

Algebraic Algorithms for Linear Matroid Parity Problems

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Abstract

We present fast and simple algebraic algorithms for the linear matroid parity problem and its applications. For the linear matroid parity problem, we obtain a simple randomized algorithm with running time $O(mr^{\omega-1})$ where m and r are the number of columns and the number of rows and $\omega \approx 2.376$ is the matrix multiplication exponent. This improves the $O(mr^\omega)$ -time algorithm by Gabow and Stallmann, and matches the running time of the algebraic algorithm for linear matroid intersection, answering a question of Harvey. We also present a very simple alternative algorithm with running time $O(mr^2)$ which does not need fast matrix multiplication.

We further improve the algebraic algorithms for some specific graph problems of interest. For the Mader’s disjoint \mathcal{S} -path problem, we present an $O(n^\omega)$ -time randomized algorithm where n is the number of vertices. This improves the running time of the existing results considerably, and matches the running time of the algebraic algorithms for graph matching. For the graphic matroid parity problem, we give an $O(n^4)$ -time randomized algorithm where n is the number of vertices, and an $O(n^3)$ -time randomized algorithm for a special case useful in designing approximation algorithms. These algorithms are optimal in terms of n as the input size could be $\Omega(n^4)$ and $\Omega(n^3)$ respectively.

The techniques are based on the algebraic algorithmic framework developed by Mucha and Sankowski, Harvey, and Sankowski. While linear matroid parity and Mader’s disjoint \mathcal{S} -path are challenging generalizations for the design of combinatorial algorithms, our results show that both the algebraic algorithms for linear matroid intersection and graph matching can be extended nicely to more general settings. All algorithms are still faster than the existing algorithms even if fast matrix multiplication is not used. These provide simple algorithms that can be easily implemented in practice.

1 Introduction

The graph matching problem and the matroid intersection problem are two fundamental polynomial-time solvable problems in combinatorial optimization. Several efforts have been made to obtain an elegant com-

mon generalization of these two problems, e.g. the matroid parity problem by Lawler [22] (equivalent to the matchoid problem by Edmonds [19] and the matroid matching problem by Lovász [26]), the optimal path-matching problem by Cunningham and Geelen [10], and the membership problem for jump system by Bouchet and Cunningham [3, 25].

So far the matroid parity problem is the most-studied and the most fruitful problem among these generalizations. Although it is shown to be intractable in the oracle model [20] and is NP-hard for matroids with compact representations [26], Lovász proved an exact min-max formula and obtained a polynomial time algorithm for the *linear* matroid parity problem [26]. This provides a polynomial-time solvable common generalization of the graph matching problem and the linear matroid intersection problem¹. Moreover, the linear matroid parity problem has many applications of its own in various areas, including the path packing problem [29, 41] in combinatorial optimization, the minimum pinning set problem [26, 21] in combinatorial rigidity, the maximum genus imbedding problem [11] in topological graph theory, the graphic matroid parity problem [26, 12] used in approximating minimum Steiner tree [39, 2] and approximating maximum planar subgraph [5], and the unique solution problem [28] in electric circuit.

Given its generality and applicability, it is thus of interest to obtain fast algorithms for the linear matroid parity problem. In this paper we will present faster and simpler algorithms for the linear matroid parity problem, and also improved algorithms for specific graph problems of interest. The algorithms are based on the algebraic algorithmic framework developed by Mucha and Sankowski [30], Harvey [16, 18], and Sankowski [40].

1.1 Problem Formulation and Previous Work

The linear matroid parity problem can be formulated as follows without using terminology from matroid

¹This only holds when both matroids are representable over the same field, but it covers most of the applications of the matroid intersection problem; see Section 4 of [16] for more discussions.

theory²: Given an $r \times 2m$ matrix where the columns are partitioned into m pairs, find a maximum cardinality collection of pairs so that the union of the columns of these pairs are linearly independent. For instance, to formulate the graph matching problem as a linear matroid parity problem, we construct an $n \times 2m$ matrix where the rows are indexed by the vertices and the pairs are indexed by the edges, where an edge ij is represented by two columns where one column has an 1 in the i -th entry and 0 otherwise and the other column has an 1 in the j -th entry and 0 otherwise.

There are several deterministic combinatorial algorithms for the linear matroid parity problem. The first polynomial time algorithm is obtained by Lovász with a running time of $O(m^{17})$ which can be implemented to run in $O(m^{10})$ time [26, 28]. The fastest known algorithm is an augmenting path algorithm obtained by Gabow and Stallmann [13] with running time $O(mr^\omega)$ [41], where $\omega \approx 2.376$ is the exponent on the running time of the fastest known matrix multiplication algorithm [8]. Orlin and Vande Vate [35] presented an algorithm with running time $O(mr^{\omega+1})$ [41] by reducing it to a sequence of matroid intersection problems. Recently Orlin [34] presented a simpler algorithm with running time $O(mr^3)$. While these algorithms are all deterministic and reveal substantial structural insights into the problem, even the simplest algorithm by Orlin is quite complex and probably too difficult to be implemented in practice.

On the other hand, Lovász [24] proposed an algebraic approach to the linear matroid parity problem. First, he constructed an appropriate matrix with indeterminates (variables) where the matrix is of full rank if and only if there are $r/2$ linearly independent pairs (see Section 4.1). Then he showed that determining whether the matrix is of full rank can be done efficiently with high probability, by substituting the variables with independent random values from a large enough field, and then computing the determinant of the resulting matrix [24]. This approach can be easily modified to determine the optimal value of the linear matroid parity problem in one matrix multiplication time, and one can also construct a solution in m matrix multiplications time. Note that this already gives a randomized $O(mr^\omega)$ -time algorithm for the linear matroid parity problem, and this algebraic approach also leads to an efficient parallel algorithm for the linear matroid parity problem [32].

In a recent line of research an elegant algorithmic framework has been developed for this algebraic ap-

proach. Mucha and Sankowski [30] showed how to use Gaussian eliminations to construct a maximum matching in one matrix multiplication time, leading to an $O(n^\omega)$ time algorithm for the graph matching problem where n is the number of vertices. Harvey [16] used a divide-and-conquer method to obtain an algebraic algorithm for the linear matroid intersection problem with running time $O(mr^{\omega-1})$ where m is the number of columns, and a simple $O(n^\omega)$ time algorithm for the graph matching problem. Furthermore, Sankowski [40] and Harvey [18] extended the algebraic approach to obtain faster pseudo-polynomial algorithms for the weighted bipartite matching problem and the weighted linear matroid intersection problem.

Besides matching and linear matroid intersection, other special cases of the linear matroid parity problem have also been studied. One special case of interest is the graphic matroid parity problem [12, 14, 44, 45], which has applications in designing approximation algorithms [5, 39, 2]. For this problem the fastest known algorithm is by Gabow and Stallmann [12] which runs in $O(mn \lg^6 n)$ time. Another special problem of considerable interest is the Mader’s \mathcal{S} -path packing problem [29, 26, 42, 7, 36, 37, 38, 1] which is a generalization of the graph matching problem and the s - t vertex disjoint path problem. Lovász [26] showed that this problem can be reduced to the linear matroid parity problem. Chudnovsky, Cunningham and Geelen [7] obtained an $O(n^6)$ time direct combinatorial algorithm for the problem, and Pap [38, 37] obtained a simpler direct combinatorial algorithm for the problem and also for the more general capacitated setting.

1.2 Our Results We obtain fast and simple algebraic algorithms for the linear matroid parity problem and also for some specific graph problems of interest. All algorithms are best possible in the sense that either they match the running time in well-known special cases or they are optimal in terms of some parameters.

1.2.1 Linear Matroid Parity There are two algebraic formulations for the linear matroid parity problem, one is a “compact” formulation by Lovász [24] and another is a “sparse” formulation by Geelen and Iwata [15]. Using the compact formulation and the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula, we present a very simple algorithm for the linear matroid parity problem.

THEOREM 1.1. *There is an $O(mr^2)$ -time randomized algorithm for the linear matroid parity problem.*

One feature of this algorithm is that it does not use fast matrix multiplication and is very easy to implement

²It is not necessary to formulate the general matroid parity problem for this paper, but the formulation and some background of matroid theory will be provided in Section 3.

in practice. Note that it is already faster than the Gabow-Stallmann $O(mr^\omega)$ time algorithm, and actually if fast matrix multiplication is not used then the best known algorithms run in $O(mr^3)$ time [13, 34]. Using the divide-and-conquer method of Harvey [16] on the sparse formulation and fast matrix multiplications, we can improve the running time further to match the running time of the linear matroid intersection problem, answering a question of Harvey [16].

THEOREM 1.2. *There is an $O(mr^{\omega-1})$ -time randomized algorithm for the linear matroid parity problem.*

It is still open whether there is a polynomial time algorithm for the *weighted* linear matroid parity problem, and even a deterministic PTAS is not known yet [23]. We present a faster pseudo-polynomial randomized algorithm for the weighted matroid parity problem, which also implies a faster randomized FPTAS for the weighted linear matroid parity problem using standard scaling technique [39].

1.2.2 Graph Algorithms For graph problems that can be reduced to the linear matroid parity problem, we show that the additional structure can be exploited in the compact formulation to obtain faster algorithms than that follow from Theorem 1.2. We illustrate this with some well-known problems.

MADER'S DISJOINT \mathcal{S} -PATH: In this problem we are given an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ and \mathcal{S} is a collection of disjoint subsets of V , the goal is to find a maximum collection of vertex disjoint \mathcal{S} -paths, where an \mathcal{S} -path is a path that connects two different sets in \mathcal{S} and has no internal vertex in \mathcal{S} . This problem generalizes the graph matching problem and the vertex disjoint s - t path problem, and is of considerable interest [29, 26, 42, 7, 36, 37, 38, 1]. Obtaining a direct combinatorial algorithm is quite nontrivial [7, 38]. The best known running time is still the $O(mn^\omega)$ -time bound implied by the Gabow-Stallmann algorithm, where m is the number of edges and n is the number of vertices. The algorithm in Theorem 1.2 implies an $O(mn^{\omega-1})$ -time algorithm. By using the compact formulation, we further improve the running time to match the algebraic algorithms for the graph matching problem. The algorithm would be quite simple if fast matrix multiplication is not used, and its running time would be $\tilde{O}(n^3)$ which is still faster than the existing algorithms.

