\ w & \\ e & \\ s & \end{matrix}$$

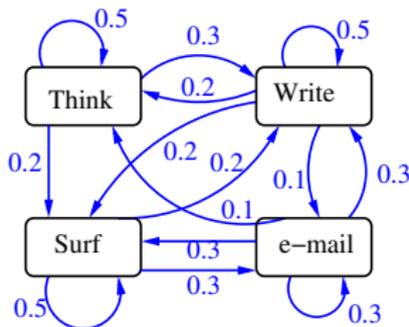
# More on the Markovian property

Notice the memoryless property does not mean that  $X_{t+1}$  is independent from  $X_0, X_1, \dots, X_{t-1}$ .

(For instance notice that intuitively we have:

$\Pr[\text{Thinking at } t + 1] < \Pr[\text{Thinking at } t \mid \text{Thinking at } t - 1]$ ).

But, the dependencies of  $X_t$  on  $X_0, \dots, X_{t-1}$ , are all captured by  $X_{t-1}$ .



# Example of writing a paper

$\Pr[X_2 = s | X_0 = r]$  is the probability that, at  $t = 2$ , we are in state  $s$ , starting in state  $r$ .

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.3 & 0 & 0.2 \\ 0.2 & 0.5 & 0.1 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.3 & 0.3 \\ 0 & 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.3 & 0 & 0.2 \\ 0.2 & 0.5 & 0.1 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.3 & 0.3 \\ 0 & 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.31 & 0.34 & 0.09 & 0.26 \\ 0.21 & 0.38 & 0.14 & 0.27 \\ 0.14 & 0.33 & 0.21 & 0.32 \\ 0.07 & 0.29 & 0.26 & 0.38 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} r \\ w \\ e \\ s \end{matrix}$$

$$\Pr[X_1 = s | X_0 = r] = 0.07.$$

# Distribution on states

Recall  $\pi_t$  is the prob. distribution at time  $t$  over  $S$ .

For our example of writing a paper, if  $t = 0$  (after waking up):

$$\pi_0 = \begin{matrix} & r & w & e & s \\ (0.2 & 0 & 0.3 & 0.5) \end{matrix}$$

$$(0.2 \quad 0 \quad 0.3 \quad 0.5) \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.3 & 0 & 0.2 \\ 0.2 & 0.5 & 0.1 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.3 & 0.3 \\ 0 & 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix} = (0.13 \quad 0.25 \quad 0.24 \quad 0.38) = \pi_1$$

Therefore, we have  $\pi_t = \pi_0 \times P^t$  and  $\pi_{k+t} = \pi_k \times P^t$

Notice  $\pi_t = (\pi_t[r], \pi_t[w], \pi_t[e], \pi_t[s])$

# An Example of MC analysis: The 2-SAT problem

## Section 7.1 of [MU].

Given a Boolean formula  $\phi$ , on

- a set  $X$  of  $n$  Boolean variables,
- defined by  $m$  clauses  $C_1, \dots, C_m$ , where each clause is the disjunction of exactly 2 literals,  $(x_i$  or  $\bar{x}_i)$ , on different variables.
- $\phi =$  conjunction of the  $m$  clauses.

The 2-SAT problem is to find an assignment  $A^* : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , which satisfies  $\phi$ ,

i.e, to find an  $A^*$  s.t.  $A^*(\phi) = 1$ .

Notice that if  $|X| = n$ , then  $m \leq \binom{2n}{2} = O(n^2)$ .

In general  $k$ -SAT  $\in$  NP-complete, for  $k \geq 3$ . But 2-SAT  $\in$  P.

# A randomized algorithm for 2-SAT

Given a  $n$  variable 2-SAT formula  $\phi$ ,  $\{C_j\}_{j=1}^m$

**for all**  $1 \leq i \leq n$  **do**

$A(x_i) = 1$

**end for**

$t = 0$

**while**  $t \leq 2cn^2$  and some clause is unsatisfied **do**

pick and unsatisfied clause  $C_j$

choose u.a.r. one of the 2 variables in  $C_j$  and flip its value

**if**  $\phi$  is satisfied **then**

**return**  $A$

**end if**

**end while**

**return**  $\phi$  is unsatisfiable

# An example: unsat formula

If  $\phi = (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2)$   
does not has a  $A^* \models \phi$ .

$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	sel clause
1	1	1	

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If  $\phi = (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2)$   
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$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	sel clause
1	1	1	2

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$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	sel clause
1	1	1	2
2	1	0	

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$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	sel clause
1	1	1	2
2	1	0	3

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$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	sel clause
1	1	1	2
2	1	0	3
3	0	0	1
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$

$\phi$  is unsat eventually the algorithm will stop after reaching the maximum number of steps.

