CS289a: Great Theory Hits of 21st Century

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Winter 2023

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Notes reorganized from $\verb|https://hackmd.io/@raghum/greathits.||$

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Chapter 1

SL = L: Undirected connectivity in Logspace

1.1 Computing Resources

Four main computing resources that we consider as limited (and measure the performance of our algorithms against)

- Time
- Memory
- Randomness
- Communication

1.2 Problem Statement

- **Input**: Graph G = (V, E); with source and target marked as s, t
- **Output**: YES iff *s* and *t* are connected, NO otw.

Above is the "traditional" definition of s-t connectivity which we can solve with a vanilla BFS or DFS. This will take O(|V| + |E|) and O(|V|) extra bits of space / memory. The question is then, can we solve the same problem with sub-linear extra memory usage.

Proposition 1.1

There is a randomized algorithm with $5 \log |V|$ bits of additional memory (directed and undirected graphs).

Proposition 1.2: Omer Reingold, 2005

There is a log space $(O(\log |V|))$ algorithm **(deterministic)** for undirected graphs. ^a

^afirst great hit ...

It is yet unknown if we can achieve log space for directed graphs (with deterministic algorithm). The best known algorithms runs with $O(\log |V|)^{3/2}$ bits of memory. Why is this so challenging?

Proposition 1.3

If divided s-t connectivity can be solved with $O(\log |V|)$ extra bits of memory (without randomness), then any randomized algorithm can be made deterministic at the expenses of a constant factor increase in memory.

1.2.1 Log Space USTCON - Results

Here we highlight the progression in space complexity in various papers

- **Nisan, 92**: Space $O(\log^2 N)$, time $N^{O(1)}$ algorithm... improved to $O(\log^{4/3} N)$ in space.
- **Reingold, 05**: Space $O(\log N)$, time $N^{O(1)}$ algorithm.
- **Trifornov, 05**: Space $O((\log N)(\log \log N))$ algorithm.

1.3 Randomized Algorithm for Connectivity

Algorithm 1.1: Random Walk Algorithm for Connectivity

Here is the algorithm

- $steps \leftarrow 0$
- $current \leftarrow s$; $target \leftarrow t$
- while steps < T
 - *current* ← random neighbor of current
 - − if current == target return YES
- return NO

The total memory for this algorithm is

$$2\log N + \log T \le 5\log N \tag{1.3.1}$$

extra bits, assuming we can get random neighbor.

Proposition 1.4: Alenilaus, 80s

If $T = 100N^3$ steps, then $Pr[Algorithm wrong] < \frac{1}{3}$

which can improved to arbitrary accuracy by repeating the algorithm. Algorithms of this nature can perform bad on graphs known as "Lollipop Graphs" and even worse a "Dumbell Graph"

1.4 Spectral Graph Theory

Consider an undirected graph G = (V, E),

Definition 1.1: Degree

Degree of a vertex v is the number f edges v is connected to.

Definition 1.2: Regular

Graphs is "regular" if all vertices have same degree.

Definition 1.3: Adjacency Matrix

A(G) is a symmetric matrix where $A(G)_{ij} = 1$ if $\{i, j\}$ is an edge, 0 otw.

Definition 1.4: Normalized Adj Matrix

If G is regular and has degree D, then the normalized adjacency matrix is defined as

$$M(G) \equiv \frac{A(G)}{D} \tag{1.4.1}$$

Lemma 1.1

If *G* is regular, then 1 is an eigenvalue of M(G). And $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T}$ is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 1.

Proposition 1.5: Eigenvalues of Regular Graphs

If *G* is regular, then all eigenvalues of M(G) have magnitude ≤ 1 .

Proof: WLOG assume x_3 is the largest entry in the vector \mathbf{x} , then

$$\lambda |x_3| = |M_{31}x_1 + M_{32}x_2 + \dots + M_{3N}x_N| \tag{1.4.2}$$

$$\leq M_{31}|x_3| + M_{32}|x_3| + \dots + M_{3N}|x_3| \tag{1.4.3}$$

$$= (M_{31} + \dots + M_{3N})|x_3| \tag{1.4.4}$$

$$=1|x_3| (1.4.5)$$

Thus, $\lambda \leq 1$.

Proposition 1.6: Connectedness and Matrices

Regular G = (V, E) is connected if and only if the only eigenvector with eigenvalue 1 for M(G) is the all 1 vector. ^a

^ai.e., eigenvalue 1 has an multiplicity of 1.

<u>Proof:</u> [Regular G = (V, E) is connected implies $\lambda = 1$ has multiplicity of 1 for M(G).] From proof to Prop. 1.5 we already know that $|\lambda| \le 1$. With $x_j = \max(\mathbf{x})$ as the largest entry in the eigenvector, we recall (and abstract the inequality used back then as

$$|\lambda||x_j| = |(M(G)\mathbf{x})_j| = \left|\sum_{v_i \in N(v_j)} x_i\right| / D \le |x_j|$$

$$(1.4.6)$$

We are now interested in the condition of when $\lambda = 1$, $|\lambda||x_i| = |x_i|$, in which case we need

$$x_i = x_j, \quad \forall v_i \in N(v_j) \tag{1.4.7}$$

This suffices as a proof to every eigenvector with eigenvalue 1 to M(G) is the **1** vector. *Proof:* [$\lambda = 1$ has multiplicity of 1 for M(G) implies regular G = (V, E) is connected.] todo ...