THEOREM 1.3. *There is an $O(n^\omega)$ -time randomized algorithm for the Mader's \mathcal{S} -path problem.*

GRAPHIC MATROID PARITY: In this problem we are given an undirected graph and some edge pairs,

and the problem is to find a maximum collection of edge pairs such that the union of these edges forms a forest. One special case of interest [28, 44] is when each pair has a common vertex (i.e. $\{ij, ik\}$ for some vertex i). This has applications in approximating minimum Steiner tree [39, 2] and approximating maximum planar subgraph [5]. In the general problem the input could have up to $\Omega(n^4)$ edge pairs where n is the number of vertices, and in the special problem the number of edge pairs could be $\Omega(n^3)$. The following algorithms achieve optimal running time in terms of n for both problems.

THEOREM 1.4. *There is an $O(n^4)$ -time randomized algorithm for the graphic matroid parity problem, and an $O(n^3)$ -time randomized algorithm when every edge pair has a common vertex.*

The fastest algorithm on graphic matroid parity is obtained by Gabow and Stallmann [12] with running time $O(mn \lg^6 n)$ where m is the number of edge pairs, and so our algorithm is faster if there are $\Omega(n^3)$ edge pairs in the general problem and if there are $\Omega(n^2)$ edge pairs in the special problem. We remark that the same statement holds even if we use a cubic algorithm for matrix multiplication, and the resulting algorithm is much simpler than that of Gabow and Stallmann.

COLORFUL SPANNING TREE: In this problem we are given an undirected multigraph $G = (V, E)$ where each edge has one color, and the objective is to determine whether there is a spanning tree in which every edge has a distinct color. This is a generalization of the arborescence problem and the connected detachment problem [33, 41], and is a special case of the linear matroid intersection problem. Note that the input graph could have $\Omega(n^3)$ edges where n is the number of vertices, since each pair of vertices could have $\Omega(n)$ edges in between, each of which has a distinct colors. So the following algorithm has optimal running time in terms of n .

THEOREM 1.5. *There is an $O(n^3)$ -time randomized algorithm for the colorful spanning tree problem.*

1.3 Techniques Our results show that both the algebraic algorithms for graph matching and linear matroid intersection can be generalized to linear matroid parity. The $O(mr^{\omega-1})$ -time algorithm for linear matroid parity is a straightforward generalization of Harvey's linear matroid intersection algorithm, and the algorithm for weighted linear matroid parity follows from the techniques used by Sankowski [40]. The main new technical contribution is the use of the compact formulation to design new algebraic algorithms. For graph problems, the basic observation is that the column vectors have at

most a constant number of nonzeros, and this allows us to extend Harvey’s matching algorithm to obtain faster algorithms using the compact formulation. The $O(n^\omega)$ algorithm for the \mathcal{S} -path problem is based on a good matrix formulation of the problem, while the $O(n^3)$ algorithms for graphic matroid parity and colorful spanning tree are based on different recursions used in the divide-and-conquer method. We remark that this approach on the compact formulation implies some new results for linear matroid intersection problems as well, e.g. colorful spanning tree, graphic matroid intersection, simple $O(mr^2)$ algorithm.

While linear matroid parity and Mader’s disjoint \mathcal{S} -path are challenging generalizations for the design of combinatorial algorithms, our results show that the algebraic algorithmic framework can be adapted nicely to give faster and simpler algorithms in more general settings. Our algorithms are still faster than the existing algorithms even if fast matrix multiplications are not used, and these simpler algorithms could be implemented easily in practice using MATLAB (see e.g. [17]).

2 Algebraic Preliminaries

Notations: Given a matrix M , the submatrix containing rows S and columns T is denoted by $M_{S,T}$. A submatrix containing all rows (or columns) is denoted by $M_{*,T}$ (or $M_{S,*}$), and an entry of M is denoted by $M_{i,j}$. Let \vec{e}_i to be a column vector with an 1 in the i -th position and 0 otherwise. When a set of integers S are partitioned into k subsets, the set S is partitioned into k equal size subsets S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k . In addition, S_1 contains the smallest $|S|/k$ elements of S , S_2 contains the next $|S|/k$ smallest elements of S , and S_k contains the largest $|S|/k$ elements of S .

Algebraic algorithms: Given two $n \times n$ matrices with entries in a field \mathbb{F} of size $\text{poly}(n)$, the matrix multiplication operation requires $O(n^\omega)$ time [8] where $\omega < 2.38$. For an $n \times n$ matrix, it is known that the operations of computing the determinant, computing the rank, computing the inverse, and computing a maximum rank submatrix can all be done in the same time bound as one matrix multiplication [4, 17]. We assume the number of pairs m and the number of rows r in the linear matroid parity problem will be powers of two. This assumption can be easily satisfied by adding redundant pairs and rows.

Matrix of indeterminates: Let \mathbb{F} be a field, and let $\mathbb{F}(x_1, \dots, x_m)$ be the field of rational function over \mathbb{F} with indeterminates $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$. A matrix with entries in $\mathbb{F}(x_1, \dots, x_m)$ is called a matrix of indeterminates. A matrix M of indeterminates is non-singular if and only if its determinant is not the

zero function. To check if an $n \times n$ matrix M with indeterminates is non-singular, one can substitute each x_i with a random value in \mathbb{F}_q and call the resulting matrix M' . By the Schwartz-Zippel Lemma, if M is non-singular then $\det(M')$ is zero with probability at most n/q . Hence, by setting $q = n^c$ for a large constant c , this gives a randomized algorithm with running time $O(n^\omega)$ to test if M is non-singular with high probability.

Skew-symmetric matrix: A matrix M is called skew-symmetric if $M_{i,j} = -M_{j,i}$ for all i, j . For any non-singular skew-symmetric matrix M , it is known that its inverse is also skew-symmetric [31].

Small rank update formula: Suppose we have a matrix M and its inverse M^{-1} . If we perform a small rank update on M , the following formula [46] shows how to update M^{-1} efficiently.

LEMMA 2.1. (SHERMAN-MORRISON-WOODBURY) *Let M be an $n \times n$ matrix, U be an $n \times k$ matrix, and V be an $n \times k$ matrix. Suppose that M is non-singular. Then*

1. $M + UV^T$ is non-singular if and only if $I + V^T M^{-1} U$ is non-singular.
2. If $M + UV^T$ is non-singular, then $(M + UV^T)^{-1} = M^{-1} - M^{-1} U (I + V^T M^{-1} U)^{-1} V^T M^{-1}$.

Small area update formula: Suppose we have a matrix M and its inverse M^{-1} . If we update $M_{S,S}$ for small $|S|$, then Harvey [16] showed that the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula can be used to compute the values in $M^{-1}_{T,T}$ quickly for small $|T|$.

LEMMA 2.2. (HARVEY) *Let M be a non-singular matrix and let $N = M^{-1}$. Let \tilde{M} be a matrix which is identical to M except $\tilde{M}_{S,S} \neq M_{S,S}$ and let $\Delta = \tilde{M} - M$.*

1. \tilde{M} is non-singular if and only if $\det(I + \Delta_{S,S} N_{S,S}) \neq 0$.
2. If \tilde{M} is non-singular then $\tilde{M}^{-1} = N - N_{*,S} (I + \Delta_{S,S} N_{S,S})^{-1} \Delta_{S,S} N_{S,*}$.
3. Restricting \tilde{M}^{-1} to a subset T , we have $\tilde{M}^{-1}_{T,T} = N_{T,T} - N_{T,S} (I + \Delta_{S,S} N_{S,S})^{-1} \Delta_{S,S} N_{S,T}$, and this can be computed in $O(|T|^\omega)$ time for $|T| \geq |S|$.

3 Matroid Preliminaries

A *matroid* is a pair $M = (V, \mathcal{I})$ of a finite set V and a set \mathcal{I} of subsets of V so that the following axioms are satisfied

1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{I}$,
2. $I \subseteq J \in \mathcal{I} \implies I \in \mathcal{I}$,

3. $I, J \in \mathcal{I}, |I| < |J| \implies \exists v \in J \setminus I$ such that $I \cup \{v\} \in \mathcal{I}$.

We call V the *ground set* and $I \in \mathcal{I}$ an *independent set*. So \mathcal{I} is the *family of independent sets*. Bases \mathcal{B} of M are independent sets with maximum size. By the above axioms, all bases have the same size. For any $U \subseteq V$, the *rank* of U , denoted by $r_M(U)$, is defined as

$$r_M(U) = \max\{|I| \mid I \subseteq U, I \in \mathcal{I}\}.$$

3.1 Examples

Linear Matroid: Let Z be a matrix over a field \mathbb{F} , and V be the set of the column vectors of Z . The linear independence among the vectors of Z defines a matroid M on ground set V . A set $I \subseteq V$ is independent in M if and only if the column vectors indexed by I are linearly independent. The rank function r of M is simply defined as $r_M(I) = \text{rank}(Z_{*,I})$. A matroid that can be obtained in this way is *linearly representable over \mathbb{F}* .

Partition Matroid: Let $\{V_1, \dots, V_k\}$ be a partition of ground set V , that is, $\bigcup_{i=1}^k V_i = V$ and $V_i \cap V_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$. Then the family of the independent sets \mathcal{I} on the ground set V is given by

$$\mathcal{I} = \{I \subseteq V : |I \cap V_i| \leq 1 \ \forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}\}.$$

$M = (V, \mathcal{I})$ is called the *partition matroid*. Partition matroids are linearly representable. This can be done by representing each element $v \in V_i$ as a vector \vec{e}_i .

