

# Asymptotic performance of the Grimmett–McDiarmid heuristic

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## Abstract

Grimmett and McDiarmid analyzed a simple heuristic for finding stable sets in random graphs (suggested earlier by Johnson). They showed that the heuristic finds a stable set of size roughly  $\log_2 n$  probability, on a  $G(n, 1/2)$  random graph, with high probability. We determine the asymptotic distribution of the size of the stable set found by the algorithm.

## 1 Introduction

Grimmett and McDiarmid [GM75] considered the problem of coloring  $G(n, 1/2)$  random graphs. As part of their solution, they suggested the following simple greedy heuristic for finding a large stable set: scan the vertices in random order, adding to the stable set any vertex which is not adjacent to the vertices added so far. They showed that this heuristic algorithm constructs a stable set of size roughly  $\log_2 n$ , with high probability. In contrast, the maximum stable set in the graph has size roughly  $2 \log_2 n$ , with high probability, and is concentrated on one or two values [Mat72, BE76, Mat76]. (This contrasts with the non-concentration of the chromatic number, shown recently by Heckel [Hec20].)

Karp [Kar76] concluded that the Grimmett–McDiarmid algorithm (which had been suggested independently by Johnson [Joh74]) gives a 2-approximation to the maximum stable set problem in  $G(n, 1/2)$  random graphs, with high probability. He asked whether this approximation ratio can be improved to  $2 - \epsilon$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$ . Despite some lower order improvements [KS98], the problem remains open. (The planted clique problem [Jer92, Kuč95], an attempt to mitigate this difficulty, is beyond the scope of this work.)

Grimmett and McDiarmid showed that for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , with high probability their algorithm constructs a stable set whose size is between  $(1 - \epsilon) \log_2 n$  and  $(1 + \epsilon) \log_2 n$ . Their bounds were later improved [McD79, McD84, BT85] in the context of analyzing algorithms for coloring random graphs. However, to the best of our knowledge, an analysis of the limiting distribution of the size has never been published.<sup>1</sup> This is our goal in this work.

Let us briefly indicate how to analyze the Grimmett–McDiarmid algorithm. Denote by  $N_k$  the number of remaining vertices not adjacent to the first  $k$  vertices in the stable set constructed by the algorithm, or zero if the algorithm terminated before choosing  $k$  vertices. A simple induction shows that  $\mathbb{E}[N_k] \leq n/2^k$ , and so with high probability, the algorithm produces a stable set of size at most  $\log_2 n + f(n)$ , where  $f(n)$  is *any* function satisfying  $f(n) \rightarrow \infty$ .

For the lower bound, let us imagine that there are infinitely many vertices (this idea already appears in [GM75]), let  $i_0 = 0$ , and let  $i_k$  be the index of the  $k$ 'th chosen vertex in the random order of the vertices (starting with 1). Then  $i_{k+1} - i_k \sim G(2^{-k})$  (geometric random variable with success probability  $2^{-k}$ ), and the size of the clique is the maximal  $k$  such that  $i_k \leq n$ . It is easy to calculate  $\mathbb{E}[i_k] = 2^k - 1$ , from which it easily follows that with high probability, the algorithm produces a stable set of size at least  $\log_2 n - f(n)$ , where  $f(n)$  is *any* function satisfying  $f(n) \rightarrow \infty$ .

Let  $\mathbf{k}$  be the size of the stable set produced by the algorithm. The foregoing suggests that  $\mathbf{k} - \log_2 n$  approaches a limiting distribution, but there is a complication:  $\mathbf{k}$  is always an integer, while the fractional part of  $\log_2 n$  varies. We will show that if we fix the fractional part  $\{\log_2 n\}$  then  $\mathbf{k} - \log_2 n$  indeed approaches a limit; and furthermore, the various limits stem from the same continuous distribution.

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<sup>1</sup>In unpublished work, Huang [Hwa08] worked out the asymptotic moment generating function of the deviation of the size from  $\log_2 n$ .

**Definition 1.1.** The random variable  $\mathbf{H}$  is given by the following sum of exponential distributions:

$$\mathbf{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} E(2^i),$$

where  $E(2^i)$  is an exponential random variable with mean  $2^{-i}$ . (This defines a random variable due to Kolmogorov’s three-series theorem [Fel71, VIII.5,IX.9].)