Proposition 1.7: Eigenvalues of a Regular Graph

If G is regular, then the eigenvalues of M(G) are

$$1 = \lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge \dots \ge \lambda_N \tag{1.4.8}$$

Proof: This follows from the proof for Prop. 1.5 where we proved that all eigenvalues of M(G) have magnitude ≤ 1. Since the one vector **1** is an eigenvector of M(G) with eigenvalue one, we know that $\lambda_1 = 1$ is attainable. This suffices as a proof.

Proposition 1.8

G is connected and regular if and only if on M(G)

$$\max(|\lambda_2|, |\lambda_3|, \dots, |\lambda_N|) \le 1 \tag{1.4.9}$$

Proof: todo ...

Proposition 1.9: Eigenvalues of D-Regular Graphs

If *G* is a D-regular graph, then

- 1 is an eigenvalue of M(G), and
- all eigenvalues of M(G) are at most 1 in absolute value

Definition 1.5: Self Loops

We add connections from each node in the graph to themselves. In the matrix representation, we set $G_{ii} = 1, \forall i$.

Definition 1.6: Second Largest Eigenvalue

... denoted as $\lambda(G)$ or $\lambda_2(G)$.

Lemma 1.2

If *G* is D-regular and **has self loops**, then *G* is connected if and only if $\lambda(G) < 1$.

<u>Proof:</u> [G is disconnected implies $\lambda(G) = 1$ (via contrapositive).] Consider a graph G such that it is comprised of two clouds of disjoint graphs G_1 and G_2 . Then the adjacency matrix of G will take a block matrix form

$$M_G = \begin{bmatrix} M_{G_1} & [\mathbf{0}] \\ [\mathbf{0}] & M_{G_2} \end{bmatrix} \tag{1.4.10}$$

From linear algebra, we know that the eigenvalues of M_G will be the union of eigenvalues of M_{G_1} and M_{G_2} . Now, consider

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\\vdots\\0\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\0\\\vdots\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1.4.11)

are both eigenvectors of M_G with eigenvalues of 1. Hence, there are two orthogonal eigenvectors with eigenvalue 1, and $\lambda(G) = 1$ as wanted.

<u>Proof:</u> [If G is connected, then $\lambda(G) < 1$.] We already know that 1 is an eigenvalue of M_G with the $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ vector as eigenvector. Suppose λ is also an eigenvalue with \mathbf{v} as an eigenvector and \mathbf{v} is perpendicular to $\mathbf{1}$. Now,

$$\mathbf{1} \perp \mathbf{v} \implies \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{1} \rangle = v_1 + v_2 + \dots + v_N = 0 \tag{1.4.12}$$

The vector \mathbf{v} must contain some positive entries and some negative entries, we separate them into two sets

$$P = \{i : v_i \ge 0\}$$
 and $N = \{i : v_i < 0\}$ (1.4.13)

where both sets are non-empty by Eq. 1.4.12. Taking a step back and reorganize the goal into matrix form

$$M_{G}\begin{bmatrix} + \\ + \\ \vdots \\ - \\ - \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} + \\ + \\ \vdots \\ - \\ - \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where} \quad \begin{bmatrix} + \\ + \\ \vdots \\ - \\ - \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{P} \\ - \\ \mathbf{N} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{v}$$
 (1.4.14)

Per element,

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} M_G[i,j] \cdot v_j = \lambda \cdot v_i, \quad \forall i$$
 (1.4.15)

By the connectedness assumption, there must always be some edge connecting P and N the two sets, so

$$\lambda\left(\sum_{i\in P} v_i\right) = \sum_{i\in P} \left(\sum_{j=1}^N M_G[i,j] \cdot v_j\right) \tag{1.4.16}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{N} v_j \sum_{i \in P} M_G[i, j]$$
 (1.4.17)

$$= \sum_{j \in P} v_j \left(\sum_{i \in P} M_G[i, j] \right) + \sum_{j \in N} v_j \left(\sum_{i \in P} M_G[i, j] \right)$$
 (1.4.18)

$$\leq \sum_{i \in P} v_j(1) + \sum_{i \in N} v_j \left(\sum_{i \in p} M_G[i, j] \right)$$
 (1.4.19)

$$<\sum_{j\in P} v_j \tag{1.4.20}$$

where in the last two steps we utilized the facts that M_G 's columns add up to 1 and we have at least 1 non-zero entry in each row and col of M_G .

In summary, we obtained

$$\lambda\left(\sum_{i\in P} v_i\right) < \left(\sum_{j\in P} v_j\right) \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \lambda < 1 \tag{1.4.21}$$

Definition 1.7: Spectral Gap

Spectral Gap of a D-regular graph G is defined as

SpectralGap(
$$G$$
) $\equiv 1 - \lambda(G)$ (1.4.22)

Lemma 1.3

If *G* is a D-regular connected graph with self-loops, then

$$\lambda(G) \le 1 - \frac{1}{2D^2 \cdot N^2} \tag{1.4.23}$$

Definition 1.8

We say a graph *G* is (N, D, λ) if it has *N* vertices, *D* regular and $\lambda(G) \leq \lambda$.

1.5 Path Enumeration

The simplest case is wen the shortest path between s, t is short. Then, we can enumerate all paths of some length and see if t is reached.

The algorithm goes as follows

Algorithm 1.2

1, Explore all paths of length less than or equal to T from s. 2, If you reach t in these explorations, output YES. If not, output NO.

This takes $O(\log D) \cdot T$ extra space, where *D* is the degree of the graph and *T* is the loop times.