# An example: sat formula

$$\text{If } \phi = (x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_3) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_4 \vee \bar{x}_3) \wedge (x_4 \vee \bar{x}_1)$$

$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	sel clause
1	1	1	1	1	

# An example: sat formula

$$\text{If } \phi = (x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_3) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_4 \vee \bar{x}_3) \wedge (x_4 \vee \bar{x}_1)$$

$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	sel clause
1	1	1	1	1	2

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$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	sel clause
1	1	1	1	1	2
2	0	1	1	1	

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$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	sel clause
1	1	1	1	1	2
2	0	1	1	1	1

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$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	sel clause
1	1	1	1	1	2
2	0	1	1	1	1
3	0	0	1	1	

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$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	sel clause
1	1	1	1	1	2
2	0	1	1	1	1
3	0	0	1	1	4

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$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	sel clause
1	1	1	1	1	2
2	0	1	1	1	1
3	0	0	1	1	4
4	0	0	1	0	

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$t$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	sel clause
1	1	1	1	1	2
2	0	1	1	1	1
3	0	0	1	1	4
4	0	0	1	0	–

$(0, 0, 1, 0)$  satisfies  $\phi$

# Analysis for 2-SAT algorithm

Given  $\phi, |X| = n, \{C_j\}_{j=1}^m$

assume that there is  $A^*$  such that  $\phi(A^*) = 1$

- Let  $A_i$  be the assignment at the  $i$ -th iteration.
- Let  $X_i = |\{x_j \in X \mid A_i(x_j) = A^*(x_j)\}|$ .
- Notice  $0 \leq X_i \leq n$ . Moreover, when  $X_i = n$ , we found  $A^*$ .
- Analysis: Starting from  $X_i < n$ , how long to get  $X_i = n$ ?
- Note that  $\Pr[X_{i+1} = 1 \mid X_i = 0] = 1$ .

# Analysis for 2-SAT algorithm

- As  $A^*$  satisfies  $\phi$  and  $A_i$  no, there is a clause  $C_j$  that  $A^*$  satisfies but  $A_i$  not.
- So  $A^*$  and  $A_i$  disagree in the value of at least one variable.
- It is also possible to flip the value of the variable in  $C_j$  in which  $A$  and  $A^*$  agree.
- Therefore,

For  $1 \leq k \leq n-1$ ,  $\Pr[X_{i+1} = k+1 \mid X_i = k] \geq 1/2$  and  $\Pr[X_{i+1} = k-1 \mid X_i = k] \leq 1/2$ .

The process  $X_0, X_1, \dots$  is not necessarily a MC,

- The probability that  $X_{i+1} > X_i$  depends on whether  $A_i$  and  $A^*$  disagree in 1 or 2 variables in the selected unsatisfied clause  $C$ .
- If  $A^*$  makes true both literals in  $C$ ,  
 $\Pr[X_{i+1} = k + 1 \mid X_i = k] = 1$ , otherwise  
 $\Pr[X_{i+1} = k + 1 \mid X_i = k] = 1/2$
- This difference might depend on the clauses and variables selected in the past, so the transition probabilities are not memoryless.
- $X_t$  is not a Markov chain.

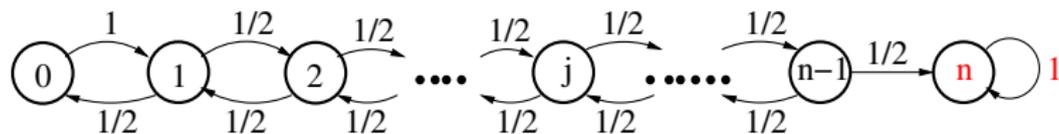
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- The probability that  $X_{i+1} > X_i$  depends on whether  $A_i$  and  $A^*$  disagree in 1 or 2 variables in the selected unsatisfied clause  $C$ .
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- This difference might depend on the clauses and variables selected in the past, so the transition probabilities are not memoryless.
- $X_t$  is not a Markov chain. **Can we bound the process by a MC?**

# Analysis for 2-SAT

Define a MC  $Y_0, Y_1, Y_2, \dots$  which is a pessimistic version of process  $X_0, X_1, \dots$ , in the sense that  $Y_i$  measures exactly the same quantity than  $X_i$  but the probability of change (up or down) will be exactly  $1/2$ .

- $Y_0 = X_0$  and  $\Pr[Y_{i+1} = 1 \mid Y_i = 0] = 1$ ;
- For  $1 \leq k \leq n-1$ ,  $\Pr[Y_{i+1} = k+1 \mid Y_i = k] = 1/2$ ;
- $\Pr[Y_{i+1} = k-1 \mid Y_i = k] = 1/2$ .