**Theorem 1.2.** For a given  $n$ , define

$$p_k = \Pr[\mathbf{k} = k], \quad q_k = \Pr\left[\frac{n}{2^{k+1}} \leq \mathbf{H} < \frac{n}{2^k}\right].$$

Then we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |p_k - q_k| = o(1).$$

Prodinger [Pro92, Pro93a] mentions that the distribution of  $\mathbf{k}$  is identical to the distribution of the Morris approximate counter [Mor78], thoroughly analyzed by Flajolet [Fla85]. In particular, Theorem 1.2 is very similar to [Fla85, Proposition 3].

The existence of a limiting distribution in the sense of Theorem 1.2 also follows from the work of Janson, Lavault, and Louchard [JLL08] on leader election algorithms; see also [Pro93a, Pro93b, FMS96, Kne01, LP08].

**Background on stable set algorithms** The first heuristic algorithms for finding stable sets appear in early work from the 1960s on scheduling [Col64, WP67], as an ingredient of graph coloring algorithms. These heuristics (“non-adaptive degree-greedy”) scan the vertices in increasing order of degree, adding each vertex not adjacent to vertices added so far. Matula [Mat68] and Kučera [Kuč77] suggest an adaptive version of this heuristic (“adaptive degree-greedy”), which repeatedly adds a feasible vertex of minimal degree. These heuristics and others were evaluated empirically on random graphs in [MMI72, BT85]. Kučera [Kuč92] analyzed some of these heuristics with a cryptographic application in mind.

The work of Grimmett and McDiarmid [GM75] was the first to analyze any heuristic for stable set or coloring. While aware of more sophisticated heuristics, they were only able to analyze the “random-greedy” heuristic which is the focus of this work, suggested independently by Johnson [Joh74]. McDiarmid [McD84] showed that the adaptive degree-greedy heuristic also produces stable sets of size at least  $\log_2 n$ , but was unable to improve on that due to “awkward conditioning problems”. To the best of our knowledge, the suspicion that the adaptive degree-greedy heuristic improves on the random-greedy heuristic remains unproven.

Other heuristics appear in the literature. For example, Matula et al. [MMI72] and Brockington and Culberson [BC96] suggested further degree-greedy heuristics, Jerrum [Jer92] suggested the Metropolis algorithm, and Krivelevich and Vu [KV02] (see also [COT04]) considered running the greedy coloring algorithm and taking the largest color class. So far the only algorithm which provably improves on the random-greedy heuristic is due to Krivelevich and Sudakov [KS98], which runs Grimmett–McDiarmid on half the vertices, and then switches to exhaustive search. This algorithm results in a stable set of size  $\log_2 n + \Theta(\sqrt{\log n})$ . Consult [BBPP99] for a survey of many heuristics.

Further information on the stable set problem and the related graph coloring problem can be found in the surveys by Frieze and McDiarmid [FM97], Krivelevich [Kri02], and Kang and McDiarmid [KM15], as well as in standard textbooks on random graph theory [Pal88, JLR00, Bol01, FK16].

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**Preliminaries** The Wasserstein distance  $W_1(X, Y)$  between two random variables is the minimum of  $\mathbb{E}[|X - Y|]$  over all couplings of  $X, Y$ . This formula shows that  $W_1$  is subadditive:  $W_1(X_1 + X_2, Y_1 + Y_2) \leq W_1(X_1, Y_1) + W_1(X_2, Y_2)$ . The Wasserstein distance is also given by the explicit formula [PZ20, Cor. 1.5.3]

$$W_1(X, Y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Pr[X < t] - \Pr[Y < t]| dt.$$

The Kolmogorov–Smirnov distance between  $X$  and  $Y$  is  $\sup_t |\Pr[X < t] - \Pr[Y < t]|$ .