Definition 1.9: Graph Diameter

Diameter of a graph is defined as the length of the longest shortest path for any pair of vertices. By convention,

- G disconnected, diameter = ∞ , and
- G connected, diameter = $\max_{i \neq j} (ShortestPath(i, j))$

Proposition 1.10: Extra Space for Path Enumeration

Path enumeration will solve the s-t connectivity in with max extra space

$$(\log D) \cdot \Delta(G) \tag{1.5.1}$$

bits, where $\Delta(G)$ is the max diameter of connected components of G.

Proposition 1.11

If *G* is connected, D-regular, has self-loops, then^a

$$Diameter(G) \le \lceil \log_{\frac{1}{\lambda}} N \rceil + 1 \tag{1.5.2}$$

1.5.1 Reingold's Idea

We see from the proposition above that the bigger the spectral gap, the smaller the number of extra bits we need in space for the algorithm. The problem then is how we can transform the graph enlarging the spectral gap while not hurting the degree too much. Formally, we want to transform (G, s, t) to $(\bar{G}, \bar{s}, \bar{t})$ such that

- s, t connected in G if and only if \bar{s}, \bar{t} connected in \bar{G} , and
- $\lambda(\bar{G}) < \lambda(G)$, and
- $Degree(\bar{G})$ is not much worse then Degree(G)

1.5.2 Reducing Degree

For the first part of Eq. 1.5.1, we can reduce the degree of any graph with

Algorithm 1.3: Degree Reduce Procedure

The procedure,

- Break each edge into two vertices, and
- Add local edges at each "old" vertices, and
- Add self loops to make graph

Proposition 1.12

The procedure outlined above generates a degree 4 graph.

1.5.3 Improving Spectral Gap

Definition 1.10: Multi-graphs

A multi-graph is a superset of our old definition of a graph, except we allow repeated edges between nodes. This is represented as values larger than 1 in the adjacency matrix. All definitions are carried over without change: degree, normalized adjacency matrix, and $\lambda(G)$.

 $^{^{}a}\lambda$ is the second largest eigenvalue, N is the matrix size (number of nodes).

With the degree reducing algorithm in Sec. 1.5.1, we can reduce any graph to a degree of 4. This means Eq. 1.5.1 is now transformed into

$$(\log 4) \cdot \Delta(G) = 2 \cdot \Delta(G) \tag{1.5.3}$$

extra bits of storage. How should we improve

$$\Delta(G) \le \log_{\frac{1}{\lambda}} N \tag{1.5.4}$$

which is the largest diameter of any connected component?

Idea: Input G, s, t where G has self-loops and transform that into G', s', t' where

$$\lambda(G') \ll \lambda(G) \tag{1.5.5}$$

Goal: Operations to improve (decrease) the second largest eigenvalue.

Definition 1.11: Squaring the Graph

Add new edges: if (u, v) and (v, w) are edges, then add an edge (u, w).

Proposition 1.13: Adjacency of Squared Graph

$$A_{C^2} = (A_C)^2 (1.5.6)$$

in matrix representation, and we allow multi-graph in this setting.

Proof:

$$(A_G)_{[i,j]}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^N (A_G)_{[i,k]} (A_G)_{[k,j]}$$
(1.5.7)

Proposition 1.14: Squared Graph Spectral Gap

If *G* is a (N, D, λ) graph with self loops, then G^2 is a (N, D^2, λ^2) graph with self loop. Since connected $\implies \lambda < 0, \lambda^2 < \lambda$.

Theorem 1.1: Squared Matrix Spectral Decomposition

M is a symmetric matrix with eigenvalues

$$\lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge \lambda_3 \ge \dots \ge \lambda_N \tag{1.5.8}$$

then, M^2 is a symmetric matrix with the same eigenvectors but with eigenvalues

$$\lambda_1^2, \lambda_2^2, \dots, \lambda_N^2 \tag{1.5.9}$$

Proof: For M, we have

$$M\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x} \tag{1.5.10}$$

Then,

$$M^2 \mathbf{x} = \lambda M \mathbf{x} = \lambda^2 \mathbf{x} \tag{1.5.11}$$

This concludes the proof.

Corollary 1.1.1: Squared Graph Eigenvalues

It follows from Thm. 1.1 directly that if $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_N$ are eigenvalues for the original graph matrix M, then the new squared M^2 matrix has the same eigenvectors but with eigenvalues $\lambda_1^2, \lambda_2^2, \ldots, \lambda_N^2$ instead.

Proposition 1.15: Normalized Adjacency of Squared Graph

The normalized graph matrix of G^2 , is such that

$$M_{G^2} = (M_G)^2 (1.5.12)$$

Proof: Recall that

$$M_G = \frac{A_G}{D} \tag{1.5.13}$$

Then,

$$M_{G^2} = \frac{A_{G^2}}{D^2} = \frac{(A_G)^2}{D^2} = \left(\frac{A_G}{D}\right)^2 = (M^G)^2$$
 (1.5.14)

This concludes the proof.

Proposition 1.16: Square Graph Does Not Save Memory

Recall that our initial goal was to save extra memory used. Here with squaring, though we enlarged the spectral gap as desired $((1 - \lambda) \rightarrow (1 - \lambda^2))$, the degree got larger $(D \rightarrow D^2)$. In total, extra bits is

$$(\log D) \cdot \log_{\frac{1}{\lambda}} N \leadsto (\log D^2) \log_{\frac{1}{\lambda^2}} N \tag{1.5.15}$$

$$= 2 \cdot \log D \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \log_{\frac{1}{\lambda}} N \tag{1.5.16}$$

$$= (\log D) \cdot \log_{\frac{1}{\lambda}} N \tag{1.5.17}$$

which is exactly what we had before. This suffices as a proof for squaring matrices alone does not bring any memory savings.

