

HW4R randomized algorithms & random structures

MPRI 1.24 Wed. Dec. 16, 2015 - Due on Wed. Jan. 6, 2016



You are asked to complete the exercise marked with a [★] and to send me your solutions at:
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(or drop it in my mail box at the 4th floor of Sophie Germain) on **Wed. Jan. 6, 2016**.

■ Exercise 1 (Using fingerprints to check matrix multiplication). [★]

The best known algorithms for multiplying two $n \times n$ -matrices take time $O(n^\alpha)$ for some $\alpha > 2$. However, there is a simple randomized algorithm for verifying matrix products with high probability in $O(n^2)$ time.

Suppose I claim that $AB = C$ where A, B , and C are integer-valued $n \times n$ -matrices. You can confirm this by applying both sides of this equation to a random vector v , and checking that $ABv = Cv$.

► **Question 1.1)** Describe how to check if $ABv = Cv$ in $O(n^2)$ time, i.e. without computing the $n \times n$ -matrix product AB .

Answer. ▷ Since the matrix product is associative: $ABv = A(Bv)$. Evaluating $A(Bv)$ and Cv consists then in computing three vector-matrix products which take $O(n^2)$ time in total by the trivial algorithm. ◁

We desire to improve furthermore the checking procedure by using fingerprints. Assume that $AB \neq C$ and let $\alpha = \max_{i,j} \{|A_{ij}|, |B_{ij}|, |C_{ij}|\}$ bound the maximum coefficient in A, B and C .

► **Question 1.2)** Explain how to choose a prime number $p = O(\log(n\alpha) \log \log(n\alpha))$ such that with probability at least $\frac{9}{10}$, we have $AB - C \not\equiv 0 \pmod p$.

▷ Hint. Use that the k th prime number p_k verifies $0.91k \ln k < p_k < 1.7k \ln k$, as proved by Felgner in 1990.

Answer. ▷ As all coefficients in A, B and C are at most α , all coefficients in $AB - C$ are at most $n\alpha^2 + \alpha$. As $M = AB - C \neq 0$, then there is a non-zero coefficient $M_{ij} \neq 0$. Since $|M_{ij}| \leq n\alpha^2 + \alpha$, it has at most $\beta = \log_2(n\alpha^2 + \alpha)$ prime factors. It follows that if we pick a prime number p uniformly at random between 2 and $k = 1.7 \cdot 10\beta \cdot \ln(10\beta) = O(\log(n\alpha) \log \log(n\alpha))$ (so that there are at least 10β prime numbers between 2 and k), p divides M_{ij} with probability at most $\frac{1}{10}$, i.e. $\Pr\{M_{ij} = 0 \pmod p\} \leq \frac{1}{10}$. It follows that with probability at least $\frac{9}{10}$, $AB - C \not\equiv 0 \pmod p$. ◁

Assume now that we are lucky and $AB - C \not\equiv 0 \pmod p$.

► **Question 1.3)** Show that if v is chosen uniformly at random from $\{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}^n$, then the probability that $ABv = Cv \pmod p$ holds is at most $1/p$.

Answer. ▷ If $M = AB - C \neq 0$, then the application $v \mapsto (AB - C)v$ is a non-zero linear application over the vector space \mathbb{Z}_p^n (p is prime). It follows that $\dim \ker M + \dim \text{Im } M = n$, and since $\dim \text{Im } M \geq 1$ then $\dim \ker M \leq n-1$ and $\#\{v \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n : (AB - C)v = 0\} \leq p^{n-1}$. It follows that if $AB \neq C$, the probability that $ABv = Cv$ for an uniform random vector $v \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n$ is at most $p^{n-1}/p^n = 1/p$. ◁

■ **Exercise 2 (FPT algorithm for spotting k disjoint triangles).** [★]

Given $G = (V, E)$ an undirected graph ($n = |V|$ and $m = |E|$) and k an integer, we are looking for k vertex-disjoint triangles in G . Note that this problem is NP -complete when k is part of the input. We are looking for an algorithm of time complexity $O(f(k)n^a m^b)$ where the exponents a and b are constant, independent of k . Such an algorithm is called FPT for Fixed Parameter Tractable, which means that the complexity is a fixed-degree polynomial in the size of the input for any fixed value of the parameter k . Consider the following randomized algorithm:

Algorithm 1 FPT randomized algorithm for k disjoint triangles

- Choose independently for each vertex u a color $c_u \in \{1, \dots, 3k\}$ uniformly at random.
 - **return** "Yes" if there is a *colorful* solution, i.e. a set of k triangles whose $3k$ vertices use exactly once each color; **return** "I don't know" otherwise.
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► **Question 2.1)** Show that if G contains k disjoint triangles, then the probability that the algorithm answer "Yes" is at least e^{-3k} .

▷ Hint. use that: $k! \geq (k/e)^k$ for all k .

Answer. ▷ Assume that G contains k disjoint triangles. Then, the probability that each of their $3k$ vertices gets a different color is $(3k)!/(3k)^{3k} \geq e^{-3k}$. ◁

► **Question 2.2)** How many times should you run this algorithm to improve success probability to $1/2$?

Answer. ▷ Note that if the algorithm outputs "Yes", then it has found k colorful triangles which are thus necessarily vertex-disjoint. Then, if G does not have k disjoint triangles, the algorithm will always output "I don't know".