**Lemma 1.3** ([CR07, Lemma 2]). *If  $Y$  is a continuous random variable with density bounded by  $C$ , then the Kolmogorov–Smirnov distance between  $X$  and  $Y$  is bounded by  $2\sqrt{CW_1(X, Y)}$ .*

*Proof.* We will show that  $|\Pr[X < t] - \Pr[Y < t]|$  holds for every  $t$ . Fix an arbitrary point  $t$ , and let  $\epsilon > 0$  be a parameter to be chosen. Define a real-valued function  $f$  as follows:  $f(x) = 1$  for  $x \leq t$ ,  $f(x) = 1 - (x - t)/\epsilon$  for  $t \leq x \leq t + \epsilon$ , and  $f(x) = 0$  for  $x \geq t + \epsilon$ . Clearly  $\Pr[X < t] \leq \mathbb{E}[f(X)]$ . Since  $Y$  has density bounded by  $C$ , we have  $\Pr[Y < t] \geq \Pr[Y < t + \epsilon] - C\epsilon \geq \mathbb{E}[f(Y)] - C\epsilon$ . Thus

$$\Pr[X < t] - \Pr[Y < t] \leq \mathbb{E}[f(X) - f(Y)] + C\epsilon.$$

On the other hand, since  $f$  is  $1/\epsilon$ -Lipschitz, clearly  $\mathbb{E}[f(X) - f(Y)] \leq W_1(X, Y)/\epsilon$ , and so

$$\Pr[X < t] - \Pr[Y < t] \leq W_1(X, Y)/\epsilon + C\epsilon.$$

Choosing  $\epsilon = \sqrt{W_1(X, Y)/C}$ , we get the required upper bound on  $\Pr[X < t] - \Pr[Y < t]$ .

The lower bound is proved in a similar way. Define a real-valued function  $g$  as follows:  $g(x) = 1$  for  $x \leq t - \epsilon$ ,  $g(x) = (x - (t - \epsilon))/\epsilon$  for  $t - \epsilon \leq x \leq t$ , and  $g(x) = 0$  for  $x \geq t$ . This time  $\Pr[X < t] \geq \mathbb{E}[g(X)]$  while  $\Pr[Y < t] \leq \Pr[Y < t - \epsilon] + C\epsilon \leq \mathbb{E}[g(Y)] + C\epsilon$ . Thus

$$\Pr[Y < t] - \Pr[X < t] \leq \mathbb{E}[g(Y) - g(X)] + C\epsilon \leq W_1(X, Y)/\epsilon + C\epsilon \leq 2\sqrt{CW_1(X, Y)}. \quad \square$$

## 2 Proof

Recall that  $\mathbf{k}$  is the size of the stable set produced by the Grimmett–McDiarmid algorithm. Grimmett and McDiarmid proved the following result, whose proof was outlined in the introduction.

**Lemma 2.1.**

$$\Pr[\mathbf{k} < k] = \Pr[G(1) + G(1/2) + \dots + G(1/2^{k-1}) > n] = \Pr[G(1/2) + \dots + G(1/2^{k-1}) \geq n].$$

Our main idea is to rewrite this formula as follows:

$$\Pr[\mathbf{k} < k] = \Pr\left[\frac{G(1/2^{k-1})}{n} + \frac{G(1/2^{k-2})}{n} + \dots + \frac{G(1/2)}{n} \geq 1\right]. \quad (1)$$

It is known that the distribution  $G(c/n)/n$  tends (in an appropriate sense) to an exponential random variable  $E(c)$  [Fel71, Problem XIII.1]. We will show this quantitatively, in terms of the Wasserstein metric  $W_1$ .

**Lemma 2.2.** *If  $p \leq 1/2$  then*

$$W_1(G(p)/n, E(pn)) \leq \frac{2}{n}.$$

*Proof.* Let  $X = \lceil E(pn)n \rceil$ . Then for integer  $t$ ,

$$\Pr[X \geq t] = \Pr[E(pn) > (t - 1)/n] = e^{-p(t-1)}.$$

In contrast,

$$\Pr[G(p) \geq t] = (1 - p)^{t-1}.$$

By construction,  $W_1(X/n, E(pn)) \leq 1/n$ , and so subadditivity of  $W_1$  and the explicit formula for  $W_1$  show that