Goal Taking a step back, we can see that we need to find a powering operation that improves the second largest eigenvalue **while not increasing degree too much**. This leads to the following algorithm:

Algorithm 1.4: Reingold, 2005

For a graph specified as (G, s, t) where G is 4-regular and has self-loops, define a recursive relationship

$$G_{i+1} = G_i^2(\widehat{z})H \tag{1.5.18}$$

where *H* is a special graph. This recursion covers the transformation

$$(G,s,t) \rightsquigarrow (G_1 = G^2(\overline{z})H, \overline{s}, \overline{t}) \rightsquigarrow (G_2 = G_1^2(\overline{z})H, \overline{s}, \overline{t}) \rightsquigarrow \dots$$
 (1.5.19)

Remark G_i^2 part decreases the second largest eigenvalue, and the zH part brings down the degree while not hurting second largest eigenvalue.

Definition 1.12: Consistent Labelling

G is a D-regular graph. A consistent labelling is a mapping

$$L: \mathbb{E} \to [D] \tag{1.5.20}$$

such that at each vertex all edges of the vertex have distinct labels.

Example Figure 1.1 depicts a consistent edge labelling of the graph.

Definition 1.13: Zig Zag Product

Input & Output

$$\left. \begin{array}{l}
G:(N,D,-) \\
H:(D,D_1,-)
\end{array} \right\} \to G \textcircled{z} H:(ND,D_1^2,-)$$
(1.5.21)

Rotations

$$Rot_G: [N] \times [D] \to [N] \times [D]$$

$$Rot_H: [D] \times [D_1] \to [D] \times [D_1]$$

$$(1.5.22)$$

$$\rightarrow Rot_{G(\mathbb{Z})H}: [N \cdot D] \times \left([D_1^2]\right) \rightarrow [N \cdot D] \times \left([D_1^2]\right) \tag{1.5.23}$$

$$\equiv Rot_{G(\mathbb{Z})H}: [N \cdot D] \times ([D_1] \times [D_1]) \rightarrow [N \cdot D] \times ([D_1] \times [D_1]) \quad (1.5.24)$$

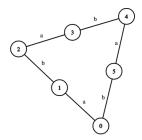


Figure 1.1: Illustration of consistent labelling.

and $Rot_{G \boxtimes H} ((v,a),(k_1,k_2)): \qquad (1.5.25)$ $\to (a',i') \leftarrow Rot_H(a,k_1) \qquad (1.5.26)$ $\to (w,b') \leftarrow Rot_G(v,a') \qquad (1.5.27)$ $\to (b,i'') \leftarrow Rot_H(b',k_2) \qquad (1.5.28)$ $\to \text{output} ((w,b),(k_2,k_1)) \qquad (1.5.29)$

English Explanation The Zig-Zag product $G \supseteq H$ replaces each vertex of G with a copy (cloud) of H, and connects the vertices by moving a small step (zig) inside the cloud, followed by a big step between two clouds, and finally performs another small step (zag) inside the destination cloud.

1.6 Zig Zag Analysis

In the previous section, we highlighted a combinatorial product between two graphs called Zig Zag product. Here we present properties and analysis of the product.

Goal Consider the definition, where we are given graphs

$$G:(N,D,\lambda_G)$$
 and $H:(D,D_1,\lambda_H)$ (1.6.1)

What can we tell about $G(\overline{z})H$? In particular, it will be a $(ND, D_1^2, ???)$ graph?

Definition 1.14: Tensor Product

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d_1 \times 1}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{d_2 \times d_2}$,

$$\mathbb{R}^{(d_1^2) \times (d_2^2)} \ni A \otimes B \quad \text{where} \quad (A \otimes B)_{ij} = [A_{ij}B]$$
 (1.6.2)

Proposition 1.17: Adjacency of Zig Zag Product

For $F = G(\overline{z})H$,

$$A_{F} = (\mathbb{I}_{N} \otimes A_{H}) \cdot P_{G} \cdot (\mathbb{I}_{N} \otimes A_{H})$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} [A_{H}] & [\mathbf{0}] & \dots & [\mathbf{0}] \\ [\mathbf{0}] & [A_{H}] & \dots & [\mathbf{0}] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & [\vdots] \\ [\mathbf{0}] & [\mathbf{0}] & \dots & [A_{H}] \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} [\dots] & [\dots] & \dots & [\dots] \\ [\dots] & \vdots & \ddots & [\vdots] \\ [\dots] & \dots & \dots & [\dots] \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} [A_{H}] & [\mathbf{0}] & \dots & [\mathbf{0}] \\ [\mathbf{0}] & [A_{H}] & \dots & [\mathbf{0}] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & [\vdots] \\ [\mathbf{0}] & [\mathbf{0}] & \dots & [A_{H}] \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(1.6.4)$$

where each [...] inside is of size $(D \times D)$, and thus the outer matrices are all of sizes $(D \times N) \times (D \times N)$. Graphically, we note that the two $(\mathbb{I}_N \otimes A_H)$ parts represent zig and zag steps respectively in the product while the P transition is the inter-cloud big step.

