Lecture 07: Algebraic Techniques Fingerprinting, Verifying Polynomial Identities, Parallel Algorithms for Matching Problems

Rafael Oliveira

University of Waterloo Cheriton School of Computer Science

rafael.oliveira.teaching@gmail.com

September 28, 2021

#### Overview

#### Introduction

- Why Algebraic Techniques in computer science?
- Fingerprinting: String equality verification

#### Main Problems

- Polynomial Identity Testing
- Randomized Matching Algorithms
- Isolation Lemma
- Remarks
- Acknowledgements

It is hard to overstate the importance of algebraic techniques in computing.

• Very useful tool for randomized algorithms (hashing, today's lecture)

- Very useful tool for randomized algorithms (hashing, today's lecture)
- Parallel & Distributed Computing (this lecture and lecture 21)

- Very useful tool for randomized algorithms (hashing, today's lecture)
- Parallel & Distributed Computing (this lecture and lecture 21)
- Interactive proof systems (lecture 23)

- Very useful tool for randomized algorithms (hashing, today's lecture)
- Parallel & Distributed Computing (this lecture and lecture 21)
- Interactive proof systems (lecture 23)
- Efficient proof/program verification (PCP a bit in lecture 23)
  - Applications in hardness of approximation!
  - Applications in blockchain (Zcash for instance)
  - Zero Knowledge proofs

- Very useful tool for randomized algorithms (hashing, today's lecture)
- Parallel & Distributed Computing (this lecture and lecture 21)
- Interactive proof systems (lecture 23)
- Efficient proof/program verification (PCP a bit in lecture 23)
  - Applications in hardness of approximation!
  - Applications in blockchain (Zcash for instance)
  - Zero Knowledge proofs
- Cryptography

- Very useful tool for randomized algorithms (hashing, today's lecture)
- Parallel & Distributed Computing (this lecture and lecture 21)
- Interactive proof systems (lecture 23)
- Efficient proof/program verification (PCP a bit in lecture 23)
  - Applications in hardness of approximation!
  - Applications in blockchain (Zcash for instance)
  - Zero Knowledge proofs
- Cryptography
- Coding theory

- Very useful tool for randomized algorithms (hashing, today's lecture)
- Parallel & Distributed Computing (this lecture and lecture 21)
- Interactive proof systems (lecture 23)
- Efficient proof/program verification (PCP a bit in lecture 23)
  - Applications in hardness of approximation!
  - Applications in blockchain (Zcash for instance)
  - Zero Knowledge proofs
- Cryptography
- Coding theory
- many more...

 $<sup>^1\</sup>text{Think}$  of each of them being a server of a company that deals with massive data on  $^{11/113}$ 

Suppose Alice and Bob each maintain the same large database of information.<sup>1</sup> They would like to check if their databases are *consistent*.

• Transmission of all data is expensive (*communication complexity setting*)

 $<sup>^1 {\</sup>rm Think}$  of each of them being a server of a company that deals with massive data on  $^{12/113}$ 

- Transmission of all data is expensive (*communication complexity setting*)
- Sending the entire database not feasible

 $<sup>^1 \</sup>text{Think}$  of each of them being a server of a company that deals with massive data.  $_{3/113}$ 

- Transmission of all data is expensive (*communication complexity setting*)
- Sending the entire database not feasible
- Say Alice's version of database given by bits  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and Bob's version is  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$

 $<sup>^1\</sup>text{Think}$  of each of them being a server of a company that deals with massive data. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_14/113

- Transmission of all data is expensive (*communication complexity setting*)
- Sending the entire database not feasible
- Say Alice's version of database given by bits  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and Bob's version is  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$
- Deterministic consistency check requires Alice and Bob to communicate *n* bits (otherwise adversary would know how to change database to make check fail)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Think of each of them being a server of a company that deals with massive data. $\bigcirc$   $\bigcirc$  15/113

- Transmission of all data is expensive (*communication complexity setting*)
- Sending the entire database not feasible
- Say Alice's version of database given by bits  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and Bob's version is  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$
- Deterministic consistency check requires Alice and Bob to communicate *n* bits (otherwise adversary would know how to change database to make check fail)
- Fingerprinting for the rescue!

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Think of each of them being a server of a company that deals with massive data. $\bigcirc$   $\bigcirc$  (6/113)

Suppose Alice and Bob each maintain the same large database of information.<sup>1</sup> They would like to check if their databases are *consistent*.

- Transmission of all data is expensive (*communication complexity setting*)
- Sending the entire database not feasible
- Say Alice's version of database given by bits  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and Bob's version is  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$
- Deterministic consistency check requires Alice and Bob to communicate *n* bits (otherwise adversary would know how to change database to make check fail)
- Fingerprinting for the rescue!

Communication complexity setting, randomized algorithms, need to work with high probability.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Think of each of them being a server of a company that deals with massive data. $\bigcirc$   $\bigcirc$ 

Want to check whether strings  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  equal.

Want to check whether strings  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  equal. Fingerprinting mechanism:

Want to check whether strings  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  equal.

Fingerprinting mechanism:

• Let  $a = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$  and  $b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$  binary report a an  $a_{n_1} \cdots a_1$ by  $b_n b_{n_1} \cdots b_1$ in trans one n-bit integers

Want to check whether strings  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  equal.

Fingerprinting mechanism:

• Let  $a = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$  and  $b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$ 

2 Let  $F_p(x) = x \mod p$  be a fingerprinting function, for a prime p

log p bits

Want to check whether strings  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  equal.

- Let  $a = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$  and  $b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$
- Solution Let  $F_p(x) = x \mod p$  be a fingerprinting function, for a prime p
- Protocol:

Want to check whether strings  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  equal.

- Let  $a = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$  and  $b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$
- 2 Let  $F_p(x) = x \mod p$  be a fingerprinting function, for a prime p
- Operation of the second sec
  - Alice picks a random prime p and sends  $(p, F_p(a))$  to Bob

prim Spingaprint

Want to check whether strings  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  equal.

- Let  $a = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$  and  $b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$
- 2 Let  $F_p(x) = x \mod p$  be a fingerprinting function, for a prime p
- In Protocol:
  - Alice picks a random prime p and sends  $(p, F_p(a))$  to Bob
  - **2** Bob checks whether  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b) \mod p$ , sends

Want to check whether strings  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  equal.