$$\begin{aligned} W_1(G(p)/n, E(pn)) &\leq \frac{1}{n} + W_1(G(p)/n, X/n) = \frac{1}{n} + \int_0^\infty |\Pr[G(p)/n \geq s] - \Pr[X/n \geq s]| ds = \\ &\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{r=1}^\infty |\Pr[G(p) \geq r] - \Pr[X \geq r]| = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^\infty |(1-p)^t - e^{-pt}|. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $p \leq 1/2$ , we have  $-p - p^2 \leq \log(1 - p) \leq -p$ , and so

$$e^{-pt-p^2t} \leq (1 - p)^t \leq e^{-pt}.$$

Therefore,  $e^{-x} \geq 1 - x$  implies that

$$|(1 - p)^t - e^{-pt}| = e^{-pt} - (1 - p)^t \leq e^{-pt}(1 - e^{-p^2t}) \leq p^2te^{-pt}.$$

We can thus bound

$$\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} |(1 - p)^t - e^{-pt}| \leq p^2 \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{t}{e^{pt}} = \frac{p^2 e^p}{(e^p - 1)^2} \leq 1,$$

where the last step follows from

$$pe^{p/2} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{p^k}{2^{k-1}(k-1)!} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{p^k}{k!} = e^p - 1,$$

which implies that  $p^2 e^p \leq (e^p - 1)^2$  for all  $p \geq 0$ . □

Since  $W_1$  is subadditive, we immediately conclude the following:

**Lemma 2.3.** *Let  $\mathbf{G} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot (\mathbf{G}(1/2^{k-1}) + \mathbf{G}(1/2^{k-2}) + \dots + \mathbf{G}(1/2))$ . Then for every  $k \geq 1$ ,*

$$W_1 \left( \frac{n}{2^k} \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{H} \right) \leq \frac{k}{2^{k-1}}.$$

When  $k = 0$  (and so  $\mathbf{G}$  is identically zero), this holds with the bound 1.

*Proof.* Lemma 2.2 and subadditivity of  $W_1$  show that

$$W_1(\mathbf{G}, \mathbf{E}(n/2^{k-1}) + \dots + \mathbf{E}(n/2)) \leq \frac{2(k-1)}{n},$$

which implies that

$$W_1 \left( \frac{n}{2^k} \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{E}(2) + \dots + \mathbf{E}(2^{k-1}) \right) \leq \frac{k-1}{2^{k-1}}.$$

On the other hand,

$$W_1 \left( \sum_{\ell=k}^{\infty} \mathbf{E}(2^\ell), \mathbf{0} \right) = \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{\ell=k}^{\infty} \mathbf{E}(2^\ell) \right] = \frac{1}{2^{k-1}},$$

where  $\mathbf{0}$  is the constant zero random variable. The lemma follows for  $k \geq 1$  from another application of subadditivity of  $W_1$ . When  $k = 0$ , the final step shows that  $W_1(\mathbf{H}, \mathbf{0}) = 1$ . □

In order to convert this bound to a bound on the Kolmogorov–Smirnov distance using Lemma 1.3, we need to know that  $\mathbf{H}$  is continuous and has a bounded density function.

**Lemma 2.4.** *The random variable  $\mathbf{H}$  is continuous, and has a bounded density function  $f$ :*

$$f(x) = 2C^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{i-1} e^{-2^i x} \prod_{r=1}^{i-1} \frac{2}{2^r - 1}, \text{ where } C = \prod_{s=1}^{\infty} (1 - 2^{-s}) > 0.$$

(The constant  $C$  is the limit of the probability that an  $n \times n$  matrix over  $GF(2)$  is regular.)

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{H}^{(\ell)} = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \mathbf{E}(2^i)$ . It is well-known [Fel71, Problem I.12] that the density of  $\mathbf{H}^{(\ell)}$  is

$$f_{\ell}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} 2^i e^{-2^i x} K_{\ell,i}, \text{ where } K_{\ell,i} = \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^{\ell} \frac{2^j}{2^j - 2^i}.$$

Note that

$$K_{\ell,i} = (-1)^{i-1} \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} \frac{1}{2^{i-j} - 1} \times \prod_{j=i+1}^{\ell} \frac{1}{1 - 2^{i-j}} = (-1)^{i-1} \prod_{r=1}^{i-1} \frac{1}{2^r - 1} \times \prod_{s=1}^{\ell-i} \frac{1}{1 - 2^{-s}}.$$