Normalized Adjacency

$$M_F = A_F/D = (\mathbb{I}_N \otimes M_H) \cdot P_G \cdot (\mathbb{I}_N \otimes M_H) \tag{1.6.5}$$

Lemma 1.4: Linear Algebra: LA1

For G is a (N, D, -) graph,

$$\lambda_G \le \lambda \iff M_G = (1 - \lambda) \frac{J_N}{N} + \lambda \cdot E$$
 (1.6.6)

^a where ^b

$$||E|| \le 1 \tag{1.6.7}$$

^aA permutation transition *P* guarantees that *P* has only one 1 in each row and column.

 $[^]aJ_N$ is a box of $N \times N$ matrix, filled with 1's in every entry.

 $^{||\}cdot||$ is the spectral norm of a matrix, and is equal to the largest absolute eigenvalue for a symmetric matrix.

Remark Consider spectral decomposition of M_G ,

$$M_{G} = 1 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{n} \\ 1/\sqrt{n} \\ \vdots \\ 1/\sqrt{n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} & \dots & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \end{bmatrix} + \lambda_{2} \mathbf{v}_{2} \mathbf{v}_{2}^{\mathsf{T}} + \lambda_{3} \mathbf{v}_{3} \mathbf{v}_{3}^{\mathsf{T}} + \dots + \lambda_{N} \mathbf{v}_{N} \mathbf{v}_{N}^{\mathsf{T}}$$
(1.6.8)

$$= 1\left(\frac{J_N}{N}\right) + \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^{\mathsf{T}} + \lambda_3 \mathbf{v}_3 \mathbf{v}_3^{\mathsf{T}} + \dots + \lambda_N \mathbf{v}_N \mathbf{v}_N^{\mathsf{T}}$$
(1.6.9)

$$= (1 - \lambda) \left(\frac{J_N}{N} \right) + \underbrace{\left(\lambda \left(\frac{J_N}{N} \right) + \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^\top + \lambda_3 \mathbf{v}_3 \mathbf{v}_3^\top + \dots + \lambda_N \mathbf{v}_N \mathbf{v}_N^\top \right)}_{\tilde{E}}$$
(1.6.10)

If fact this sum that we called *E* is the Eigen decomposition of *E* itself!

Lemma 1.5: Linear Algebra LA 2

For $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$,

- $||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||$
- $\bullet \ \|A \cdot B\| \le \|A\| \cdot \|B\|$
- $||A \otimes B|| = ||A|| \cdot ||B||$

Lemma 1.6: Linear Algebra LA 3

For any permutation matrix (each row and column has exactly one non-zero) P,

$$||P|| = 1 \tag{1.6.11}$$

Theorem 1.2: Rozenmann-Vadhan 05, RVW 01

For

$$G: (N, D, \lambda_G)$$
 and $H: (D, D_1, \lambda_H)$ (1.6.12)

 $F = G(\mathbb{Z})H$ is a (ND, D_1^2, λ_F) -graph, where

$$\lambda_F \le 1 - (1 - \lambda_H)^2 (1 - \lambda_G)$$
 (1.6.13)

Alternatives

$$\lambda_F \le 1 - (1 - \lambda_H)^2 (1 - \lambda_G)$$
 (1.6.14)

$$\iff (1 - \lambda_H)^2 (1 - \lambda_G) \le 1 - \lambda_F \tag{1.6.15}$$

$$\iff Gap(H)^2 \cdot Gap(G) \le Gap(F)$$
 (1.6.16)

Proof: We start with writing out a complete form of M_F . Recall from earlier (Prop. 1.17) that

$$M_F = (\mathbb{I}_N \otimes M_H) \cdot P_G \cdot (\mathbb{I}_N \otimes M_H) \tag{1.6.17}$$

By Lemma 1.4, we can derive

$$M_H = \left((1 - \lambda_H) \frac{J_D}{D} + \lambda_H E_H \right) \quad \text{where} \quad ||E_H|| \le 1$$
 (1.6.18)

Then,

$$\mathbb{I}_N \otimes M_H = (1 - \lambda_H) \mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} + \lambda_H \mathbb{I}_N \otimes E_H \tag{1.6.19}$$

and thus

$$M_F = \left((1 - \lambda_H) \mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} + \lambda_H \mathbb{I}_N \otimes E_H \right) \times P \times \left((1 - \lambda_H) \mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} + \lambda_H \mathbb{I}_N \otimes E_H \right) \quad (1.6.20)$$

$$= (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \left(\mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} \right) \cdot P \cdot \left(\mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} \right)$$
 (1.6.21)

$$+ (1 - \lambda_H)\lambda_H \underbrace{\left(\mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D}\right) \cdot P \cdot (\mathbb{I}_N \otimes E_H)}_{E^{(1)}}$$
(1.6.22)

$$+\lambda_{H}(1-\lambda_{H})\underbrace{\left(\mathbb{I}_{N}\otimes E_{H}\right)\cdot P\cdot\left(\mathbb{I}_{N}\otimes \frac{J_{D}}{D}\right)}_{E^{(2)}}$$
(1.6.23)

$$+\lambda_{H}^{2} \cdot \underbrace{(\mathbb{I}_{N} \otimes E_{H}) \cdot P \cdot (\mathbb{I}_{N} \otimes E_{H})}_{E^{(3)}}$$

$$\tag{1.6.24}$$

$$= (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \left(\mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} \right) P \left(\mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} \right) + \underbrace{(1 - \lambda_H) \lambda_H E^{(1)} + \lambda_H (1 - \lambda_H) E^{(2)} + \lambda_H^2 E^{(3)}}_{E^{(4)}}$$
 (1.6.25)