Fingerprinting mechanism:

- Let  $a = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$  and  $b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$
- 2 Let  $F_p(x) = x \mod p$  be a fingerprinting function, for a prime p
- In Protocol:
  - Alice picks a random prime p and sends  $(p, F_p(a))$  to Bob
  - **2** Bob checks whether  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b) \mod p$ , sends

Total bits communicated: O(log p) bits (dominated by Alice's message) ア, Fp(a) ~ 2のア ちらう
 ( bit

25 / 113

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆三▶ ◆三▶ 三三 - つへで

Want to check whether strings  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  equal.

- Let  $a = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$  and  $b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$
- 2 Let  $F_p(x) = x \mod p$  be a fingerprinting function, for a prime p
- In Protocol:
  - Alice picks a random prime p and sends  $(p, F_p(a))$  to Bob
  - **2** Bob checks whether  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b) \mod p$ , sends

- Total bits communicated:  $O(\log p)$  bits (dominated by Alice's message)
- if  $(a_1,\ldots,a_n)=(b_1,\ldots,b_n)$  then protocol always right

Want to check whether strings  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  equal.

Fingerprinting mechanism:

- Let  $a = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$  and  $b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \cdot 2^{i-1}$
- 2 Let  $F_p(x) = x \mod p$  be a fingerprinting function, for a prime p
- In Protocol:
  - Alice picks a random prime p and sends  $(p, F_p(a))$  to Bob
  - **2** Bob checks whether  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b) \mod p$ , sends
    - $\begin{cases} 1, \text{ if the values are equal} \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$
  - Total bits communicated:  $O(\log p)$  bits (dominated by Alice's message)
  - if  $(a_1,\ldots,a_n)=(b_1,\ldots,b_n)$  then protocol always right
  - what happens when they are different?

• If 
$$(a_1,\ldots,a_n) \neq (b_1,\ldots,b_n)$$
, then  $a \neq b$ .

- If  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \neq (b_1, \ldots, b_n)$ , then  $a \neq b$ .
- For how many primes can  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$ ? (i.e., protocol will fail)

- If  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \neq (b_1, \ldots, b_n)$ , then  $a \neq b$ .
- For how many primes can  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$ ? (i.e., protocol will fail)
- If a number *M* is in  $\{-2^n, \ldots, 2^n\}$ , then number of distinct primes  $p \mid M$  is < n.

- If  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \neq (b_1, \ldots, b_n)$ , then  $a \neq b$ .
- For how many primes can  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$ ? (i.e., protocol will fail)
- If a number *M* is in  $\{-2^n, \ldots, 2^n\}$ , then number of distinct primes  $p \mid M$  is < n.
  - Each prime divisor of M is  $\geq 2$ , so if M has t distinct prime divisors, then  $|M| > 2^t$

- If  $(a_1,\ldots,a_n) \neq (b_1,\ldots,b_n)$ , then  $a \neq b$ .
- For how many primes can  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$ ? (i.e., protocol will fail)
- If a number *M* is in  $\{-2^n, \ldots, 2^n\}$ , then number of distinct primes  $p \mid M$  is < n.
  - Each prime divisor of M is  $\geq 2$ , so if M has t distinct prime divisors, then  $|M| > 2^t$
  - $|M| \le 2^n \Rightarrow t \le n$

- If  $(a_1,\ldots,a_n) \neq (b_1,\ldots,b_n)$ , then  $a \neq b$ .
- For how many primes can  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$ ? (i.e., protocol will fail)
- If a number M is in  $\{-2^n, \ldots, 2^n\}$ , then number of distinct primes  $p \mid M$  is < n.
  - Each prime divisor of M is  $\geq 2$ , so if M has t distinct prime divisors, then  $|M| > 2^t$

$$|M| \le 2^n \Rightarrow t \le n$$

• 
$$F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$$
 if, and only if,  $p \mid a - b$ .

 $F_{p}(a) \equiv a \mod p \quad (=) \quad a-b \equiv 0 \mod p$   $F_{p}(b) \equiv b \mod p$   $0 \leq a, b \leq 2^{n} \implies -2^{n} \leq a-b \leq 2^{n}$   $a \neq \mod n \quad p \iff divide a-b.$ 

- If  $(a_1,\ldots,a_n) \neq (b_1,\ldots,b_n)$ , then  $a \neq b$ .
- For how many primes can  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$ ? (i.e., protocol will fail)
- If a number *M* is in  $\{-2^n, \ldots, 2^n\}$ , then number of distinct primes  $p \mid M$  is < n.
  - Each prime divisor of M is  $\geq 2$ , so if M has t distinct prime divisors, then  $|M| > 2^t$
  - $|M| \le 2^n \Rightarrow t \le n$
- $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$  if, and only if,  $p \mid a b$ .
- Thus, protocol fails for at most *n* choices of *p*

- If  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \neq (b_1, \ldots, b_n)$ , then  $a \neq b$ .
- For how many primes can  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$ ? (i.e., protocol will fail)
- If a number *M* is in  $\{-2^n, \ldots, 2^n\}$ , then number of distinct primes  $p \mid M$  is < n.
  - Each prime divisor of M is  $\geq 2$ , so if M has t distinct prime divisors, then  $|M| > 2^t$
  - $|M| \le 2^n \Rightarrow t \le n$
- $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$  if, and only if,  $p \mid a b$ .
- Thus, protocol fails for at most *n* choices of *p*
- **Prime number theorem**: there are  $m/\log m$  primes among first *m* positive integers

- If  $(a_1,\ldots,a_n) \neq (b_1,\ldots,b_n)$ , then  $a \neq b$ .
- For how many primes can  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$ ? (i.e., protocol will fail)
- If a number *M* is in  $\{-2^n, \ldots, 2^n\}$ , then number of distinct primes  $p \mid M$  is < n.
  - Each prime divisor of M is  $\geq 2$ , so if M has t distinct prime divisors, then  $|M| > 2^t$

$$|M| \le 2^n \Rightarrow t \le n$$

• 
$$F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$$
 if, and only if,  $p \mid a - b$ .