Graphic Matroid: Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with vertex set V and edge set E . A *graphic matroid* has ground set E . A set $I \subseteq E$ is independent if and only if I contains no cycles in G . The matroid is *linearly representable* by representing each edge $(u, v) \in E$ to a column vector $\vec{e}_u - \vec{e}_v$ in the linear matroid.

3.2 Constructions The *restriction* of a matroid M to $U \subseteq V$, denoted as $M|U$, is a matroid with ground set U so that $I \subseteq U$ is independent in $M|U$ if and only if I is independent in M . This is the same as saying $M|U$ is obtained by deleting the elements $V \setminus U$ in M . The rank function $r_{M|U}$ of $M|U$ is simply $r_{M|U}(I) = r_M(I)$ for $I \subseteq U$.

The *contraction* of a matroid M by $U \subseteq V$, denoted by M/U , is a matroid on ground set $V \setminus U$ so that $I \subseteq V \setminus U$ is independent if and only if $I \cup B$ is independent in M for a base B of $M \setminus U$. The rank function $r_{M/U}$ of M/U is given by

$$r_{M/U}(I) = r_M(I \cup U) - r_M(U), \quad I \subseteq V \setminus U.$$

For any matrix Z and its corresponding linear matroid M , the matrix for $M/\{i\}$ can be obtained by Gaussian

eliminations on Z as follows. First, using row operation and scaling we can transform the column indexed by i to a unit vector \vec{e}_k . Then the matrix obtained by removing i -th column and k -th row from M is the required matrix. It can be seen that $I \cup \{i\}$ is independent in M if and only if I is independent in $M/\{i\}$.

3.3 Matroid Parity Given a matroid $M = (V, \mathcal{I})$ whose elements are given in pairs where each element is contained in exactly one pair. The *matroid parity problem* is to find a maximum cardinality collection of pairs, so that union of these pairs is an independent set of M . The general matroid parity problem is intractable in the oracle model [20], and is NP-hard on matroids with compact representations [26].

3.4 Matroid Intersection Given two matroids $M_1 = (S, \mathcal{I}_1)$ and $M_2 = (S, \mathcal{I}_2)$, the *matroid intersection problem* is to find a maximum size common independent set of the two matroids. The fastest known algorithm for linear matroid intersection is given by Harvey [16]. It is an algebraic randomized algorithm with running time $O(mr^{\omega-1})$, where m is the size of the ground set and r is the rank of both matroids.

4 A Simple Algebraic Algorithm for Linear Matroid Parity

In this section we will present the matrix formulations for linear matroid parity and the proof of Theorem 1.1. The proof of Theorem 1.2 will be presented in Section 6, and the results on weighted linear matroid parity will be presented in Section 7.

Given an $r \times 2m$ matrix M where the columns are partitioned into m pairs $\{\{b_1, c_1\}, \dots, \{b_m, c_m\}\}$, the linear matroid parity problem is to find a maximum collection of pairs $J \subseteq [m]$ so that the vectors in $\bigcup_{i \in J} \{b_i, c_i\}$ are linearly independent. We use ν_M to denote the optimal value, and call an optimal solution a *parity basis* if $\nu_M = r/2$. We also call a set *parity set* if every column pair is either contained in it or disjoint from it.

4.1 Matrix Formulations There are two matrix formulations for the linear matroid parity problem. One is a compact formulation given by Lovász. In the following the *wedge product* $b \wedge c$ of two column vectors b and c is defined as $bc^T - cb^T$.

THEOREM 4.1. (LOVÁSZ [24]) *Given m column pairs $\{(b_i, c_i)\}$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $b_i, c_i \in \mathbb{R}^r$. Let*

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i (b_i \wedge c_i),$$

where x_i are indeterminates. Then $2\nu_M = \text{rank}(Y)$.

Another is a sparse formulation given by Geelen and Iwata. Let M be a $r \times 2m$ matrix for the linear matroid parity problem. Let T be a matrix with size $2m \times 2m$, so that indeterminate t_i appears in $T_{2i-1,2i}$ and $-t_i$ appears in $T_{2i,2i-1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$, while all other entries of T are zero.

THEOREM 4.2. (GEELEN AND IWATA [15]) *Let*

$$Z := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & M \\ -M^T & T \end{pmatrix}$$

Then $2\nu_M = \text{rank}(Z) - 2m$.

4.2 An $O(mr^2)$ algorithm In this subsection we present a very simple $O(mr^2)$ -time algorithm for the linear matroid parity problem. Here we consider the case where we find a parity basis if one exists or report that no parity basis exists. We will show how to reduce the general problem to this case in Section 6.5.

A pseudocode of the algorithm is presented in Algorithm 4.1. First we construct the matrix Y with indeterminates using the compact formulation in Theorem 4.1. By Theorem 4.1 we have $\nu_M = r/2$ if and only if Y is of full rank. As stated in Section 2, we can test whether Y is of full rank in $O(r^3)$ time with high probability, by substituting the indeterminates with random values and then checking whether the resulting matrix has nonzero determinant. If Y is not of full rank, then we report that no parity basis exists, otherwise we construct the matrix Y^{-1} in $O(r^3)$ time.

Then, for each column pair (b_i, c_i) , the algorithm checks whether this pair can be removed while keeping the resulting matrix full rank. If so this pair is removed from the problem since there is still an optimal solution surviving, otherwise this pair is kept since it is in every parity basis with high probability. In the end the algorithm returns the pairs that were not removed.

Next we show how to check whether a pair can be removed efficiently. Removing the i -th column pair from M is equivalent to assign x_i to zero. Let Y' be the new matrix with $x_i = 0$, then

$$Y' = Y - x_i(b_i c_i^T - c_i b_i^T) = Y - x_i \begin{pmatrix} b_i & c_i \\ c_i & -b_i \end{pmatrix}^T$$

Observe that this is just a rank-2 update. By setting $U = x_i \begin{pmatrix} b_i & c_i \end{pmatrix}$ and $V = \begin{pmatrix} -c_i & b_i \end{pmatrix}$ and using Lemma 2.1(1), Y' is of full rank if and only if $I + V^T Y^{-1} U$ is of full rank. Since both U and V are of size $r \times 2$, we can check whether a pair can be removed in $O(r^2)$ time. If so, we apply Lemma 2.1(2) to compute the inverse of Y' by the formula $Y^{-1} - Y^{-1} U (I + V^T Y^{-1} U)^{-1} V^T Y^{-1}$, this can be computed

in $O(r^2)$ time since $I + V^T Y^{-1} U$ is of size 2×2 . Applying this procedure iteratively, the whole algorithm can be implemented in $O(mr^2)$ time.

Finally the algorithm fails only if a matrix is of full rank but the determinant is zero after the random substitutions. As stated in Section 2, this happens with probability at most r/q where q is the field size. Since we only check the rank at most m times, the failure probability is at most mr/q by the union bound, and so by choosing $q = mr/\epsilon$ this probability is at most ϵ .

Algorithm 4.1 A simple algebraic algorithm for linear matroid parity

SIMPLEPARITY(M)

Construct Y using the compact formulation and assign random values to indeterminates x_i

if $\det(Y) = 0$ **return** “there is no parity basis”

Compute Y^{-1}

Set $I = \{b_1, c_1, \dots, b_m, c_m\}$

for $i = 1$ to m **do**

Set $Y' := Y - x_i \begin{pmatrix} b_i & c_i \\ c_i & -b_i \end{pmatrix}^T$

if $\det(Y') \neq 0$ **then**

$Y := Y'$

Update Y^{-1} by the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula

$I := I - \{b_i, c_i\}$

return I

5 Graph Algorithms

In most applications of linear matroid parity, not only is the given matroid linear, but also each column vector of the matroid has few nonzero entries. For example, each column vector of a graphic matroid has only two nonzero entries. In this section, we will show how we can exploit such special structure to obtain faster algorithms for some graph problems of interest.

For the Mader’s \mathcal{S} -path problem in Section 5.1, we will translate the reduction into a good matrix formulation, so that the recursive approach for graph matching problem can be extended to solve this problem. Also, we will give different recursive algorithms to solve the graphic matroid parity problem in Section 5.2 and the colorful spanning tree problem in Section 5.3.

Our algorithms below assume the matroid parity instance contains a parity basis. If not we can use the same step as in Section 6.5 to reduce to this case: Suppose the given matroid M has rank r . Consider the matrix formulation Y in Theorem 4.1. The maximum rank submatrix $Y_{S,S}$ can be found in $O(r^\omega)$ time, and then we only need to focus on $Y_{S,S}$. At any time our algorithm considers a submatrix $Y_{R,C}$, we shall consider $Y_{R \cap S, C \cap S}$ instead, except at the beginning of

the algorithm when we start with the whole ground set.

5.1 Mader's \mathcal{S} -Path Given an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ and let S_1, \dots, S_k be disjoint subsets of V . A path is called an \mathcal{S} -path if it starts and ends with vertices in S_i and S_j such that $S_i \neq S_j$, while all other internal vertices of the path are in $V \setminus (S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \dots \cup S_k)$. The disjoint \mathcal{S} -path problem is to find a maximum cardinality collection of vertex disjoint \mathcal{S} -Paths of the graph G . In the following we assume without loss of generality that each S_i is an independent set.

Lovász [26] showed that the \mathcal{S} -path problem can be reduced to the linear matroid parity problem, but it is not immediately clear how his reduction can be translated into a matrix formulation of the problem. Instead, we will follow the reduction by Schrijver ([41] page 1284), and show that it can be translated into a good matrix formulation.

5.1.1 Reduction to Linear Matroid Parity Here we only present the reduction following Schrijver, for proofs we refer the reader to Chapter 73 of [41]. The high level idea is to associate each edge to a 2-dimensional linear subspace, and show that the edges in a solution of the \mathcal{S} -path problem correspond to subspaces that are linearly independent in an appropriately defined quotient space \mathbb{R}^{2n}/Q , where two subspaces are linearly independent if their basis vectors are linearly independent.