Here, $||E^{(1)}||$, $||E^{(2)}||$, $||E^{(3)}|| \le 1$ by applying Lemma 1.5 multiple times. I present the proof for $||E^{(1)}|| \le 1$ here.

$$||E^{(1)}|| = \left| \left(\mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} \right) \cdot P \cdot (\mathbb{I}_N \otimes E_H) \right|$$
 (1.6.26)

$$\leq \left\| \mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} \right\| \cdot \|P\| \cdot \|\mathbb{I}_N \otimes E_H\| \tag{1.6.27}$$

$$\leq 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \tag{1.6.28}$$

$$\leq 1\tag{1.6.29}$$

Then,

$$||E^{(4)}|| \le ||(1 - \lambda_H)\lambda_H + \lambda_H(1 - \lambda_H) + \lambda_H^2||$$
 (1.6.30)

$$= (1 - \lambda_H)\lambda_H + \lambda_H(1 - \lambda_H) + \lambda_H^2 \tag{1.6.31}$$

$$=2\lambda_H(1-\lambda_H)+\lambda_H^2\tag{1.6.32}$$

$$=1-(1-\lambda_H)^2\tag{1.6.33}$$

Summary of Above

$$M_F = (\mathbb{I}_N \otimes M_H) \cdot P_G \cdot (\mathbb{I}_N \otimes M_H) \tag{1.6.34}$$

$$= (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \underbrace{\left(\mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D}\right) \cdot P \cdot \left(\mathbb{I}_N \otimes \frac{J_D}{D}\right)}_{q} + E^{(4)}$$
 (1.6.35)

where

$$||E^{(4)}|| \le 1 - (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \tag{1.6.36}$$

We can massage and transform this result with

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{D^2} (\mathbb{I}_N \otimes J_D) \cdot P \cdot (\mathbb{I}_N \otimes J_D)$$
 (1.6.37)

$$=\frac{1}{D^2}\cdot A_G\otimes J_D\tag{1.6.38}$$

$$=\frac{A_G}{D}\otimes\frac{J_D}{D}\tag{1.6.39}$$

$$=M_G\otimes \frac{J_D}{D} \tag{1.6.40}$$

and plug back into Eq. 1.6.35 to get

$$M_F = (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \left(M_G \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} \right) + E^{(4)}$$
 (1.6.41)

Recall from Lemma 1.4 that

$$M_G = (1 - \lambda_G) \cdot \frac{J_N}{N} + \lambda_G \cdot E_G$$
 where $||E_G|| \le 1$ (1.6.42)

plugging this back into Equation 1.6.41, we get

$$M_F = (1 - \lambda_H)^2 (1 - \lambda_G) \left(\frac{J_N \otimes J_D}{ND} \right) + (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \cdot \lambda_G \left(E_G \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} \right) + E^{(4)}$$
 (1.6.43)

$$= (1 - \lambda_H)^2 (1 - \lambda_G) \frac{J_{ND}}{ND} + \underbrace{(1 - \lambda_H)^2 \cdot \lambda_G \cdot \left(E_G \otimes \frac{J_D}{D} \right) + E^{(4)}}_{E^{(5)}}$$
(1.6.44)

We can quantify $||E^{(5)}||$ as

$$||E^{(5)}|| \le (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \cdot \lambda_G \cdot ||E_G \otimes \frac{J_D}{D}|| + ||E^{(4)}||$$
 (1.6.45)

$$\leq (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \cdot \lambda_G \cdot 1 + 1 - (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \tag{1.6.46}$$

$$= 1 - (1 - \lambda_G) \cdot (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \tag{1.6.47}$$

Summary of Above

$$M_F = (1 - \mu) \cdot \frac{J_{ND}}{ND} + E^{(5)}$$
 where $||E^{(5)}|| \le 1 - (1 - \lambda_G) \cdot (1 - \lambda_H)^2$ (1.6.48)

i.e., the second largest eigenvalue of M_F is at most $1-(1-\lambda_G)\cdot(1-\lambda_H)^2$ (by Lemma 1.4).

This concludes the proof.

1.7 Undirected s-t Connectivity in Log Space

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Algorithm 1.5: USTCONN Log Space

This is a four step procedure, with input G = (V, E) and two nodes s, t in the graph. We wish to output if s, t are connected with each other.

• Step 1. Transform

$$(G, s, t) \rightsquigarrow (G_0, s_0, t_0) \tag{1.7.1}$$

where G_0 is a B^2 regular graph, for some constant B.

- **Step 2.** Fix H, a $(B^4, B, 1/4)$ graph.
- **Step 3.** For $k \leftarrow 1, ..., L$, compute bc

$$G_k = G_{k-1}^2 \textcircled{2} H (1.7.2)$$

• **Step 4.** Solve s_L , t_L connectivity on G_L by path enumeration.

1.7.2 Path Enumeration Path Length Analysis

Let λ_k denote the second largest eigenvalue of a connected component of G_k . We know from Thm. 1.2 that

$$\lambda_k \le 1 - (1 - \lambda_H)^2 \cdot (1 - \lambda_{k-1}^2)$$
 (1.7.3)

^aFor example, we have the power to transform any graph into a 4-regular graph using the algorithm detailed previously.

^bInvariant: G_k is always a B^2 regular graph.