- Thus, protocol fails for at most *n* choices of *p*
- Prime number theorem: there are m/ log m primes among first m positive integers
- Choosing p among the first tn log(tn)

$$\Pr[F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)] \le \frac{n}{tn \log tn / \log(tn \log tn)} = \tilde{O}(1/t)$$

# Verifying string equality

- If  $(a_1,\ldots,a_n) \neq (b_1,\ldots,b_n)$ , then  $a \neq b$ .
- For how many primes can  $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$ ? (i.e., protocol will fail)
- If a number M is in  $\{-2^n, \ldots, 2^n\}$ , then number of distinct primes  $p \mid M$  is < n.
  - **Q** Each prime divisor of M is > 2, so if M has t distinct prime divisors,  $p \leq tn \log(tn)$  $\log p = \log t + \log n$ then  $|M| > 2^{t}$

$$|M| \le 2^n \Rightarrow t \le n$$

- $F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)$  if, and only if,  $p \mid a b$ .
- Thus, protocol fails for at most n choices of p
- **Prime number theorem**: there are  $m/\log m$  primes among first m interes lag = O(Lag+ + lag n) positive integers
- Choosing p among the first  $tn \log(tn)$  *if the* we have that

$$\Pr[F_p(a) \equiv F_p(b)] \leq rac{n}{tn\log tn/\log(tn\log tn)} = ilde{O}(1/t)$$

• Number of bits sent is  $\tilde{O}(\log t + \log n)$ . Choosing t = n solves it.

+ logby to

#### Introduction

- Why Algebraic Techniques in computer science?
- Fingerprinting: String equality verification

#### Main Problems

- Polynomial Identity Testing
- Randomized Matching Algorithms
- Isolation Lemma

#### • Remarks

Acknowledgements

- Input: "Given" two polynomials P(x), Q(x), are they equal?
- $\bullet\,$  Two polynomials are equal  $\Leftrightarrow\,$  all their coefficients are equal

- Input: "Given" two polynomials P(x), Q(x), are they equal?
- Two polynomials are equal  $\Leftrightarrow$  all their coefficients are equal
- So why not just compare their coefficients?

- Input: "Given" two polynomials P(x), Q(x), are they equal?
- Two polynomials are equal ⇔ all their coefficients are equal
- So why not just compare their coefficients?
  - Sometimes polynomials are given *implicitly* (i.e., not by their list of coefficients)

Technique for string equality testing can be generalized to following setting:

- Input: "Given" two polynomials P(x), Q(x), are they equal?
- Two polynomials are equal  $\Leftrightarrow$  all their coefficients are equal
- So why not just compare their coefficients?
  - Sometimes polynomials are given *implicitly* (i.e., not by their list of coefficients)

2  $P_1(x), P_2(x), P_3(x)$ , test whether:  $P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x) = P_3(x)$ ?

this polynomial given implicitly by its true fectors

- Input: "Given" two polynomials P(x), Q(x), are they equal?
- Two polynomials are equal ⇔ all their coefficients are equal
- So why not just compare their coefficients?
  - Sometimes polynomials are given *implicitly* (i.e., not by their list of coefficients)
  - 2  $P_1(x), P_2(x), P_3(x)$ , test whether:  $P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x) = P_3(x)$ ?
  - If P<sub>1</sub>, P<sub>2</sub> have degree ≤ n, then deg(P<sub>3</sub>) ≤ 2n (otherwise problem is trivial)

- Input: "Given" two polynomials P(x), Q(x), are they equal?
- Two polynomials are equal ⇔ all their coefficients are equal
- So why not just compare their coefficients?
  - Sometimes polynomials are given *implicitly* (i.e., not by their list of coefficients)
  - 2  $P_1(x), P_2(x), P_3(x)$ , test whether:  $P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x) = P_3(x)$ ?
  - If P<sub>1</sub>, P<sub>2</sub> have degree ≤ n, then deg(P<sub>3</sub>) ≤ 2n (otherwise problem is trivial)
- Multiplication of two polynomials of degree n: O(n log n) arithmetic operations by FFT

- Input: "Given" two polynomials P(x), Q(x), are they equal?
- Two polynomials are equal ⇔ all their coefficients are equal
- So why not just compare their coefficients?
  - Sometimes polynomials are given *implicitly* (i.e., not by their list of coefficients)
  - 2  $P_1(x), P_2(x), P_3(x)$ , test whether:  $P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x) = P_3(x)$ ?
  - If P<sub>1</sub>, P<sub>2</sub> have degree ≤ n, then deg(P<sub>3</sub>) ≤ 2n (otherwise problem is trivial)
- Multiplication of two polynomials of degree n: O(n log n) arithmetic operations by FFT
- Polynomial evaluation: O(n) arithmetic operations

- Input: "Given" two polynomials P(x), Q(x), are they equal?
- Two polynomials are equal ⇔ all their coefficients are equal
- So why not just compare their coefficients?
  - Sometimes polynomials are given *implicitly* (i.e., not by their list of coefficients)
  - 2  $P_1(x), P_2(x), P_3(x)$ , test whether:  $P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x) = P_3(x)$ ?
  - If P<sub>1</sub>, P<sub>2</sub> have degree ≤ n, then deg(P<sub>3</sub>) ≤ 2n (otherwise problem is trivial)
- Multiplication of two polynomials of degree n: O(n log n) arithmetic operations by FFT
- Polynomial evaluation: O(n) arithmetic operations
- Can we check whether  $P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x) = P_3(x)$  in O(n) operations?

Technique for string equality testing can be generalized to following setting:

- Input: "Given" two polynomials P(x), Q(x), are they equal?
- Two polynomials are equal ⇔ all their coefficients are equal
- So why not just compare their coefficients?
  - Sometimes polynomials are given *implicitly* (i.e., not by their list of coefficients)
  - 2  $P_1(x), P_2(x), P_3(x)$ , test whether:  $P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x) = P_3(x)$ ?
  - **③** If  $P_1, P_2$  have degree ≤ *n*, then deg( $P_3$ ) ≤ 2*n* (otherwise problem is trivial)
- Multiplication of two polynomials of degree n: O(n log n) arithmetic operations by FFT
- Polynomial evaluation: O(n) arithmetic operations
- Can we check whether  $P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x) = P_3(x)$  in O(n) operations?

#### Lemma (Roots of Univariate Polynomials)

#### Lemma (Roots of Univariate Polynomials)

• Let 
$$Q(x) = P_3(x) - P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x)$$
. It has degree  $\leq 2n$   

$$deg(P_1) \in in$$

$$deg(P_1 \cdot P_2) \in in$$

#### Lemma (Roots of Univariate Polynomials)

Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field and  $P(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$  be a nonzero univariate polynomial of degree d. Then P(x) has at most d roots in  $\overline{\mathbb{F}}$ .