Associate each edge $e = (u, w) \in E$ to a 2-dimensional linear subspace L_e of $(\mathbb{R}^2)^V$ such that

$$L_e = \left\{ x \in (\mathbb{R}^2)^V \mid \begin{array}{l} x(v) = 0 \text{ for each } v \in V \setminus \{u, w\} \\ \text{and } x(u) + x(w) = \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right\}$$

where $x : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is a function that maps each vertex to a 2-dimensional vector. Let r_1, \dots, r_k be k distinct 1-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^2 . For each vertex $v \in V$, let $R_v = r_j$ if $v \in S_j$ for some j , and $R_v = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ otherwise. Define a linear subspace Q of $(\mathbb{R}^2)^V$ such that

$$Q = \{x \in (\mathbb{R}^2)^V \mid x(v) \in R_v \text{ for all } v \in V\}.$$

Let \mathcal{E} be the collection of subspaces L_e/Q for each $e \in E$ of $(\mathbb{R}^2)^V/Q$, where L_e/Q is the quotient space of L_e by Q . Note that $\dim(L_e/Q) = 2$ for all edges e , since it does not connect two vertices in the same S_i as we assume each S_i is an independent set. The following lemma shows the reduction to the linear matroid parity problem.

LEMMA 5.1. (SCHRIJVER [41] (73.20)) *If G is connected, then the maximum number of disjoint \mathcal{S} -paths is equal to $\nu(\mathcal{E}) - |V| + |T|$, where $T = \bigcup_{i=1}^k S_i$ and*

$\nu(\mathcal{E})$ is the size of a maximum collection of linearly independent 2-dimensional subspaces in \mathcal{E} .

5.1.2 Matrix Formulation To translate the above reduction into a matrix formulation, we need to associate each edge e to a column pair (b'_e, c'_e) , such that for $F \subseteq E$ the subspaces in $\mathcal{L}_F = \{L_e/Q \mid e \in F\}$ are linearly independent if and only if the vectors in $\bigcup_{e \in F} \{b'_e, c'_e\}$ are linearly independent.

Let \vec{e}_k be the k -th unit vector. For each edge $e = (u, v) \in E$, construct an orthogonal basis b_e and c_e of L_e such that

$$b_e = \vec{e}_{2u-1} - \vec{e}_{2v-1} \quad \text{and} \quad c_e = \vec{e}_{2u} - \vec{e}_{2v},$$

where we abuse notation to also use u and v as indexes of the vertices u and v . For $v \in V$ we define:

$$q_v = \begin{cases} \vec{e}_{2v-1} + i\vec{e}_{2v} & \text{if } v \in S_i \\ \mathbf{0} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note that the collection of non-zero q_v forms an orthogonal basis of Q . To obtain the vectors for L_e/Q , we just need to write $b_e = b'_e + b_Q$ and $c_e = c'_e + c_Q$ where $b'_e, c'_e \in Q^\perp$ and $b_Q, c_Q \in Q$. Then, for any subset $F \subseteq E$, the vectors in $\bigcup_{e \in F} \{b_e, c_e\}$ are linearly independent in \mathbb{R}^{2n}/Q if and only if the vectors in $\bigcup_{e \in F} \{b'_e, c'_e\}$ are linearly independent in \mathbb{R}^{2n} .

We can use a procedure similar to the Gram-Schmidt process to compute (b'_e, c'_e) from (b_e, c_e) . Recall that the collection of non-zero q_v forms an orthogonal basis of Q . Define

$$b'_e = b_e - \sum_{v \in V: q_v \neq \mathbf{0}} \frac{b_e^T q_v}{q_v^T q_v} q_v \quad c'_e = c_e - \sum_{v \in V: q_v \neq \mathbf{0}} \frac{c_e^T q_v}{q_v^T q_v} q_v.$$

By subtracting the projection of b_e onto q_v for all v from b_e , the resulting vector b'_e is orthogonal to the subspace Q . Thus, by the above discussion, we have that for each $F \subseteq E$, the subspaces in $\mathcal{L}_F = \{L_e/Q \mid e \in F\}$ are linearly independent if and only if the vectors in $\bigcup_{e \in F} \{b'_e, c'_e\}$ are linearly independent in \mathbb{R}^{2n} .

Therefore, by solving the linear matroid parity problem of M on the set of column pairs $\{(b'_e, c'_e)\}$ for all $e \in E$, we can find the maximum number of disjoint \mathcal{S} -paths in G , using Lemma 5.1. Also, from the solution of the linear matroid parity problem, one can easily construct the solution for the \mathcal{S} -path problem, see [41].

Observe that for any $e = (u, v)$, after the Gram-Schmidt process, b'_e and c'_e are of the form:

$$\begin{aligned} b'_e &= \frac{i^2}{1+i^2} \vec{e}_{2u-1} - \frac{i}{1+i^2} \vec{e}_{2u} - \frac{j^2}{1+j^2} \vec{e}_{2v-1} + \frac{j}{1+j^2} \vec{e}_{2v} \\ c'_e &= -\frac{i}{1+i^2} \vec{e}_{2u-1} + \frac{1}{1+i^2} \vec{e}_{2u} + \frac{j}{1+j^2} \vec{e}_{2v-1} - \frac{1}{1+j^2} \vec{e}_{2v} \end{aligned}$$

where $u \in S_i$ and $v \in S_j$ for some i and j . If u or v are not in any S_i , then the corresponding entries in b'_e and c'_e

remain the same as in b_e and c_e . Therefore, M contains at most four non-zero entries in each column. Now we can apply Theorem 4.1 to construct the described matrix Y for the linear matroid parity problem, which is given by $Y = \sum_{e \in E} x_e (b'_e \wedge c'_e)$.

Let $m = |E|$ and $n = |V|$. Then Y is a $2n \times 2n$ matrix. For each wedge product, there are at most four 2×2 non-zero blocks, and so for each edge e there are at most 16 entries of x_e in Y . Further observe that for any 2×2 non-zero block at the two rows occupied by u and two columns occupied by v of Y , the same block (but negated) appears at the two rows occupied by v and two columns occupied by u of Y . Hence the appearance of 2×2 blocks (as well as the indeterminates x_i) are always symmetric.

5.1.3 Recursive Algorithm Here is the high-level idea of the recursive algorithm to construct a parity basis of M . Similar to the $O(mr^2)$ -time algorithm in Section 4, the algorithm checks for each edge e whether some parity basis survives after the column pair (b'_e, c'_e) is removed. Removing a column pair (b'_e, c'_e) is equivalent to setting the corresponding x_e to zero. The observation is that each edge e has at most 16 entries of x_e in Y , and so the small area update formula of Harvey can be applied. Suppose we already have Y and Y^{-1} , this implies that checking whether e can be removed can be done in constant time by Lemma 2.2(1). Note that we also need to update Y^{-1} for future queries, and therefore we use a recursive procedure so that edges within a subset are removed consecutively, so that the relevant entries in the inverse can be computed more efficiently using Lemma 2.2(3).

The algorithm is shown in Algorithm 5.1. Let R and C be the indexes of a subset of rows and a subset of columns of Y , and $S = R \cup C$. For each edge $e = uv$, the corresponding x_e appears only in Y_{T_e, T_e} where $T_e = \{2u - 1, 2u, 2v - 1, 2v\}$. Procedure $\text{REMOVE}(R, C)$ will try to remove all edges $e = uv$ with $T_e \subseteq S$. In the base case when $|R| = |C| = 2$, we can determine whether x_e can be eliminated or not by Lemma 2.2(1) in constant time. Otherwise, when $|R| = |C| > 2$, we partition R and C into R_1, R_2 and C_1, C_2 , such that first(second) half of R goes to $R_1(R_2)$, and C is also partitioned in the same way. And then we recursively call $\text{REMOVE}(R_i, C_j)$ for $i, j \in \{1, 2\}$. Note that before entering into any smaller area during the recursion, we need to update Y^{-1} , but only updating $Y^{-1}_{S,S}$ is enough for the checkings in $\text{REMOVE}(R_i, C_j)$ by Lemma 2.2(1), and this can be done in $O(|S|^\omega)$ time using Lemma 2.2(3).

Correctness: The algorithm is correct because every pair is checked, and when a pair is checked the rel-

evant entries in the inverse are always updated. Consider an instance of REMOVE on rows R and columns C and let $S = R \cup C$. We keep the invariant $N_{S,S} = Y^{-1}_{S,S}$. After each recursive call $\text{REMOVE}(R_i, C_j)$ for $i, j \in \{1, 2\}$, only the entries in $Y_{S,S}$ have been changed, denoted by $\Delta_{S,S}$. By Lemma 2.2(3), $N_{S,S}$ can be updated by $N_{S,S} - N_{S,S}(I + \Delta_{S,S}N_{S,S})^{-1}\Delta_{S,S}N_{S,S}$, which can be done in $O(|S|^\omega)$ time. When a base case is reached, by Lemma 2.2(1), an indeterminate x can be removed if and only if $\det(I + \Delta_{S,S}N_{S,S}) \neq 0$, which can be checked in constant time since $|S| = 4$. The analysis of the failure probability is the same as in Section 4.2 and we omit it here.

Time Complexity: Let $f(n)$ be the time required by REMOVE , where $n = |R|$. From Algorithm 5.1 we have $f(n) = 4f(n/2) + O(n^\omega)$. Hence we have $f(n) = O(n^\omega)$ by the master theorem [9]. The initialization also takes time $O(n^\omega)$, and so the overall time complexity is $O(n^\omega)$.