^cRemark: $|G_k| = N \cdot B^{4k}$. We than think of vertices in G_k as $\bar{v} \equiv (v, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k)$ where v is a vertex in G_0 and a is a vertex name in H.

where we have λ_{k-1}^2 because $G_k = G_{k-1}^2$ $\supseteq H$. By assumption on H that $\lambda_H \leq 1/4$),

$$\lambda_k \le 1 - \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 \cdot (1 - \lambda_{k-1}^2)$$
 (1.7.4)

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 (1 - \lambda_{k-1}^2) \le 1 - \lambda_k \tag{1.7.5}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\left(\frac{3}{4} \right) \cdot (1 + \lambda_{k-1}) \right) (1 - \lambda_{k-1}) \le (1 - \lambda_k) \tag{1.7.6}$$

$$\implies (1 - \lambda_k) \ge \min\left(\frac{1}{18}, \frac{35}{32}(1 - \lambda_{k-1})\right) \tag{1.7.7}$$

Proposition 1.18

If $L = O(\log N_0)$, then we will have

$$1 - \lambda_L \ge \frac{1}{18} \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \lambda_L \le \frac{17}{18} \tag{1.7.8}$$

Proposition 1.19

Path enumeration on G_L results in paths of length

$$\Delta = O\left(\log_{\frac{1}{\lambda_L}} N_L\right) = O\left(\log N_0\right) \tag{1.7.9}$$

Proof: By invariant stated above,

$$N_L = N_0 \cdot B^{4L} \tag{1.7.10}$$

then the path length bound becomes

$$\log_{\frac{1}{\lambda_{T}}} N_{L} \le \log_{\frac{18}{17}} N_{L} \le \mathcal{O}(\log N_{0}) + (L) \tag{1.7.11}$$

1.7.3 Space Complexity

Input We are given the raw input graph G_0 , original source and target s_0 , t_0 . Recall from earlier that we can label vertices in G_L as

$$(v \in G_0, a_1 \in V_H, a_2 \in V_H, \dots, a_L \in V_H)$$
 (1.7.12)

which is a path that we took from a vertex in G_0 via a series of steps labeled with vertices in H.

Goal Given a sequence of edge labels in G_L , $(e_1, e_2, ..., e_{\Delta})$ we have to check where we end in G_L .

Idea Recall that the original goal is to compute this query space efficiently. In particular, that means we don't have the luxury of computing out the entire G_L graph. We can instead compute the rotation maps

$$Rot_{G_k} : [N_k] \times [B^2] \to [N_k] \times [B^2]$$
 (1.7.13)

recursively, following $G_k = G_{k-1}^2 \textcircled{z} H$.

Recursive Computation Suppose we are to compute

$$Rot_{G_k}((v, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k), e \in [B^2])$$
 (1.7.14)

given $Rot_{G_{k-1}}$. We can compute $Rot_{G_{k-1}^2 \textcircled{\mathbb{Z}} H}$ using the steps outlined in Definition 1.13. Unwinding,

$$Rot_{G_{k-1}^2}(\bar{v},(f_1,f_2)) = Rot_{G_{k-1}}(Rot_{G_{k-1}}(\bar{v},f_1),f_2)$$
(1.7.15)

where f_1 , f_2 are edge labels in G_{k-1} .

Space Complexity With some careful book keeping, we can implement the recursive procedure outlined above with a total of

$$O(\log N) \tag{1.7.16}$$

extra memory.

1.8 Expander Graphs

Definition 1.15: Spectral Expander

A *D*-regular graph is a λ -expander if *G* is a (N, D, λ) -graph.

Example Suppose that we have a $(N=10^6, D=10, \lambda \le 1/2)$ -graph. Then, every two nodes in this graph are connected by a path of length $\le \log D \log_{1/\lambda} N = \log 10 \log_2 10^6 \le 24$.

Proposition 1.20: Expander Graphs Properties

If $\lambda \leq \frac{1}{2}$, then for any set of nodes S in this expander graph , the number of edges between S and S is such that

$$E(S,\bar{S}) \ge \Omega(1) \cdot |S| \tag{1.8.1}$$

Definition 1.16: Expander Graph Intuitively

Expander Graphs = extremely well-connected graphs with few edges.

1.8.1 History of Expander Graphs

The guiding question can be summarized as follows: (with example D and λ values Given N, degree D=4 and $\lambda=0.9$. Can we find a (M,D,λ) -graph where $M\in(N,20)$.

...

Chapter 2

Sensitivity Conjecture

2.1 Classic Combinatorial Measures

Consider a family of functions with signature

$$f: \{0,1\} \equiv \{1,-1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$$
 (2.1.1)

the question is then how can we measure the complexity of f.

2.1.1 Decision-Tree Complexity

Definition 2.1: Decision Tree Complexity

DT(f) is the min-depth of a decision tree that computes f.

As two easy examples,

$$DT(\lor) = n$$
 and $DT(\land) = n$ (2.1.2)

for $f = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$. Examples here are such that they can be of linear depth or logarithmic. Regardless, these trees depend on all input bits for computation.

2.1.2 Certificate Complexity

Definition 2.2: Certificate Complexity

For a specific input

$$CC(f, x) = \min\{|S| : S \text{ is a certificate of } x\}$$
 (2.1.3)

where we say $S \subseteq [n]$ is a certificate for f at x if all inputs that agree with x on S have same f value. Then, for functions, we take

$$CC(f) = \max_{x} CC(f, x) \tag{2.1.4}$$

Example Consider $f = \Lambda$. Then $CC(\Lambda, x) = 1$ except for when x = (1, ..., 1) where

$$CC(\wedge, (1, \dots, 1)) = n \tag{2.1.5}$$

Thus,

$$CC(\wedge) = n \tag{2.1.6}$$

Proposition 2.1

$$CC(f) \le DT(f)$$
 (2.1.7)

Example For the majority operation, $MAT_3: \{0,1\}^3 \rightarrow \{0,1\}$. Then, $DT(MAT_3)=3$ and $CC(MAT_3)=2$.