- Let  $Q(x) = P_3(x) P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x)$ . It has degree  $\leq 2n$
- By lemma, if  $Q \neq 0$  then Q(a) = 0 for at most 2n values in  $\mathbb{F}$ . (Q)

a root of Q

.

#### Lemma (Roots of Univariate Polynomials)

- Let  $Q(x) = P_3(x) P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x)$ . It has degree  $\leq 2n$
- By lemma, if  $Q \neq 0$  then Q(a) = 0 for at most 2n values in  $\mathbb{F}$ .
- Take a set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}$  of size 4n. Let  $a \in S$  chosen randomly.

$$5 = \{J_{1} Z_{1} \dots U_{n}\}$$

$$P_{n} \left[Q(\alpha) = 0\right] = \frac{\#norb}{|S|} \leq \frac{2n}{4n} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$a \in S \quad Q \neq 0$$

#### Lemma (Roots of Univariate Polynomials)

- Let  $Q(x) = P_3(x) P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x)$ . It has degree  $\leq 2n$
- By lemma, if  $Q \neq 0$  then Q(a) = 0 for at most 2n values in  $\mathbb{F}$ .
- Take a set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}$  of size 4n. Let  $a \in S$  chosen randomly.
- Compute Q(a) by computing  $P_1(a), P_2(a), P_3(a)$  and then  $P_3(a) - P_1(a) \cdot P_2(a)$ multiplicetion of two returned numbers to compute Q(Q) in Q(n) orithmetic  $\theta_{pp}$ .

#### Lemma (Roots of Univariate Polynomials)

- Let  $Q(x) = P_3(x) P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x)$ . It has degree  $\leq 2n$
- By lemma, if  $Q \neq 0$  then Q(a) = 0 for at most 2n values in  $\mathbb{F}$ .
- Take a set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}$  of size 4n. Let  $a \in S$  chosen randomly.
- Compute Q(a) by computing  $P_1(a), P_2(a), P_3(a)$  and then  $P_3(a) P_1(a) \cdot P_2(a)$
- Probability Q(a) = 0 (i.e., we failed to identify non-zero)

$$\leq rac{\mathsf{deg}(Q)}{|\mathcal{S}|} \leq rac{2n}{4n} = 1/2.$$

#### Lemma (Roots of Univariate Polynomials)

Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field and  $P(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$  be a nonzero univariate polynomial of degree d. Then P(x) has at most d roots in  $\overline{\mathbb{F}}$ .

- Let  $Q(x) = P_3(x) P_1(x) \cdot P_2(x)$ . It has degree  $\leq 2n$
- By lemma, if  $Q \neq 0$  then Q(a) = 0 for at most 2n values in  $\mathbb{F}$ .
- Take a set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}$  of size 4n. Let  $a \in S$  chosen randomly.
- Compute Q(a) by computing  $P_1(a), P_2(a), P_3(a)$  and then  $P_3(a) P_1(a) \cdot P_2(a)$
- Probability Q(a) = 0 (i.e., we failed to identify non-zero)

$$\leq \frac{\deg(Q)}{|S|} \leq \frac{2n}{4n} = 1/2.$$

• Can amplify probability by running multiple times or by choosing larger set *S*.

#### Lemma (Ore-Schwartz-Zippel-de Millo-Lipton lemma)

Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field and  $P(x_1, ..., x_n) \in \mathbb{F}[x_1, ..., x_n]$  be a nonzero polynomial of degree  $\leq d$ . Then for any set  $S \subseteq \overline{\mathbb{F}}$ , we have:

$$\Pr[P(a_1,\ldots,a_n)=0 \mid a_i \in S] \leq \frac{d}{|S|}$$

#### Lemma (Ore-Schwartz-Zippel-de Millo-Lipton lemma)

Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field and  $P(x_1, ..., x_n) \in \mathbb{F}[x_1, ..., x_n]$  be a nonzero polynomial of degree  $\leq d$ . Then for any set  $S \subseteq \overline{\mathbb{F}}$ , we have:

$$\Pr[P(a_1,\ldots,a_n)=0\mid a_i\in S]\leq \frac{d}{|S|}$$

Proof by induction in number of variables. box cone n=1. Induction  $P(y_1, x_1, ..., x_n) = \sum_{i=0}^{e} P_i(x_1, ..., x_n) y^i$   $e \in d$   $P_e(x_1, ..., x_n) \neq 0$  $deg(P_e) \leq d = e$ 

$$P_{n}[\gamma(b,\bar{a})=0] \leq \frac{P_{n}[P_{e}(\bar{a})=0] \cdot P_{n}[\gamma(b,\bar{a})=0] P_{e}(\bar{a}):0]}{p_{e}[P_{e}(\bar{a})=0] P_{e}(\bar{a})=0} + \frac{P_{n}[P_{e}(\bar{a})\neq0] \cdot P_{e}[P(b,\bar{a})=0|P_{e}(\bar{a})\neq0]}{p_{e}[P_{e}(\bar{a})\neq0] \cdot P_{e}[P(b,\bar{a})=0|P_{e}(\bar{a})\neq0]}$$

$$P_{\pi}\left[P(b,\bar{a})=0\right] = \frac{d-e}{|s|} \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot \frac{e}{|s|} = \frac{d}{|s|}$$

$$P(y,\bar{a}) = \sum_{i=0}^{e} P_{i}(\bar{a}) y^{i}$$

$$P(y,\bar{a}) = \int_{i=0}^{e} P_{i}(\bar{a}) e^{i\theta}$$

$$P(y,\bar{a}) = \int_{i=0}^{e} P_{i}(\bar{a}) e^{i\theta}$$

$$P(x_1g) = xy^2 + y + 3 + x$$
  
 $P(1_1y) = y^2 + y + 4$ 

#### Introduction

- Why Algebraic Techniques in computer science?
- Fingerprinting: String equality verification

#### Main Problems

• Polynomial Identity Testing

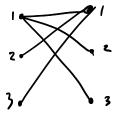
#### • Randomized Matching Algorithms

Isolation Lemma

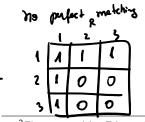
#### • Remarks

#### Acknowledgements

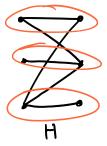
- Input: bipartite graph G(L, R, E) with |L| = |R| = n
- **Output:** does G have a perfect matching?







<sup>2</sup>First proved by Edmonds.