Algorithm 5.1 An algebraic algorithm for disjoint \mathcal{S} -paths

$\text{SPATH}(M)$

Construct Y and assign random values to each indeterminate x_e for $e \in E$
 Compute $N := Y^{-1}$ by a fast inverse algorithm
 $\text{REMOVE}(\{1..2n\}, \{1..2n\})$
return all remaining pairs

$\text{REMOVE}(R, C)$

Let $S = R \cup C$

Invariant: $N_{S,S} = Y^{-1}_{S,S}$

if $|R| > 2$ **then**

Partition R and C into two equal-size subsets

for all pair $i, j \in \{1, 2\}$ **do**

$\text{REMOVE}(R_i, C_j)$

Compute $N_{S,S} = Y^{-1}_{S,S}$ by the small area update formula (Lemma 2.2(3))

else

Let $e = uv$ be the edge (if exists) with $S = \{2u - 1, 2u, 2v - 1, 2v\}$

Let x_e and b'_e, c'_e be the indeterminate and the vectors associated with e

Set $Y' = Y - x_e(b'_e \wedge c'_e)$

Check if Y' is non-singular by the small area update formula (Lemma 2.2(1))

if Y' is non-singular **then**

Remove e and set $Y = Y'$

5.2 Graphic Matroid Parity In this problem we are given an undirected graph and some edge pairs, and the problem is to find a maximum collection of edge pairs such that the union of these edges forms a forest.

In some applications for graphic matroid parity, each of the given edge pair has a common vertex. We will first show an $O(n^3)$ time algorithm for this special case, followed by an $O(n^4)$ time algorithm for the general case.

Construct the matrix Y using the compact formulation in Theorem 4.1. Since the matroid is graphic, there are only two nonzero entries in each b_i and c_i . Let each b_i and c_i be written in the form $\vec{e}_j - \vec{e}_k$ and $\vec{e}_u - \vec{e}_v$ where jk is one edge and uv is another edge. It is easy to see that each pair of elements affects at most 8 entries in Y , and thus the small area update formula can be used. Similar to previous sections, we use a recursive approach to enumerate each edge pair. For each pair our algorithm checks if some parity basis survives after removal of such pair. Recall that a parity basis exists if and only if its corresponding matrix formulation Y is of full rank. Removing a pair is done by assigning corresponding x_i to zero. Since x_i affects at most 8 entries, this can be checked in constant time by Lemma 2.2(1) using Y^{-1} . If Y remains full rank after setting x_i to zero, we remove such pair. When the algorithm terminates, the remaining pairs forms a parity basis.

We first consider the special case where each edge pair has a common vertex, where we can obtain a speedup over the general graphic matroid parity problem. The algorithm is shown in Algorithm 5.2 and an illustration of the recursions is shown in Figure 5.1. Define procedure $\text{REMOVE}(P, R, C)$ to check all edge pairs $(i, j), (i, k)$ that have $i \in P, j \in R$ and $k \in C$. Consider the base case where $|P| = |R| = |C| = 1$. We need to determine whether pair $(i, j), (i, k)$ ($i \in P, j \in R, k \in C$) can be removed. Since removal of such pair will only affect entries in $Y_{S,S}$ where $S = P \cup R \cup C$, decision can be made using Lemma 2.2(1) in constant time using $Y^{-1}_{S,S}$.

The algorithm start with $\text{REMOVE}(V, V, V)$, $V = \{1..n\}$, which will check all edge pairs. The procedure simply calls recursions when it does not reach its base cases yet. For any set T , define its first (second) half by T_1 (T_2). Then the procedure can be implemented by recursive call to $\text{REMOVE}(P_x, R_y, C_z)$ for all $x, y, z \in \{1, 2\}$, see Figure 5.1. Since inverse of Y is required to decide if a pair can be removed, $Y^{-1}_{S,S}$ ($S = P \cup R \cup C$) is recomputed before each recursive call using Lemma 2.2(3), as in the algorithm for the \mathcal{S} -path problem.

Now we analyze the time complexity of this algorithm. Any changes done by $\text{REMOVE}(P, R, C)$ is made to $Y_{S,S}$ where $S = P \cup R \cup C$. So, similar to that in the \mathcal{S} -path problem, updating $Y^{-1}_{S,S}$ using Lemma 2.2(3) takes $O(|S|^\omega)$ time. Let $f(n)$ be time

required by REMOVE where $n = |P| = |R| = |C|$. We have $f(n) = 8f(n/2) + O(n^\omega)$. By the master theorem [9], if fast matrix multiplication is used, this algorithm has overall time complexity $O(n^3)$, otherwise its time complexity is $O(n^3 \log n)$ time. The analysis of the failure probability is the same as in Section 4.2 and we omit it here.

For the general case where edge pairs are in the form (i, k) and (j, l) . Our algorithm is very similar but the procedure is now defined as $\text{REMOVE}(P, Q, R, C)$ which checks all pairs in the form $i \in P, j \in Q, k \in R$ and $l \in C$. Hence we now require 16 recursion calls of $\text{REMOVE}(P_w, Q_x, R_y, C_z)$ where $w, x, y, z \in \{1, 2\}$, see Figure 5.1. This gives an $O(n^4)$ time algorithm by the master theorem.

Algorithm 5.2 An algebraic algorithm for graphic matroid parity, when each edge pair has a common vertex.

$\text{GRAPHICPARITY}(M)$

Construct Y and assign random values to indeterminates x_i
 $N := Y^{-1}$
 $\text{REMOVE}(\{1..n\}, \{1..n\}, \{1..n\})$
return all remaining pairs

$\text{REMOVE}(P, R, C)$

Let $S = P \cup R \cup C$

Invariant: $N_{S,S} = Y^{-1}_{S,S}$

if $|P| = |R| = |C| = 1$ **then**

Let $i \in P, j \in R, k \in C$

Let x, b, c be the indeterminate and the vectors associated with edge pair (i, j) and (i, k)

$Y' = Y - x(b \wedge c)$

Check if Y' is non-singular by the small area update formula (Lemma 2.2(1))

if Y' is non-singular **then**

Remove this edge pair and set $Y = Y'$

else

Partition P, R and C into two equal-size subsets

for $i, j, k \in \{1, 2\}$ **do**

$\text{REMOVE}(P_i, R_j, C_k)$

Compute $N_{S,S} = Y^{-1}_{S,S}$ using the small area update formula (Lemma 2.2(3))

5.3 Colorful Spanning Tree Given an connected undirected multigraph $G = (V, E)$ where each edge is colored by one of the k colors. The colorful spanning tree problem [41] is to determine if there is a spanning tree T in G such that each edge in T has a distinct color. Let $n = |V|$ and $m = |E|$.

The distinct color constraint can be modelled by a partition matroid $M_1 = (E, \mathcal{I}_1)$ where $\mathcal{I}_1 = \{I :$

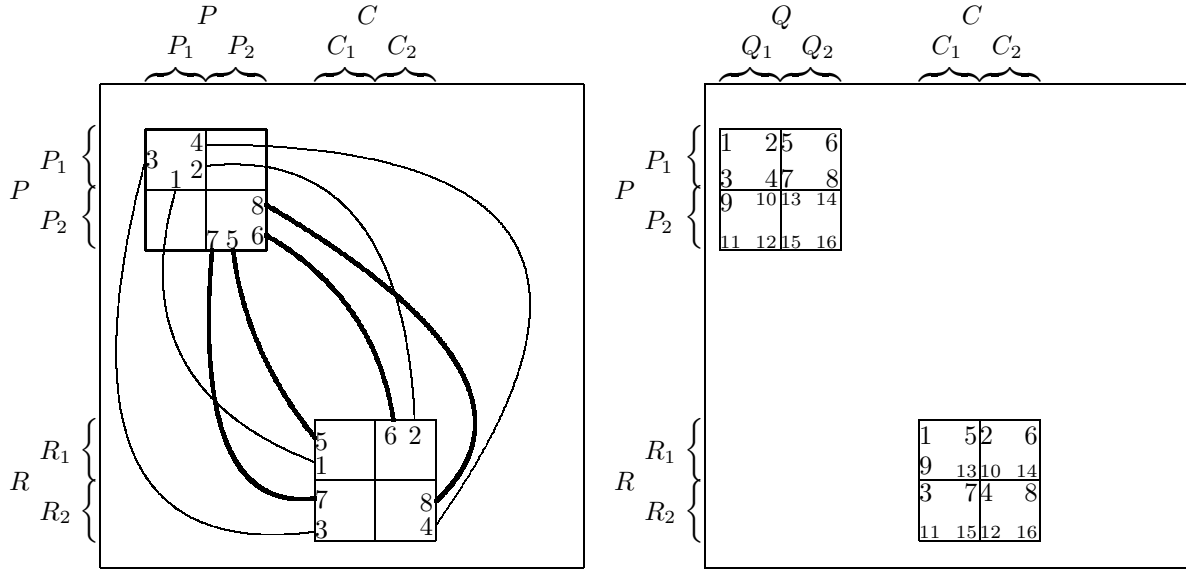


Figure 5.1: All 8 possible smaller cases of invoking $\text{REMOVE}(P_x, R_y, C_z)$ are shown on the left figure for the special problem. Each of them considers a pair of squares, which are indicated by the same number. The figure on the right shows 16 possible subroutines for $\text{REMOVE}(P_w, Q_x, R_y, C_z)$ in general graphic matroid parity. Note that in the special problem the rows and the columns of the first square are the same, while in the general problem the rows and the columns of the first square could be different.

$|I \cap E_i| \leq 1$ for all i . The tree constraint can be captured by a graphic matroid $M_2 = (E, \mathcal{I}_2)$ where $\mathcal{I}_2 = \{I : \text{edges in } I \text{ form an acyclic subgraph}\}$. Thus a matroid intersection (see Section 3.4 for definition) of M_1 and M_2 gives a maximum size acyclic colorful subgraph of G . In particular when $k = n - 1$ and G is connected, a common basis of the two matroids is a colorful spanning tree of G . Recall that a partition matroid can be represented by a linear matroid with exactly one non-zero entry in each column. This simpler structure can be used to obtain a faster algorithm.

5.3.1 Matrix Formulation Using the matrix formulation and the algebraic framework from Harvey [16], there is an algebraic algorithm in solving the colorful spanning tree problem. Note that Harvey used a “sparse” formulation and his algorithm runs in $O(mn^{\omega-1})$ time. A similar “compact” formulation for matroid parity problem is also known. We include its proof here for completeness.