We can therefore write

$$f_{\ell}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} 2e^{-2^i x} \times (-1)^{i-1} \prod_{r=1}^{i-1} \frac{2}{2^r - 1} \times \prod_{s=1}^{\ell-i} \frac{1}{1 - 2^{-s}}.$$

This allows us to bound

$$|f_{\ell}(x)| \leq 2C^{-1} e^{-2x} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \prod_{r=1}^{i-1} \frac{2}{2^r - 1},$$

where  $C$  is the constant in the statement of the lemma. Bounding the sum by a geometric series, we conclude that  $|f_{\ell}(x)| = O(e^{-2x})$ , where the bound is independent of  $\ell$ . Applying dominated convergence, we obtain the formula in the statement of the lemma.  $\square$

Armed with this information, we can finally estimate  $\Pr[\mathbf{k} < k]$ .

**Lemma 2.5.** *The following holds for every  $k \geq 1$ :*

$$\Pr[\mathbf{k} < k] = \Pr\left[\mathbf{H} \geq \frac{n}{2^k}\right] \pm O\left(\sqrt{\frac{k}{2^k}}\right).$$

*Proof.* Since  $\mathbf{H}$  has bounded density by Lemma 2.4, we can apply Lemma 1.3 to bound the Kolmogorov–Smirnov distance between  $\frac{n}{2^k} \mathbf{G}$  and  $\mathbf{H}$  by  $O(\sqrt{W_1(\frac{n}{2^k} \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{H})}) = O(\sqrt{k/2^k})$ , using Lemma 2.3. It follows that

$$\Pr[\mathbf{k} < k] = \Pr\left[\frac{n}{2^k} \mathbf{G} \geq \frac{n}{2^k}\right] = \Pr\left[\mathbf{H} \geq \frac{n}{2^k}\right] \pm O\left(\sqrt{\frac{k}{2^k}}\right). \quad \square$$

Theorem 1.2 now easily follows:

*Proof of Theorem 1.2.* Lemma 2.5 shows that for each  $k \geq 1$ ,

$$\Pr[\mathbf{k} = k] = \Pr[\mathbf{k} < k + 1] - \Pr[\mathbf{k} < k] = \Pr\left[\frac{n}{2^{k+1}} \leq \mathbf{H} < \frac{n}{2^k}\right] \pm O\left(\sqrt{\frac{k}{2^k}}\right).$$

This implies that for  $\ell \geq 1$ ,

$$\sum_{k=\ell}^{\infty} \left| \Pr[\mathbf{k} = k] - \Pr\left[\frac{n}{2^{k+1}} \leq \mathbf{H} < \frac{n}{2^k}\right] \right| = O\left(\sqrt{\frac{\ell}{2^{\ell}}}\right).$$

Lemma 2.1 and Markov's inequality show that

$$\Pr[\mathbf{k} < \ell] = \Pr[G(1/2) + \dots + G(1/2^{\ell-1}) \geq n] \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[G(1/2) + \dots + G(1/2^{\ell-1})]}{n} < \frac{2^{\ell}}{n},$$

and so choosing  $\ell := \frac{2}{3} \log_2 n$ , we have

$$\Pr[\mathbf{k} < \ell] \leq \frac{1}{n^{1/3}}.$$

Since  $\sqrt{\ell/2^{\ell}} = O(\sqrt{\log n}/n^{1/3})$ , Lemma 2.5 shows that

$$\Pr\left[\mathbf{H} \geq \frac{n}{2^{\ell}}\right] = O\left(\frac{\sqrt{\log n}}{n^{1/3}}\right),$$