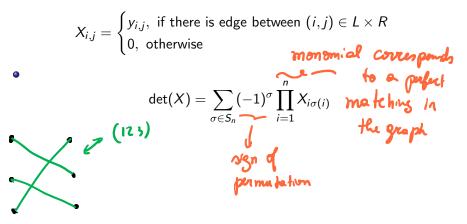


- Input: bipartite graph G(L, R, E) with |L| = |R| = n
- **Output:** does G have a perfect matching?
- Let  $X \in \mathbb{F}^{n imes n}$  be such that

$$X_{i,j} = \begin{cases} y_{i,j}, \text{ if there is edge between } (i,j) \in L \times R \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$
Symbolic adjacency metrix of G
$$\bigcup_{g \in I} (y_{i,j}, y_{i,j}, y_{i,j$$

<sup>2</sup>First proved by Edmonds.

- Input: bipartite graph G(L, R, E) with |L| = |R| = n
- **Output:** does G have a perfect matching?
- Let  $X \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$  be such that



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>First proved by Edmonds.

۲

- Input: bipartite graph G(L, R, E) with |L| = |R| = n
- **Output:** does G have a perfect matching?
- Let  $X \in \mathbb{F}^{n imes n}$  be such that

 $X_{i,j} = \begin{cases} y_{i,j}, \text{ if there is edge between } (i,j) \in L \times R \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

$$\det(X) = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_n} (-1)^\sigma \prod_{i=1}^n X_{i\sigma(i)}$$

• G has perfect matching ⇔ det(X) is a non-zero polynomial!<sup>2</sup> three is matching <u>o</u> n.1. Yio(i) are in the matrix *S* det(X) is a non-zero polynomial!<sup>2</sup> *monomial* (1)<sup>*n*</sup> *Hori is a non-zero polynomial*!<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup>First proved by Edmonds.

(日)

۲

- Input: bipartite graph G(L, R, E) with |L| = |R| = n
- **Output:** does *G* have a perfect matching?
- Let  $X \in \mathbb{F}^{n imes n}$  be such that

 $X_{i,j} = \begin{cases} y_{i,j}, \text{ if there is edge between } (i,j) \in L \times R \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

$$\det(X) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} (-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^n X_{i\sigma(i)}$$

- G has perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(X)$  is a *non-zero polynomial*!<sup>2</sup>
- Testing if G has a perfect matching is a *special case* of *Polynomial Identity Testing*!

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>First proved by Edmonds.

۲

- Input: bipartite graph G(L, R, E) with |L| = |R| = n
- **Output:** does *G* have a perfect matching?
- Let  $X \in \mathbb{F}^{n imes n}$  be such that

 $X_{i,j} = \begin{cases} y_{i,j}, \text{ if there is edge between } (i,j) \in L \times R \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

$$\det(X) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} (-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^n X_{i\sigma(i)}$$

- G has perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(X)$  is a *non-zero polynomial*!<sup>2</sup>
- Testing if G has a perfect matching is a *special case* of *Polynomial Identity Testing*!
- Algorithm: evaluate det(X) at a random value for the variables  $y_{i,j}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>First proved by Edmonds.

• Ok, bipartite matching is easy (we know many algorithms for it...) what about the general case?

- Ok, bipartite matching is easy (we know many algorithms for it...) what about the general case?
- Input: (undirected) graph G(V, E) where |V| = 2n.
- Output: does G have a perfect matching?

- Ok, bipartite matching is easy (we know many algorithms for it...) what about the general case?
- Input: (undirected) graph G(V, E) where |V| = 2n.
- **Output:** does G have a perfect matching?
- **Tutte Matrix:**  $T_G$  is the following  $2n \times 2n$  matrix: let F be an arbitrary orientation of edges in E. Then,

$$[T_G]_{i,j} = \begin{cases} x_{i,j} & \text{if } (i,j) \in F \\ -x_{i,j} & \text{if } (j,i) \in F \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Ok, bipartite matching is easy (we know many algorithms for it...) what about the general case?
- Input: (undirected) graph G(V, E) where |V| = 2n.
- **Output:** does G have a perfect matching?
- **Tutte Matrix:**  $T_G$  is the following  $2n \times 2n$  matrix: let F be an arbitrary orientation of edges in E. Then,

$$[T_G]_{i,j} = \begin{cases} x_{i,j} & \text{if } (i,j) \in F \\ -x_{i,j} & \text{if } (j,i) \in F \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

*G* has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

#### *G* has a perfect matching $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

#### Theorem (Tutte 1947)

*G* has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

$$\det(T_G) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_{2n}} (-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)}$$

#### Theorem (Tutte 1947)

*G* has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

۲

$$\det(T_G) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_{2n}} (-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)}$$

Each permutation σ ∈ S<sub>2n</sub> that yields non-zero term corresponds to a (directed) subgraph of G H<sub>σ</sub>(V, F<sub>σ</sub>), where F<sub>σ</sub> = {(i, σ(i))<sup>2n</sup><sub>i=1</sub>.

#### Theorem (Tutte 1947)

*G* has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

۲

$$\det(T_G) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_{2n}} (-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)}$$

- Each permutation σ ∈ S<sub>2n</sub> that yields non-zero term corresponds to a (directed) subgraph of G H<sub>σ</sub>(V, F<sub>σ</sub>), where F<sub>σ</sub> = {(i, σ(i))<sup>2n</sup><sub>i=1</sub>.
- Each vertex in  $H_{\sigma}$  has  $|\delta^{out}(i)| = |\delta^{in}(i)| = 1$ .

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

*G* has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

- Each permutation  $\sigma \in S_{2n}$  that yields non-zero term corresponds to a (directed) subgraph of G  $H_{\sigma}(V, F_{\sigma})$ , where  $F_{\sigma} = \{(i, \sigma(i)\}_{i=1}^{2n}.$
- If  $\sigma$  only has even cycles, then  $H_{\sigma}$  gives us a perfect matching (by taking every other edge of the graph  $H_{\sigma}$ , ignoring orientation)

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

*G* has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

• Each permutation  $\sigma \in S_{2n}$  that yields non-zero term corresponds to a (directed) subgraph of G  $H_{\sigma}(V, F_{\sigma})$ , where  $F_{\sigma} = \{(i, \sigma(i)\}_{i=1}^{2n}.$ 

• Otherwise, for each  $\sigma \in S_{2n}$  (that has odd cycle), there is another permutation  $r(\sigma) \in S_{2n}$  that is obtained by reversing odd cycle of  $H_{\sigma}$  containing vertex with *minimum index*.