THEOREM 5.2. *Let M_1 and M_2 be linear matroids with the same ground set. Let $A = (a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_m)$ be a $r \times m$ matrix whose columns represent M_1 and $B = (b_1 \ b_2 \ \dots \ b_m)$ be a $r \times m$ matrix whose columns represent M_2 , where a_i and b_i are column vectors. Let*

matrix

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i (a_i b_i^T)$$

be a $r \times r$ matrix where x_i is a distinct indeterminate for $1 \leq i \leq m$. Then the two matroids have a common independent set of size $\text{rank}(Y)$.

Proof. Harvey [17] showed the matrix formulation for matroid intersection of M_1 and M_2 is given by

$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} O & A \\ B^T & T \end{pmatrix}$$

where T is an $n \times n$ matrix with non zero distinct indeterminates at the diagonal, that is $T_{i,i} = t_i$. He showed that

$$\text{rank}(Z) = n + \lambda,$$

where λ is the maximum cardinality of the intersection to M_1 and M_2 .

Perform Gaussian elimination in Z , by eliminating A using b we have

$$\text{rank}(Z) = \text{rank}(AT^{-1}B^T) + n,$$

and we have to show $AT^{-1}B^T = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i(a_i b_i^T) = Y$.

$$\begin{aligned} AT^{-1}B^T &= \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & a_n \end{pmatrix} T^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & \cdots & b_n \end{pmatrix}^T \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{t_1} a_1 & \cdots & \frac{1}{t_n} a_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & \cdots & b_n \end{pmatrix}^T \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i(a_i b_i^T) \end{aligned}$$

where $x_i = \frac{1}{t_i}$. □

5.3.2 An $O(n^3)$ Algorithm The idea of the algorithm is to examine each edge e one by one, and see if any common basis (that is a colorful spanning tree) remains after removal of this edge. We construct Y as described in Theorem 5.2. Let the matrix representing M_1 be $(a_1 \ a_2 \ \cdots \ a_m)$ and matrix representing M_2 be $(b_1 \ b_2 \ \cdots \ b_m)$. Note that both a_i and b_i have size $n \times 1$. For an edge $e_i = (u, v)$ that has color c , we have $a_i = \vec{e}_c$ and $b_i = \vec{e}_u - \vec{e}_v$. Then x_i will only appear in $Y_{c,u}$ and $Y_{c,v}$. Let Y' be the new matrix with x_i assigned to zero, which is equivalent to remove edge e_i . Let $S = \{c, u, v\}$, Y' is identical to Y except $Y'_{S,S}$. Recall that we can remove edge e_i if the rank of Y' remains the same. If so we simply remove that edge and update Y^{-1} . After checking all edges a common basis remains. If the size of the common basis is $n - 1$, then it is a colorful spanning tree.

One technical point is that we require Y to have full rank before the checking starts. In our problem the originally constructed matrix Y is never full rank. So we need another matrix that gives the same result as Y while having full rank. We will describe in Section 5.3.3 how to find such a matrix using similar technique described in Section 6.5. Henceforth we assume that Y is of full rank.

The algorithm is shown in Algorithm 5.3, which is similar to that for the graphic matroid parity problem. Let R be subset of rows of Y , C and C' be subset of columns of Y . Define procedure $\text{REMOVE}(R, C, C')$, which tries to remove edges connecting u and v having color c that have $c \in R, u \in C, v \in C'$. $\text{REMOVE}(R, C, C')$ has $|R| = |C| = |C'| = 1$ as base case, where we have to determine an particular edge (u, v) having color c can be removed ($c \in R, u \in C, v \in C'$). This can be done in constant time using Lemma 2.2(1) because removing such edge only affect two entries in Y . In other cases, R, C and C' are partitioned into R_1, R_2, C_1, C_2 and C'_1, C'_2 . All eight smaller cases $\text{REMOVE}(R_i, C_j, C'_k)$ will be called, where $i, j, k \in \{1, 2\}$. After any recursive call Y^{-1} is updated using Lemma 2.2(3). Let $S = R \cup C \cup C'$, any instance of $\text{REMOVE}(R, C, C')$ triggers updates to $Y_{S,S}$. The updating process takes only $O(|S|^\omega)$ time.

Time Complexity: Let $f(n)$ be the time required by REMOVE , where $n = |S|$. We have $f(n) = 8f(n/2) + O(n^\omega)$. Hence $f(n) = O(n^3)$ by the master theorem. As a result, the algorithm has time complexity $O(n^3)$. If fast matrix multiplication is not used, then the algorithm has time complexity $O(n^3 \log n)$ again by the master theorem.

Algorithm 5.3 An algorithm to compute colorful spanning tree

$\text{COLORFULSPANNINGTREE}(M_1, M_2)$

Construct Y and assign random values to indeterminates x_i

Compute $N := Y^{-1}$ by fast inverse

$\text{REMOVE}(\{1..n\}, \{1..n\}, \{1..n\})$

return all remaining pairs

$\text{REMOVE}(R, C_1, C_2)$

Let $S = R \cup C_1 \cup C_2$

Invariant: $N_{S,S} = Y^{-1}_{S,S}$

if $|R| = 1$ and $C_1 \neq C_2$ **then**

Let x, b, c be the indeterminate and the vectors associated with the edge in $Y_{S,S}$

$Y' = Y - x(b \wedge c)$

Check if Y' is non-singular using the small area update formula (Lemma 2.2(1))

if Y' is non-singular **then**

Set $x = 0$ and $Y = Y'$

else

Partition R, C_1 and C_2 into two equal-size subsets

for all tuples $i, j, k \in \{1, 2\}$ **do**

$\text{REMOVE}(R_i, C_{1,j}, C_{2,k})$

Compute $N_{S,S} = Y^{-1}_{S,S}$ using the small area update formula (Lemma 2.2(3))

5.3.3 Maximum Cardinality Matroid Intersection

Construct Y as in Theorem 5.2. Let $\text{rank}(Y) = k$. Then the largest intersection of the two matroids will be k . Since Y is not of full rank, we compute a largest rank submatrix of Y . Let $Y' = Y_{R,C}$ be such matrix where $|R| = |C| = k$. Let N_1 and N_2 be linear matroids constructed by removing row set R from M_1 and row set C from M_2 respectively. Observe that the matrix formulation for intersection of N_1 and N_2 is $\sum_{i=1}^m x_i(A_{R,i} B_{C,i}^T)$, which is exactly Y' . An independent set in N_1 is also independent in M_1 , and this is also true for N_2 and M_2 . Since Y' is of full rank, we can simply compute a common base of N_1 and N_2 . The result will have size k , and it is a maximum cardinality intersection of M_1 and M_2 . The maximum rank submatrix Y' can be computed in $O(n^\omega)$ time using the algorithm suggested by Harvey (Appendix A in [17]).

6 A Faster Linear Matroid Parity Algorithm

In this section we present an $O(mr^{\omega-1})$ -time randomized algorithm for the linear matroid parity problem. We first consider the problem of determining whether M has a parity basis, and show how to reduce the general problem into it in Section 6.5. The algorithm is very similar to the algebraic algorithm for linear matroid intersection by Harvey [16]. The general idea is to build a parity basis incrementally. A subset of pairs is called *growable* if it is a subset of some parity basis. Starting from the empty solution, at any step of the algorithm we try to add a pair to the current solution so that the resulting subset is still growable, and the algorithm stops when a parity basis is found.

6.1 Preliminaries Suppose A, B, C, D are respectively $p \times p, p \times q, q \times p$ and $q \times q$ matrices, and A is invertible. Let M be a $(p+q) \times (p+q)$ matrix so that

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix},$$

then $D - CA^{-1}B$ is called the *Schur complement* of block A .

THEOREM 6.1. (SCHUR'S FORMULA [47] (THM 1.1)) *Let A, B, C, D and M be matrices defined above. Then $\det(M) = \det(A) \times \det(D - CA^{-1}B)$.*

LEMMA 6.2. *If A is non-singular and its Schur complement $S = D - CA^{-1}B$ is also non-singular, then*

$$M^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} A^{-1} + A^{-1}BS^{-1}CA^{-1} & -A^{-1}BS^{-1} \\ -S^{-1}CA^{-1} & S^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

In particular, if we have a matrix Z in the form

$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & Q_1 \\ Q_2 & T \end{pmatrix}$$

and T is non-singular. Denote Y as the Schur complement of T in Z . We have $Y = -Q_1T^{-1}Q_2$. Then, by Lemma 6.2, if Y is non-singular, we can calculate Z^{-1} as follow

$$(6.1) \quad Z^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} Y^{-1} & -Y^{-1}Q_1T^{-1} \\ -T^{-1}Q_2Y^{-1} & T^{-1} + T^{-1}Q_2Y^{-1}Q_1T^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

6.2 Matrix Formulation We use the matrix formulation of Geelen and Iwata [15]. Define

$$Z := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & M \\ -M^T & T \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then we have $\nu_M = r/2$ if and only if Z is of full rank. To determine whether a subset J of pairs is growable,

we define $Z(J)$ to be the matrix that have $t_i = 0$ for all pair i in J . We define $\nu_{M/J}$ to be the optimal value of the linear matroid parity problem of M/J , which is the contraction of M by J as stated in Section 3. Informally the linear matroid parity problem of M/J corresponds to the linear matroid parity problem of M when the pairs in J are picked. In the following we will show that, following from the Geelen-Iwata formula, that J is growable if and only if $Z(J)$ is of full rank.

COROLLARY 6.3. *For any independent parity set J , $\text{rank}(Z(J)) = 2\nu_{M/J} + 2m + |J|$.*

Proof. In the following let R be the set of rows of M and V be the set of columns of M (i.e. $|V| = 2m$). Note that $Z(J)$ is in the following form.