MC for 2-SAT

The time to reach  $n$  from  $j \geq 0$  in  $\{Y_i\}_{i=0}^n$  is  $\geq$  that in  $\{X_i\}_{i=0}^n$ .

# Upper Bound on the time to arrive state $n$

## Lemma

*If a 2-CNF  $\phi$  on  $n$  variables has a satisfying assignment  $A^*$ , the 2-SAT algorithm finds one in expected time  $\leq n^2$ .*

## Proof

- Let  $h_j$  be the expected time, for process  $Y$ , to go from state  $j$  to state  $n$ .
- It suffices to prove that, when  $Y$  starts in state  $j$  the time to arrives to  $n$  is  $\leq 2cn^2$ .
- We devise a recurrence to bound  $h$

# Upper Bound on the time to arrive state $n$

- $h_n = 0$  and  $h_1 = h_0 + 1$ ;
- We want a general recurrence on  $h_j$ , for  $1 \leq j < n$
- Define a rv  $Z_j$  counting the steps to go from state  $j \rightarrow n$  in  $Y$ .
- With probability  $1/2$ ,  $Z_j = Z_{j-1} + 1$  and, with probability  $1/2$ ,  $Z_j = Z_{j+1} + 1$ .
- So  $h_j = \mathbf{E}[Z_j]$ .

$$\mathbf{E}[Z_j] = \mathbf{E}\left[\frac{Z_{j-1} + 1}{2} + \frac{Z_{j+1} + 1}{2}\right] = \frac{\mathbf{E}[Z_{j-1}] + 1}{2} + \frac{\mathbf{E}[Z_{j+1}] + 1}{2}.$$

$$\text{So, } h_j = \frac{h_{j-1}}{2} + \frac{h_{j+1}}{2} + 1.$$

# Upper Bound on the time to arrive state $n$

From the previous bound we get  $h_j = \frac{h_{j-1}}{2} + \frac{h_{j+1}}{2} + 1$ .

The recurrence has the  $n + 1$  equations,

$$h_n = 0$$

$$h_0 = h_1 + 1$$

$$h_j = \frac{h_{j-1}}{2} + \frac{h_{j+1}}{2} + 1 \quad 0 \leq j \leq n-1$$

Let us prove, by induction that

$$h_j = h_{j+1} + 2j + 1.$$

# Upper Bound on the time to arrive state $n$

For  $0 \leq j \leq n - 1$ ,  $h_j = h_{j+1} + 2j + 1$ .

Proof

**Base case:** If  $j = 0$ ,  $2j + 1 = 1$ , and we were given  $h_0 = h_1 + 1$ .

# Upper Bound on the time to arrive state $n$

For  $0 \leq j \leq n-1$ ,  $h_j = h_{j+1} + 2j + 1$ .

Proof

**IH:** for  $j = k-1$ ,  $h_{k-1} = h_k + 2(k-1) + 1$ .

Now consider  $j = k$ . By the “middle case” of our system of equations,

$$\begin{aligned}h_k &= \frac{h_{k-1} + h_{k+1}}{2} + 1 \\&= \frac{h_k + 2(k-1) + 1}{2} + \frac{h_{k+1}}{2} + 1 \quad \text{by IH} \\&= \frac{h_k}{2} + \frac{h_{k+1}}{2} + \frac{2k+1}{2}\end{aligned}$$

Subtracting  $\frac{h_k}{2}$  from each side, we get the result.

# Upper Bound on the time to arrive state $n$

As

$$h_j = h_{j+1} + 2j + 1.$$

$$\begin{aligned} h_0 &= h_1 + 1 = h_2 + 3 + 1 = h_3 + 5 + 3 + 1 \cdots \\ &= \underbrace{h_n}_{=0} + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (2i + 1) = n^2. \end{aligned}$$

# Error probability for 2-SAT algorithm

## Theorem

The 2-SAT algorithm gives the correct answer NO if  $\phi$  is not satisfiable. Otherwise, with probability  $\geq 1 - \frac{1}{2^c}$  the algorithm returns a satisfying assignment.

## Proof

- Let  $\phi$  be satisfiable (otherwise the theorem holds).
- Break the  $2cn^2$  iterations into  $c$  blocks of  $2n^2$  iterations.
- For each block  $i$ , define a r.v.  $Z$  = number of iterations from the start of the  $i$ -block until a solution is found.
- Using Markov's inequality:

$$\Pr [Z > 2n^2] \leq \frac{n^2}{2n^2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

- Therefore, the probability that the algorithm fails to find a satisfying assignment after  $c$  segments (no block includes a solution) is at most  $\frac{1}{2^c}$ .