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

G has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

G has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

• Comparing  $(-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)}$  and  $(-1)^{r(\sigma)} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,r(\sigma)(i)}$ 

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

G has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

Comparing (-1)<sup>σ</sup> ∏<sup>2n</sup><sub>i=1</sub>[T<sub>G</sub>]<sub>i,σ(i)</sub> and (-1)<sup>r(σ)</sup> ∏<sup>2n</sup><sub>i=1</sub>[T<sub>G</sub>]<sub>i,r(σ)(i)</sub>
 (-1)<sup>σ</sup> = (-1)<sup>r(σ)</sup> ⇐ cycles of same size

i=1

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

G has a perfect matching 
$$\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$$
.

i=1

i=1

• Comparing 
$$(-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)}$$
 and  $(-1)^{r(\sigma)} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,r(\sigma)(i)}$   
•  $(-1)^{\sigma} = (-1)^{r(\sigma)} \Leftarrow$  cycles of same size  
•  $\prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)} = \prod_{i=1}^{2n} x_{i,\sigma(i)} = -\prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,r(\sigma)(i)}$ 

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

G has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

- Comparing  $(-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)}$  and  $(-1)^{r(\sigma)} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,r(\sigma)(i)}$ •  $(-1)^{\sigma} = (-1)^{r(\sigma)} \Leftarrow$  cycles of same size •  $\prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)} = \prod_{i=1}^{2n} x_{i,\sigma(i)} = -\prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,r(\sigma)(i)}$ 
  - These two terms *cancel*!

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

G has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

• Comparing  $(-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)}$  and  $(-1)^{r(\sigma)} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,r(\sigma)(i)}$ •  $(-1)^{\sigma} = (-1)^{r(\sigma)} \Leftarrow$  cycles of same size •  $\prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)} = \prod_{i=1}^{2n} x_{i,\sigma(i)} = -\prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,r(\sigma)(i)}$ 

• These two terms *cancel*!

• Since  $r(r(\sigma)) = \sigma$ , all such terms cancel!

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

G has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

• Comparing  $(-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)}$  and  $(-1)^{r(\sigma)} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,r(\sigma)(i)}$ •  $(-1)^{\sigma} = (-1)^{r(\sigma)} \leftarrow$  cycles of same size ۲ **a** ... **n** ... **n**... i)

$$\prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)} = \prod_{i=1}^{2n} x_{i,\sigma(i)} = -\prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,r(\sigma)}(T_G)$$

• These two terms *cancel*!

- Since  $r(r(\sigma)) = \sigma$ , all such terms cancel!
- Is there a term that does not cancel? (have to show that  $det(T_G) \neq 0$

Theorem (Tutte 1947)

*G* has a perfect matching  $\Leftrightarrow \det(T_G) \neq 0$ .

- Is there a term that does not cancel? (have to show that  $det(T_G) \neq 0$ )
- If  $T_G$  has a matching, say,  $\{1, 2\}, \{3, 4\}, \dots, \{2n 1, 2n\}$ , then take permutation  $\sigma = (1 \ 2)(3 \ 4) \cdots (2n 1 \ 2n)$

$$(-1)^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{2n} [T_G]_{i,\sigma(i)} = (-1)^n \prod_{i=1}^n -x_{(2i-1)\sigma(2i-1)}^2 = \prod_{i=1}^n x_{(2i-1)\sigma(2i-1)}^2.$$

# We have seen randomized algorithms for bipartite and non-bipartite matching. Why did you say parallel algorithms?

We have seen randomized algorithms for bipartite and non-bipartite matching. Why did you say parallel algorithms?

- The algorithms for matching consisted of:
  - testing whether a certain determinant is non-zero
  - by evaluating it at a random point

We have seen randomized algorithms for bipartite and non-bipartite matching. Why did you say parallel algorithms?

- The algorithms for matching consisted of:
  - testing whether a certain determinant is non-zero
  - by evaluating it at a random point
- Ore-Schwartz-Zippel-deMillo-Lipton lemma tells us that this algorithm succeeds with high probability

We have seen randomized algorithms for bipartite and non-bipartite matching. Why did you say parallel algorithms?

- The algorithms for matching consisted of:
  - testing whether a certain determinant is non-zero
  - by evaluating it at a random point
- Ore-Schwartz-Zippel-deMillo-Lipton lemma tells us that this algorithm succeeds with high probability
- We can compute the determinant efficiently in parallel

#### Introduction

- Why Algebraic Techniques in computer science?
- Fingerprinting: String equality verification

#### • Main Problems

- Polynomial Identity Testing
- Randomized Matching Algorithms
- Isolation Lemma

#### • Remarks

#### Acknowledgements

Often times in parallel computation, when solving a problem with *many possible solutions*, it is important to make sure that *different processors* are working towards *same solution*.

Often times in parallel computation, when solving a problem with *many possible solutions*, it is important to make sure that *different processors* are working towards *same solution*.

Need to *single out* (i.e. isolate) a specific solution *without knowing* any element of the solution space. How to do this?

Think of perfect signific matching

Often times in parallel computation, when solving a problem with *many possible solutions*, it is important to make sure that *different processors* are working towards *same solution*.

Need to *single out* (i.e. isolate) a specific solution *without knowing* any element of the solution space. How to do this?

• **Solution:** Implicitly choose a *random order* on the feasible solutions and require processors to find solution of *lowest rank* in this order

Often times in parallel computation, when solving a problem with *many possible solutions*, it is important to make sure that *different processors* are working towards *same solution*.

Need to *single out* (i.e. isolate) a specific solution *without knowing* any element of the solution space. How to do this?

- **Solution:** Implicitly choose a *random order* on the feasible solutions and require processors to find solution of *lowest rank* in this order
- Applications also in distributed computing (breaking deadlocks)!

Often times in parallel computation, when solving a problem with *many possible solutions*, it is important to make sure that *different processors* are working towards *same solution*.

Need to *single out* (i.e. isolate) a specific solution *without knowing* any element of the solution space. How to do this?

- **Solution:** Implicitly choose a *random order* on the feasible solutions and require processors to find solution of *lowest rank* in this order
- Applications also in distributed computing (breaking deadlocks)!
- Can use it to compute minimum weight perfect matching (see Lap Chi's notes)

Often times in parallel computation, when solving a problem with *many possible solutions*, it is important to make sure that *different processors* are working towards *same solution*.