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{array}{ccc} & R & J & V \setminus J \\ R & & & & & \\ J & & & & & \\ V \setminus J & & & & & \end{array} \\ & \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \end{pmatrix}}_{Z(J)} \\ & = \begin{array}{ccc} & R & J & V \setminus J \\ R & & & & & \\ J & & & & & \\ V \setminus J & & & & & \end{array} \\ & \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \end{pmatrix}}_P \\ & \begin{array}{ccc} & R & J & V \setminus J \\ R & & & & & \\ J & & & & & \\ V \setminus J & & & & & \end{array} \\ & \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \end{pmatrix}}_Q \end{aligned}$$

It is known ([31] Theorem 7.3.22) that for a mixed skew-symmetric matrix, we have

$$(6.2) \quad \text{rank}(Z(J)) = \max_{A \subseteq S} \{\text{rank}(P_{A,A}) + \text{rank}(Q_{S \setminus A, S \setminus A})\}$$

where $S = R \cup V$ is the column set and row set for $Z(J)$. Consider a set A that maximize $\text{rank}(Z(J))$, then A must be in the form $R \cup A'$ where $J \subseteq A' \subseteq V$.

Recall that a set is a parity set if every pair is either contained in it or disjoint from it. We can assume that A' is a parity set. If A' is not, consider parity set B' such that $A' \subseteq B'$ and B' has smallest size. Let $B = R \cup B'$, we have $\text{rank}(P_{A,A}) \leq \text{rank}(P_{B,B})$ and $\text{rank}(Q_{S \setminus A, S \setminus A}) = \text{rank}(Q_{S \setminus B, S \setminus B})$ where the equality follows from the structure of T .

As M and $-M^T$ occupy disjoint rows and columns of P , $\text{rank}(P_{A,A}) = \text{rank}(M_{R,A'}) + \text{rank}((-M^T)_{A',R}) = 2\text{rank}(M_{R,A'})$ as M is skew-symmetric. We also have $\text{rank}(Q_{S \setminus A, S \setminus A}) = |S \setminus A| = |V \setminus A'| = |V| - |A'|$. Thus

$$\text{rank}(Z(J)) = \max_{A' \subseteq V} \{2\text{rank}(M_{R,A'}) + |V| - |A'|\}.$$

Write $A' = I \cup J$ where $I \cap J = \emptyset$ and I is a parity set. By the rank function $r_{M/J}$ of the matroid M/J , we have $r_{M/J}(A' \setminus J) = r_M(A') - r_M(J)$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{rank}(Z(J)) \\ &= \max_{I \subseteq V \setminus J} \{2(r_{M/J}(I) + |J|) + |V| - (|I| + |J|)\} \\ (6.3) \quad &= \max_{I \subseteq V \setminus J} \{2r_{M/J}(I) - |I| + |V| + |J|\} \end{aligned}$$

Observe that a maximizer I' of (6.3) must be an independent parity set (so $r_{M/J}(I') = |I'|$); otherwise an independent set $K \subset I'$ such that $r_{M/J}(K) = r_{M/J}(I')$ and $|K| < |I'|$ gives a larger value for (6.3). So a maximizer I' of (6.3) would maximize $r_{M/J}(I)$, which implies that I' is indeed a maximum cardinality parity set of M/J . The result follows since $2\nu_{M/J} = |I'| = r_{M/J}(I')$. \square

THEOREM 6.4. *For any independent parity set J , $Z(J)$ is non-singular if and only if J is growable.*

Proof. If $Z(J)$ is non-singular, by Corollary 6.3, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rank}(Z(J)) &= 2\nu_{M/J} + |V| + |J| \\ 2m + r &= 2\nu_{M/J} + 2m + |J| \\ r &= 2\nu_{M/J} + |J| \end{aligned}$$

Hence J is growable. \square

6.3 An $O(m^\omega)$ Algorithm The algorithm here maintains a growable set J , starting with $J = \emptyset$. To check whether a pair i can be added to J to form a growable set, we test whether $Z(J \cup \{2i-1, 2i\})$ is of full rank. Observe that $Z(J \cup \{2i-1, 2i\})$ is obtained from $Z(J)$ by a small area update, and so Lemma 2.2 can be used to check whether $Z(J \cup \{2i-1, 2i\})$ is of full rank more efficiently. Pseudocode of the algorithm is shown in Algorithm 6.1.

First we show how to check whether a pair can be included to J to form a larger growable set.

CLAIM 6.5. *Let $N = Z(J)^{-1}$, $n_i = N_{2i-1, 2i}$ and $J' = J \cup \{2i-1, 2i\}$. Then J' is a growable set if and only if $t_i n_i + 1 \neq 0$.*

Proof. By Theorem 6.4, J' is growable if and only if $Z(J')$ is non-singular. By Lemma 2.2(1), this is true if

and only if the following expression is non-zero.

$$\begin{aligned} & \det \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & t_i \\ -t_i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & n_i \\ -n_i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) \\ &= \det \begin{pmatrix} t_i n_i + 1 & 0 \\ 0 & t_i n_i + 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Thus $Z(J')$ is non singular if and only if $(t_i n_i + 1)^2 \neq 0$, which is equivalent to $t_i n_i + 1 \neq 0$. \square

Algorithm 6.1 An $O(m^\omega)$ -time algebraic algorithm for linear matroid parity

MATROIDPARITY(M)

Construct Z and assign random values to indeterminates t_i

Compute $N := Z^{-1}$ by fast matrix inverse

return BUILDPARITY(S, N, \emptyset)

BUILDPARITY(S, N, J)

Invariant 1: J is a growable set

Invariant 2: $N = Z(J)^{-1}_{S,S}$

if $|S| = 2$ **then**

Let $S = \{2i-1, 2i\}$

if $1 + t_i N_{2i-1, 2i} \neq 0$ **then**

return $\{2i-1, 2i\}$

else

return \emptyset

else

Partition S into two equal-size subsets

$J_1 := \text{BUILDPARITY}(S_1, N_{S_1, S_1}, J)$

Compute $M := Z(J \cup J_1)^{-1}_{S_2, S_2}$ using Claim 6.6

$J_2 := \text{BUILDPARITY}(S_2, M, J \cup J_1)$

return $J_1 \cup J_2$

Correctness: At the time **MATROIDPARITY** call **BUILDPARITY**, the invariant $N = Z(J)^{-1}$ obviously holds, and so as the first recursive call to **BUILDPARITY**. Regardless the changes made in the first recursive call, $Z(J \cup J_1)^{-1}$ is recomputed so the invariant is also satisfied with the second recursive call. Note S is partitioned in such a way that its first half goes to S_1 and the remaining goes to S_2 , so both S_1 and S_2 must be parity set.

In the algorithm every element of M is considered. By Claim 6.5, $Z(J)$ is always non-singular. Hence, by Theorem 6.4, this implies that J is always a growable set.

Time complexity: The following claim shows how to compute $M := Z(J \cup J_1)^{-1}_{S_2, S_2}$ efficiently.

CLAIM 6.6. *Let $J' = J \cup J_1$, $J_1 \subseteq S$. Using $N = Z(J)^{-1}_{S,S}$, computing $Z(J')^{-1}_{S,S}$ can be done in $O(|S|^\omega)$ time.*

Proof. Since $Z(J')$ is identical to $Z(J)$ except $Z(J')_{J_1, J_1} = 0$, since $Z(J)_{R,C}^{-1} = N_{R,C}$, by Lemma 2.2(3),

$$\begin{aligned} & Z(J')^{-1}_{S,S} \\ &= N_{S,S} - \\ & N_{S, J_1} (I + (-Z(J)_{J_1, J_1} N_{J_1, J_1})^{-1} (-Z(J)_{J_1, J_1}) N_{J_1, S}) \\ &= N_{S,S} + N_{S, J_1} (I - Z_{J_1, J_1} N_{J_1, J_1})^{-1} Z_{J_1, J_1} N_{J_1, S} \end{aligned}$$

Note the last equality holds because $Z(J)_{J_1, J_1} = Z_{J_1, J_1}$. At any time during the computation, matrices involved have size at most $|S| \times |S|$. Hence computing $Z(J')^{-1}_{S,S}$ takes $O(|S|^\omega)$ time. \square

Since Z has dimension $(2m+r) \times (2m+r)$, initial computation of $Z^{-1}_{S,S}$ takes $O((2m+r)^\omega) = O(m^\omega)$ time. Let $f(m)$ be the time required by BUILDPARITY with $|S| = 2m$, then

$$f(m) = 2 \cdot f(m/2) + O(m^\omega)$$

which implies $f(n) = O(m^\omega)$ by the master theorem.

6.4 An $O(mr^{\omega-1})$ Algorithm The previous algorithm works for matroids with large rank. In this section we present an algorithm with better time complexity when rank is small. The idea behind is to break the ground set S into a number of smaller pieces. In this way, inverse of these matrices to be computed will have smaller size.

Algorithm 6.2 An $O(mr^{\omega-1})$ -time algebraic algorithm for linear matroid parity

MATROIDPARITY(M)

Construct Z and assign random values to indeterminates t_i

Compute $Y := MT^{-1}M^T$ using Claim 6.7

Partition S into m/r subsets each with size r

$J := \emptyset$

for $i = 1$ to m/r **do**

 Compute $N := Z(J)^{-1}_{S_i, S_i}$ using Claim 6.9

$J' := \text{BUILDPARITY}(S_i, N, J)$

$J := J \cup J'$

return J

The matrix $Y = MT^{-1}M^T$ will allow us to compute submatrices of $Z(J)^{-1}$ efficiently using Equation 6.1. We will assume Y^{-1} exists; otherwise, if Y has no inverse, then we can conclude that Z has no inverse by Theorem 6.1 and thus there is no parity basis. In the following we will show how to compute Y efficiently, and then show how to compute $Z(J)^{-1}_{S_i, S_i}$ efficiently.