Assume that we repeat t times the algorithm and answer "Yes" whenever one of the t executions outputs "Yes", and "No" otherwise. If G does not have k disjoint triangles, the new algorithm will always answer "No" and thus the algorithm is always successful. If G has k disjoint triangles, k disjoint triangles are detected with probability at least e^{-3k} for each of t independent executions. The new algorithm will then output "Yes" with probability at least $1 - (1 - e^{-3k})^t = 1 - \exp(t \ln(1 - e^{-3k})) \geq 1 - \exp(-t \cdot e^{-3k}) \geq \frac{1}{2}$ for $t \geq e^{3k} \ln 2$. ◁

In order to check whether a colorful solution exists, we propose to try all permutations π on $\{1, \dots, 3k\}$ and check if there is are triangles of colors $(\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3), \dots, (\pi_{3k-2}, \pi_{3k-1}, \pi_{3k})$.

► **Question 2.3)** Describe an algorithm that decides if such a collection of triangles exists. (Explicit the exact data structure you are using). What is the overall expected time complexity in k , n and m , of the algorithm that uses this method to return k disjoint triangles with probability at least $1/2$ if they exists in G ? What is the time complexity if k is fixed?

Answer. ▷ Deciding if a given graph H has a triangle takes $O(m_H n_H)$ time by scanning all of its edges uv and all the vertices $w \neq u, v$.¹

To solve our problem, we scan the edges of G and dispatch them into k subgraphs H_i , with $1 \leq i \leq k$, where H_i contains only the vertices of colors $\pi_{3i-2}, \pi_{3i-1}, \pi_{3i}$ and the edges between them; the other edges are discarded. We then run k times the triangle-detection algorithm above, one for each H_i , and answer "Yes" iff a triangle is detected in every H_i . The overall time complexity for the test is $n+m + \sum_{i=1}^k O(m_{H_i} n_{H_i}) = O(mn)$.

The overall complexity of our k -disjoint triangles algorithm with success probability $\geq \frac{1}{2}$ is then $O((3k)!e^{3k}mn)$, that is to say $O(mn)$ if k is a fixed constant. ◁

¹There exists more efficient algorithms for detecting triangles, see wikipedia "Triangle-free graph".

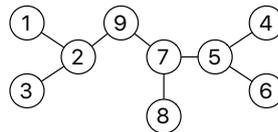
■ **Exercise 3 (Binomial laws composition).** Show that when the laws considered are independent, $\text{Bin}(\text{Bin}(n, p), q) \sim \text{Bin}(n, pq)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $p, q \in [0, 1]$.

Answer. ▷ Let $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ and $Y \sim \text{Bin}(X, q)$ where the two binomial laws are independent. Then, for all $y \in \{0, \dots, n\}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr\{Y = y\} &= \sum_{x=y}^n \Pr\{X = x\} \Pr\{Y = y \mid X = x\} \\ &= \sum_{x=y}^n \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \binom{x}{y} q^y (1-q)^{x-y} \\ &= \sum_{t=0}^{n-y} \frac{n!}{(y+t)! (n-y-t)!} p^{y+t} (1-p)^{n-y-t} \frac{(y+t)!}{y! t!} q^y (1-q)^t \\ &= (pq)^y (1-p)^{n-y} \frac{n!}{y! (n-y)!} \sum_{t=0}^{n-y} \frac{(n-y)!}{(n-y-t)! t!} \left(\frac{p(1-q)}{1-p}\right)^t \\ &= (pq)^y \frac{n!}{y! (n-y)!} (1-p)^{n-y} \left(1 + \frac{p(1-q)}{1-p}\right)^{n-y} \\ &= \binom{n}{y} (pq)^y (1-pq)^{n-y}. \end{aligned}$$

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■ **Exercise 4 (Prüfer sequence).** Consider a (unrooted) tree with n nodes labelled from 1 to n . The Prüfer sequence encoding this tree is obtained by removing vertices from the tree until only two vertices remain. Specifically, at step i , remove the leaf with the smallest label and set the i th element of the Prüfer sequence to the label of this leaf's neighbor. For instance, the Prüfer sequence for the tree bellow is 2, 2, 5, 5, 7, 7, 7.



► **Question 4.1)** Show that every labelled unrooted tree corresponds a unique sequence in $\{1, \dots, n\}^{n-2}$ and reciprocally.

▷ Hint. First, show how to compute the degree of every node from a given Prüfer sequence.

Answer. ▷ (Sketch) By induction, every node of degree d appears $d - 1$ times in the sequence. To decode the sequence, first compute the degrees and then select iteratively the degree-1 node with the smallest label and decreases its degree and its neighbor's degree. Connect the last two nodes with positive degrees. ◁

► **Question 4.2)** Conclude that there are n^{n-2} labelled unrooted trees with n nodes.

Answer. ▷ (Sketch) There are n^{n-2} Prüfer sequences. ◁

► **Question 4.3)** More precisely, show that there are

$$\binom{n-2}{d_1-1, d_2-1, \dots, d_n-1} = \frac{(n-2)!}{(d_1-1)! (d_2-1)! \dots (d_n-1)!}$$

labelled unrooted trees with n nodes whose i th vertex has degree d_i .

Answer. ▷ (Sketch) Remark that i appears exactly $d_i - 1$ times in the Prüfer sequence. Start with the sequence of length $n - 2$ where each i appears exactly $d_i - 1$ times with i

increasing from left to right. There are $(n - 2)!$ possible shuffles of this sequence and for each i , $(d_i - 1)!$ shuffles of this shuffle that leaves it unchanged. The formula follows. \triangleleft