Need to *single out* (i.e. isolate) a specific solution *without knowing* any element of the solution space. How to do this?

- **Solution:** Implicitly choose a *random order* on the feasible solutions and require processors to find solution of *lowest rank* in this order
- Applications also in distributed computing (breaking deadlocks)!
- Can use it to compute minimum weight perfect matching (see Lap Chi's notes)

#### Lemma (Isolation Lemma)

Given a set system over  $[n] := \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , if we assign a random weight function  $w : [n] \rightarrow [2n]$  then the probability that there is a unique minimum weight set is at least 1/2.

#### Lemma (Isolation Lemma)

Given a set system over  $[n] := \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , if we assign a random weight function  $w : [n] \rightarrow [2n]$  then the probability that there is a unique minimum weight set is at least 1/2.

Example for n = 4:

#### Lemma (Isolation Lemma)

Given a set system over  $[n] := \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , if we assign a random weight function  $w : [n] \rightarrow [2n]$  then the probability that there is a unique minimum weight set is at least 1/2.

Example for n = 4:

• Set system:  $S_1 = \{1,4\}, S_2 = \{2,3\}, S_3 = \{1,2,3\}$ 

#### Lemma (Isolation Lemma)

Given a set system over  $[n] := \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , if we assign a random weight function  $w : [n] \rightarrow [2n]$  then the probability that there is a unique minimum weight set is at least 1/2.

Example for n = 4:

• Set system:  $S_1 = \{1,4\}, S_2 = \{2,3\}, S_3 = \{1,2,3\}$ 

• Random weight function  $w : [4] \rightarrow [8]$  given by w(1) = 3, w(2) = 5, w(3) = 8, w(4) = 4  $w(S_1) = 7$   $w(S_2) = 13$  $w(S_3) = 16$ 

#### Lemma (Isolation Lemma)

Given a set system over  $[n] := \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , if we assign a random weight function  $w : [n] \rightarrow [2n]$  then the probability that there is a unique minimum weight set is at least 1/2.

Example for n = 4:

- Set system:  $S_1 = \{1,4\}, S_2 = \{2,3\}, S_3 = \{1,2,3\}$
- Random weight function  $w : [4] \rightarrow [8]$  given by w(1) = 3, w(2) = 5, w(3) = 8, w(4) = 4
- Random weight function  $w' : [4] \rightarrow [8]$  given by w'(1) = 5, w'(2) = 1, w'(3) = 7, w'(4) = 3

 $\omega'(s_1) = 8 \quad \omega'(s_2) = 8 \quad \omega'(s_3) = 13$ 

#### Lemma (Isolation Lemma)

Given a set system over  $[n] := \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , if we assign a random weight function  $w : [n] \rightarrow [2n]$  then the probability that there is a unique minimum weight set is at least 1/2.

イロト 不得 トイヨト イヨト 二日

97 / 113

Example for n = 4:

- Set system:  $S_1 = \{1,4\}, S_2 = \{2,3\}, S_3 = \{1,2,3\}$
- Random weight function  $w : [4] \to [8]$  given by w(1) = 3, w(2) = 5, w(3) = 8, w(4) = 4
- Random weight function  $w' : [4] \rightarrow [8]$  given by w'(1) = 5, w'(2) = 1, w'(3) = 7, w'(4) = 3

#### Lemma (Isolation Lemma)

Given a set system over  $[n] := \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , if we assign a random weight function  $w : [n] \rightarrow [2n]$  then the probability that there is a unique minimum weight set is at least 1/2.

Example for n = 4:

- Set system:  $\textit{S}_1 = \{1,4\},\textit{S}_2 = \{2,3\},\textit{S}_3 = \{1,2,3\}$
- Random weight function  $w : [4] \rightarrow [8]$  given by w(1) = 3, w(2) = 5, w(3) = 8, w(4) = 4
- Random weight function  $w' : [4] \rightarrow [8]$  given by w'(1) = 5, w'(2) = 1, w'(3) = 7, w'(4) = 3

#### Remark

The isolation lemma could be quite counter-intuitive. A set system can have  $\Omega(2^n)$  sets. On average, there are  $\Omega(2^n/(2n^2))$  sets of a given weight, as max weight is  $\leq 2n^2$ . Isolation lemma tells us that with high probability there is *only one* set of minimum weight.

• Let S be our set system and  $v \in [n]$ .

- Let S be our set system and  $v \in [n]$ .
- Let S<sub>v</sub> family of sets from S which contain v, and N<sub>v</sub> the family of sets from S which do not contain v

- Let S be our set system and  $v \in [n]$ .
- Let S<sub>v</sub> family of sets from S which contain v, and N<sub>v</sub> the family of sets from S which do not contain v
- 3 Let

$$\alpha_{v} := \min_{A \in \mathcal{N}_{v}} w(A) - \min_{B \in \mathcal{S}_{v}} w(B \setminus \{v\})$$

- Let S be our set system and  $v \in [n]$ .
- Let S<sub>v</sub> family of sets from S which contain v, and N<sub>v</sub> the family of sets from S which do not contain v
- Let  $\alpha_{v} := \overbrace{\min_{A \in \mathcal{N}_{v}} w(A)}^{A^{*}} \overbrace{\min_{B \in \mathcal{S}_{v}} w(B \setminus \{v\})}^{B^{*}}$

•  $\alpha_v < w(v) \Rightarrow v$  does not belong to any minimum weight set

$$\omega(\mathcal{B}^{*}) = \omega(\mathcal{B}^{*} \setminus \{ \iota \}) + \omega(\upsilon)$$
  
=  $\omega(\mathcal{A}^{*}) - \alpha_{V} + \omega(\upsilon)$   
 $\geq \omega(\mathcal{A}^{*})$ 

102 / 113

- Let S be our set system and  $v \in [n]$ .
- Let S<sub>v</sub> family of sets from S which contain v, and N<sub>v</sub> the family of sets from S which do not contain v

3 Let

$$\alpha_{\mathbf{v}} := \min_{A \in \mathcal{N}_{\mathbf{v}}} w(A) - \min_{B \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathbf{v}}} w(B \setminus \{\mathbf{v}\})$$

•  $\alpha_v < w(v) \Rightarrow v$  does not belong to any minimum weight set

**5**  $\alpha_v > w(v) \Rightarrow v$  belongs to every minimum weight set

- Let S be our set system and  $v \in [n]$ .
- Let S<sub>v</sub> family of sets from S which contain v, and N<sub>v</sub> the family of sets from S which do not contain v