CLAIM 6.7. *Computation of $Y := MT^{-1}M^T$ can be done in $O(mr^{\omega-1})$ time.*

Proof. First we show that $MT^{-1}_{R,C}$ can be computed in $O(RC)$ time. Recall that T is a skew-symmetric matrix, having exactly one entry in each row and column. Moreover, the positions of the non-zero entries in T are just one row above or below the diagonal of T . It is thus easy to compute T^{-1} . If $T_{i,j}$ is zero, then $T^{-1}_{i,j}$ is also zero. Otherwise $T^{-1}_{i,j} = -1/T_{i,j}$. As a result T^{-1} is also skew-symmetric and shares the same special structure of T . Therefore any entry of MT^{-1} can be computed in $O(1)$ time. Hence $MT^{-1}_{R,C}$ takes $O(RC)$ to compute.

Now we are going to show $MT^{-1}M^T$ can be computed in $O(mr^{\omega-1})$ time. Since M has size $r \times m$, MT^{-1} can be computed in $O(mr)$ time. To compute product of MT^{-1} (size $r \times m$) and M^T (size $m \times r$), we can break each of them into m/r matrices each of size $r \times r$, so computation of their products takes $O(mr^{\omega-1})$. \square

Next we show how to compute $Z(J)^{-1}_{S_i, S_i}$ efficiently using Y and Y^{-1} .

CLAIM 6.8. *Given the matrix $Y = MT^{-1}M^T$, for any $A, B \subseteq S$ with $|A|, |B| \leq r$, $Z^{-1}_{A,B}$ can be computed in $O(r^\omega)$ time.*

Proof. By Equation 6.1,

$$Z^{-1}_{S,S} = T^{-1} - T^{-1}M^TY^{-1}MT^{-1}$$

Hence for any $A, B \subseteq S$,

$$Z^{-1}_{A,B} = T^{-1}_{A,B} - (T^{-1}M^T)_{A,*}Y^{-1}(MT^{-1})_{*,B}$$

Both $(T^{-1}M^T)_{A,*}$ and $(MT^{-1})_{*,B}$ have size $r \times r$ and can be computed in $O(r^2)$ time by Claim 6.7. Thus the whole computation takes $O(r^\omega)$ time. \square

CLAIM 6.9. *In each loop iteration, the matrix $Z(J)^{-1}_{S_i, S_i}$ can be computed in $O(r^\omega)$ time.*

Proof. Since $Z(J)$ is identical to Z except $Z(J)_{J,J} = 0$, by using Lemma 2.2(3) with $\tilde{M}_{S_i, S_i} = M_{S_i, S_i} = -Z(J)_{J,J}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & Z(J)^{-1}_{S_i, S_i} = \\ & Z^{-1}_{S_i, S_i} + Z^{-1}_{S_i, J} (I - Z_{J,J} Z^{-1}_{J,J})^{-1} Z_{J,J} Z^{-1}_{J, S_i} \end{aligned}$$

All the submatrices $Z^{-1}_{S_i, S_i}$, $Z^{-1}_{S_i, J}$, $Z^{-1}_{J, J}$ and Z^{-1}_{J, S_i} can be computed in $O(r^\omega)$ by Claim 6.8. Thus the whole computation can be done in $O(r^\omega)$ time. \square

Since $|S_i| = r$, each call to BUILDPARITY takes $O(r^\omega)$ time. Hence the overall time complexity of Algorithm 6.2 is $O(m/r \cdot r^\omega) = O(mr^{\omega-1})$.

6.5 Maximum Cardinality Matroid Parity The algorithms in previous sections can only produce a parity basis if one exists. If there is no parity basis, these algorithms are only be able to report so. In this section, we present how to find the maximum number of pairs that are independent. We are going to show an $O(r^\omega)$ time reduction, that reduce a maximum cardinality matroid parity problem to a problem of computing parity basis. Hence algorithms in previous sections can be applied.

The idea here is to find a maximum rank submatrix of the matrix formulation for matroid parity. Such a submatrix is of full rank and corresponds to a new instance of matroid parity problem which has a parity basis.

Let Y be matrix formulation for the parity problem constructed as in Theorem 4.1. Let r' be the rank of Y . We first find a maximum rank submatrix $Y_{R,C}$ of Y where $|R| = |C| = r'$. This can be done in $O(r^\omega)$ time using a variant of the LUP decomposition algorithm by Harvey (Appendix A of [17]). Since Y is a skew symmetric matrix, $Y_{R,R}$ is also a maximum rank submatrix of Y (see [31] Proposition 7.3.6).

The matrix $Y_{R,R}$ can be interpreted as matrix formulation for a new matroid parity instance. Such an instance contains all the original given pairs, but only contains rows indexed by R . Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^m x_i (b_{i_R} \wedge c_{i_R}) = Y_{R,R},$$

where b_{i_R} denotes the vector containing entries of b_i index by R . Since $Y_{R,R}$ is of full rank, such a new instance of matroid parity has a parity basis.

The column pairs that are independent in the new instance are also independent in the original instance. Hence a parity basis of this new instance corresponds to a parity set of the original instance. In addition, this new instance for matroid parity can be solved using any algorithm presented.

7 Weighted Linear Matroid Parity

In the weighted matroid parity problem, each pair i is assigned a weight w_i , and the objective is to find a parity basis with maximum weight. Camerini, Galbiati and Maffioli [6] gave a compact matrix formulation to find the parity basis with maximum weight p . The matrix formulation Y^* is almost the same as the formulation Y for the unweighted case in Theorem 4.1. The only exception is that all indeterminates x_i are now replaced by $x_i y^{w_i}$.

THEOREM 7.1. (CAMERINI, GALBIATI, MAFFIOLI [6]) *Let*

$$Y^* = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i (b_i \wedge c_i) y^{w(i)},$$

where the pairs $\{(b_i, c_i)\}$ compose M , x_i and y are indeterminates. Then

1. *each nonzero term of $\text{pf } Y^*$ corresponds to a parity basis of M ;*
2. *the degree of y in each term is the weight of the corresponding parity basis.*

Here $\text{pf } Y$ denotes the *Pfaffian* (see [31]) of a skew symmetric matrix Y . Each term of $\text{pf } Y$ corresponds to a partition of the row set of Y into pairs. For an even dimension skew symmetric matrix Y , it is known that $\det Y = (\text{pf } Y)^2$ (see [31]).

Since removing each pair is equivalent to assigning $x_i = 0$, the above theorem gives an algorithm for the weighted problem similar to Algorithm 4.1, but we need to make sure that some parity basis with maximum weight is preserved. Therefore we have to calculate $\text{pf } Y^*$ to see if a term containing y^p still remains. It can be achieved by finding $\det(Y^*)$ and look for a term that contains y^{2p} . However calculating its determinant may not be easy. Define $W = \max_i \{w(i)\}$. Camerini, Galbiati and Maffioli [6] proposed an $\tilde{O}(m^2 r^2 + W m r^4)$ algorithm in finding the parity basis with maximum weight. Sankowski [40] used the following theorem of Storjohann [43] to design a faster pseudo-polynomial algorithm for the weighted bipartite matching problem.

THEOREM 7.2. (STORJOHANN [43]) *Let $A \in \mathbb{F}[x]^{n \times n}$ be a polynomial matrix of degree d and $b \in \mathbb{F}[x]^{n \times 1}$ be a polynomial vector of the same degree, then*

- *determinant $\det(A)$,*
- *rational system solution $A^{-1}b$,*

can be computed in $\tilde{O}(n^\omega d)$ operations in K , with high probability.

Now we can apply Theorem 7.2 to get the determinant $\det(Y^*)$. By choosing a large enough field \mathbb{F} , we can check if removing each pair i (by assigning $x_i = 0$) would affect the parity basis with maximum weight, with high probability. If the degree of $\det(Y^*)$ does not drop after removal of a pair, then it can be removed. And removal of a pair can be simply done by a rank-2 update to Y^* in $O(r^2)$ time. Each time the checking can be done in $\tilde{O}(W r^\omega)$ time by Theorem 7.2, which dominates the updating time. Calculating Y^* at the beginning takes $O(m r^2)$ time. Hence we can find a parity basis with the maximum weight in $\tilde{O}(W m r^\omega)$ time.

The pseudocode of the algorithm can be found in Algorithm 7.1.

Algorithm 7.1 An algebraic algorithm for weighted linear matroid parity

MAXWEIGHTPARITY(M)

Construct Y^* and assign random values to indeterminates x_i

$J := \{b_1, c_1, \dots, b_m, c_m\}$

for $i = 1$ to m **do**

$Y := Y^* - x_i(b_i \wedge c_i)y^{w(i)}$

if degree of $\det(Y)$ equals that of $\det(Y^*)$ **then**

$Y^* := Y$

$J := J - \{b_i, c_i\}$

return J

Finally we describe how to obtain a randomized FPTAS using the pseudo-polynomial algorithm by standard scaling technique [39]. Here we assume every column pair is contained in some parity basis. This assumption can be satisfied by checking the rank of corresponding $Z(J)$ as in Theorem 6.4. If $Z(J)$ is not full rank we discard the corresponding column pair.

The idea is to scale the weight of each pair down and solve the new instance using Algorithm 7.1. Given $\epsilon > 0$, let $K = \epsilon W/r$. For each pair i scale its weight to $w^*(i) = \lfloor w(i)/K \rfloor$. Solve the new instance using Algorithm 7.1. This takes $\tilde{O}(\lfloor W/K \rfloor mr^\omega) = \tilde{O}(mr^{\omega+1}/\epsilon)$ time.

We will show the result of the scaled instance is an $(1 - \epsilon)$ -approximation of the original instance. Let J and O be pairs return by the above algorithm and the optimal pairs respectively. Also denote original (scaled) weight of a set S by $w(S)$ ($w^*(S)$). We have $w(O) - Kw^*(O) \leq rK$ because for each pair in O at most weight with value K is lost, and there are at most $r/2$ pairs chosen. Then

$$w(J) \geq K \cdot w^*(J) \geq K \cdot w^*(O) \geq w(O) - rK = w(O) - \epsilon W \geq (1 - \epsilon) \cdot w(O).$$

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