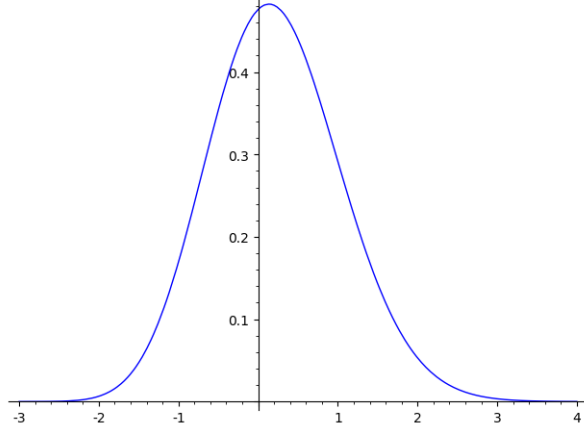


Figure 1: Density of  $\log_2(1/\mathbf{H})$

and so

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\ell-1} \left| \Pr[\mathbf{k} = k] - \Pr\left[\frac{n}{2^{k+1}} \leq \mathbf{H} < \frac{n}{2^k}\right] \right| \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\ell-1} \left( \Pr[\mathbf{k} = k] + \Pr\left[\frac{n}{2^{k+1}} \leq \mathbf{H} < \frac{n}{2^k}\right] \right) = O\left(\frac{\sqrt{\log n}}{n^{1/3}}\right).$$

In total, we conclude that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left| \Pr[\mathbf{k} = k] - \Pr\left[\frac{n}{2^{k+1}} \leq \mathbf{H} < \frac{n}{2^k}\right] \right| = O\left(\frac{\sqrt{\log n}}{n^{1/3}}\right). \quad \square$$

We can also express Theorem 1.2 in terms of the variation distance between  $\mathbf{k}$  and an appropriate random variable.

Let  $\theta = \{\log_2 n\} = \log_2 n - \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$ , and let  $k = \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + c$ . Then  $n/2^k = 2^{\theta-c}$ , and so the quantity  $q_k$  in Theorem 1.2 is

$$\Pr[2^{-(c+1)} \leq 2^{-\theta} \mathbf{H} < 2^{-c}] = \Pr[2^{-(c+1)} < 2^{-\theta} \mathbf{H} \leq 2^{-c}] = \Pr[\lfloor \log_2(1/\mathbf{H}) + \theta \rfloor = c].$$

Therefore we obtain the following corollary:

**Corollary 2.6.** *For a given  $n$ , let  $\theta = \{\log_2 n\}$  and define*

$$\mathbf{h} = \lfloor \log_2(1/\mathbf{H}) + \theta \rfloor.$$

*The variation distance between  $\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{h}$  is at most  $\tilde{O}(1/n^{1/3})$ .*

The random variable  $\log_2(1/\mathbf{H})$  has density

$$g(y) = (2C^{-1} \ln 2) 2^{-y} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{i-1} e^{-2^{i-y}} \prod_{r=1}^{i-1} \frac{2}{2^r - 1},$$

and is plotted in Fig. 1.

### 3 Applications

Integrating the formula given in Lemma 2.4, we obtain the following estimate via Lemma 2.5:

$$\Pr[\mathbf{k} = k] \approx C^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{i-1} \left( e^{-n2^{i-k-1}} - e^{-n2^{i-k}} \right) \prod_{r=1}^{i-1} \frac{1}{2^r - 1},$$

where the error is  $O(k/2^k)$ . If  $k = \log_2 n + c$ , then this becomes

$$\Pr[\mathbf{k} = \log_2 n + c] \approx C^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{i-1} \left( e^{-2^{i-c-1}} - e^{-2^{i-c}} \right) \prod_{r=1}^{i-1} \frac{1}{2^r - 1}.$$

Using this, we can calculate the limiting distribution of  $\mathbf{k}$ , fixing  $\{\log_2 n\}$ . For example, if  $n$  is a power of 2 then we obtain the following limiting distribution:

$c$	$\lim \Pr[\mathbf{k} = \log_2 n + c]$
-4	0.000000389680708123307
-3	0.00116084271918975
-2	0.0610996920580558
-1	0.343335642221465
0	0.420730421531672
1	0.153255882765631
2	0.0194547690538043
3	0.000943671851018291
4	0.0000185343323798604
5	0.000000153237063593714

In this case, the expected deviation of  $\mathbf{k}$  from  $\log_2 n$  is  $-0.273947769982407$ , and the standard deviation of  $\mathbf{k}$  is  $0.763009254799132$ .

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