3 Let

$$\alpha_{\mathbf{v}} := \min_{A \in \mathcal{N}_{\mathbf{v}}} w(A) - \min_{B \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathbf{v}}} w(B \setminus \{\mathbf{v}\})$$

•  $\alpha_v < w(v) \Rightarrow v$  does not belong to any minimum weight set

- **5**  $\alpha_v > w(v) \Rightarrow v$  belongs to every minimum weight set
- $\alpha_v = w(v) \Rightarrow v$  is ambiguous

- Let S be our set system and  $v \in [n]$ .
- Let S<sub>v</sub> family of sets from S which contain v, and N<sub>v</sub> the family of sets from S which do not contain v

3 Let

$$\alpha_{\boldsymbol{v}} := \min_{\boldsymbol{A} \in \mathcal{N}_{\boldsymbol{v}}} w(\boldsymbol{A}) - \min_{\boldsymbol{B} \in \mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{v}}} w(\boldsymbol{B} \setminus \{\boldsymbol{v}\})$$

•  $\alpha_v < w(v) \Rightarrow v$  does not belong to any minimum weight set

- **5**  $\alpha_{v} > w(v) \Rightarrow v$  belongs to every minimum weight set
- $\alpha_v = w(v) \Rightarrow v$  is ambiguous
- $\alpha_v$  is *independent* of w(v), and w(v) chosen uniformly at random from [2n].

イロン イロン イヨン イヨン 三日

#### 3 Let

$$\alpha_{v} := \min_{A \in \mathcal{N}_{v}} w(A) - \min_{B \in \mathcal{S}_{v}} w(B \setminus \{v\})$$

•  $\alpha_v < w(v) \Rightarrow v$  does not belong to any minimum weight set

**5**  $\alpha_v > w(v) \Rightarrow v$  belongs to every minimum weight set

**6** 
$$\alpha_{v} = w(v) \Rightarrow v$$
 is ambiguous

- α<sub>v</sub> is *independent* of w(v), and w(v) chosen uniformly at random from [2n].
- $\Pr[v \text{ ambiguous}] \le 1/2n \Rightarrow_{\text{union bound}} \Pr[\exists \text{ ambiguous element}] \le 1/2$

#### 3 Let

$$\alpha_{v} := \min_{A \in \mathcal{N}_{v}} w(A) - \min_{B \in \mathcal{S}_{v}} w(B \setminus \{v\})$$

•  $\alpha_v < w(v) \Rightarrow v$  does not belong to any minimum weight set

**5**  $\alpha_v > w(v) \Rightarrow v$  belongs to every minimum weight set

$${old o} \ lpha_{old v} = {old w}({old v}) \Rightarrow {old v}$$
 is ambiguous

- $\alpha_v$  is *independent* of w(v), and w(v) chosen uniformly at random from [2*n*].
- **o**  $\Pr[v \text{ ambiguous}] \le 1/2n \Rightarrow_{\text{union bound}} \Pr[\exists \text{ ambiguous element}] \le 1/2$
- If two different sets A, B have minimum weight, then any element in  $A\Delta B$  must be ambiguous.



Proof of Isolation lemma ip no embrances element =) 7 contigue minimuch weight set in S 3 Let  $\alpha_{\mathbf{v}} := \min_{A \in \mathcal{N}_{\mathbf{v}}} w(A) - \min_{B \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathbf{v}}} w(B \setminus \{\mathbf{v}\})$ **(**)  $\alpha_{\nu} < w(\nu) \Rightarrow \nu$  does not belong to any minimum weight set **5**  $\alpha_v > w(v) \Rightarrow v$  belongs to every minimum weight set •  $\alpha_v$  is *independent* of w(v), and w(v) chosen uniformly at random from [2*n*]. <sup>●</sup>  $\Pr[v \text{ ambiguous}] \le 1/2n \Rightarrow_{\text{union bound}} \Pr[\exists \text{ ambiguous element}] \le 1/2$ If two different sets A, B have minimum weight, then any element in  $A\Delta B$  must be ambiguous.

• Probability that this happens is  $\leq 1/2$ . (step 8)

108 / 113

### Remarks

It is hard to overstate the importance of algebraic techniques in computing.

- Very useful tool for randomized algorithms (hashing, today's lecture)
- Parallel & Distributed Computing (this lecture and lectures 21 and 23)
- Interactive proof systems
- Efficient proof/program verification (PCP a bit in lecture 🍅
  - Applications in hardness of approximation!
  - Applications in blockchain (Zcash for instance)
  - Zero Knowledge proofs (lecture 24)
- Cryptography
- Coding theory
- many more...

23

### Remarks

It is hard to overstate the importance of algebraic techniques in computing.

- Very useful tool for randomized algorithms (hashing, today's lecture)
- Parallel & Distributed Computing (this lecture and lectures 21 and 23)
- Interactive proof systems
- Efficient proof/program verification (PCP a bit in lecture 16)
  - Applications in hardness of approximation!
  - Applications in blockchain (Zcash for instance)
  - Zero Knowledge proofs (lecture 24)
- Cryptography
- Coding theory
- many more...

Derandomizing (i.e., obtaining deterministic algorithms) for some of these settings (whenever possible) is *major open problem* in computer science.

#### Potential Final Projects

- Can we derandomize the perfect matching algorithms from class?
- A lot of progress has been made in the past couple years on this question in the works [Fenner, Gurjar & Thierauf 2019] and subsequently [Svensson & Tarnawski 2017]
- Survey of the above, or understanding these papers is a great final project!

### Acknowledgement

- Lecture based largely on:
  - Lap Chi's notes
  - [Motwani & Raghavan 2007, Chapter 7]
  - [Korte & Vygen 2012, Chapter 10].
- See Lap Chi's notes at

https://cs.uwaterloo.ca/~lapchi/cs466/notes/L07.pdf

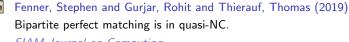
### References I

Motwani, Rajeev and Raghavan, Prabhakar (2007) Randomized Algorithms



Korte, Bernhard and Vygen, Jens (2012)

Combinatorial optimization. Vol. 2. Heidelberg: Springer.



SIAM Journal on Computing



Svensson, Ola and Jakub Tarnawski (2017) The matching problem in general graphs is in quasi-NC. IEEE 58th Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science