Proposition 2.2

$$DT(f) \le CC(f)^2 \tag{2.1.8}$$

Definition 2.3: Sensitivity

S(f,x) = # of neighbors y of x with $f(y) \neq f(x)$. Where 'neighbors' mean that y and x differs in exactly one bit. Then, as expected

$$S(f) = \max_{x} S(f, x) \tag{2.1.9}$$

Definition 2.4: Hyper Cube

A hyper cube H_n has (bit strings) vertices $\{0,1\}^n$. Two vertices are adjacent if they differ in exactly one coordinate. A hypercube is a regular graph with degree n.

Definition 2.5: Sensitivity with Hyper Cube

With help of hyper cube, sensitivity = \max over all vertices x, # neighbors of opposite color.

Proposition 2.3: Function as Polynomial

For any function $f(x_1,...,x_n): \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$, there exists a equivalent representation

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} C_I \prod_{i \in I} x_i$$
(2.1.10)

Definition 2.6: Degree

$$degree(f): f: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$$
 (2.1.11)

is equal to the degree of the polynomial representing f, i.e.

$$\max\{|I|: C_I \neq 0\} \tag{2.1.12}$$

Examples

- \wedge_n , $degree(\wedge_n) = n$ since $\wedge_n = x_1 \cdot x_2 \dots x_n$
- \vee_n , $degree(\vee_n) = n$ since

$$\forall_n = \neg(\land(\neg x_1, \dots, \neg x_n)) \tag{2.1.13}$$

$$= 1 - (1 - x_1)(1 - x_2) \dots (1 - x_n)$$
 (2.1.14)

Proposition 2.4

Degree and decision tree depth for a function $f: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ satisfies

$$degree(f) \le DT(f) \tag{2.1.15}$$

Proof: We can write the function as a decision tree, then

$$f(x) = \sum_{\ell \in L} (\text{if } x \text{ leads to } \ell) \cdot (\ell.\text{output})$$
 (2.1.16)

where L is the set of all leaves in the decision tree. Then,

$$f(x) = \sum_{\ell \in I} (x_{i1} == a_1)(x_{i2} == a_2) \dots (x_{id} == a_d) \cdot (\ell.\text{output})$$
 (2.1.17)

$$= \sum_{\ell \in I} \left(a_1 x_{i1} + (1 - a_1)(1 - x_{i1}) \right) \dots \left(dx_{id} + (1 - a_d)(1 - x_{id}) \right) \tag{2.1.18}$$

$$\Rightarrow degree(f) \le DT(f)$$
 (2.1.19)

Proposition 2.5: Summary

$$\frac{S(f) \le CC(f)}{degree(f)} \le DT(f) \le CC(f)^2$$
 (2.1.20)

Note that here we don't know how degree(f) relates to things on the left. This is called sensitivity conjecture.

Theorem 2.1

degree(f), DT(f), CC(f), RDT(f), QDT(f) are all within polynomial factors of each other.

$$DT(f) \le CC(f)^{2}$$

$$degree(f) \le CC(f)^{C_{1}}$$

$$DT(f) \le degree(f)^{C_{2}}$$

$$(2.1.21)$$

2.2 Sensitivity Conjecture

Proposition 2.6: Sensitivity Conjecture (Nisan-Szegedy, 1989)

$$S(f) \ge degree(f)^{C_1}, \quad C_1 \in \mathbb{R}$$
 (2.2.1)

or equivalently,

$$S(f) \ge DT(f)^{C_2}, \quad C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$
 (2.2.2)

Theorem 2.2: Hao Huang, 2019

$$degree(f) \le S(f)^2 \tag{2.2.3}$$

Theorem 2.3: Graph Conjecture Equivalence (Gotsman-Linial, 1992)

Statement If for every subgraph of H of H_n of $2^{n-1} + 1$ vertices,

$$\Delta(H) \ge g(n) \implies \forall f, S(f) \ge g(degree(f))$$
 (2.2.4)

where $\Delta(H)$ for a graph H is equal to the max degree of any vertex in H.

Equivalence Sensitivity Conjecture (1989) is equivalent to "Graph Conjecture" proposed by Gotsman-Linial (1992). Huang proved this graph conjecture in 2019.

Proof: [TODO] will be added later

Theorem 2.4: Hao Huang, 2019

^aWe will use this meaning of Δ through out this chapter.

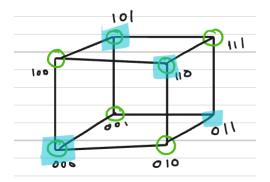


Figure 2.1: N3 Parity Sub-graph.

For any subgraph H of H_n of $\geq 2^{n-1} + 1$ vertices has

$$\Delta(H) \ge \sqrt{n} \tag{2.2.5}$$

The extra "+1" part in the formulation plays a significant role. As an example, consider H = the subgraph with vertices

$$\{x \mid parity(x) = 0\} \tag{2.2.6}$$

If $|H| = 2^{n-1}$, i.e. exactly half of the graph, then in this case we can construct $\Delta(H) = 0$. See Figure 2.1 for an example.

Proposition 2.7: Observation 1

Take any graph G, let A_G be its adjacency matrix. Then, a

$$\Delta(G) \ge |\lambda_1(A_G)| \tag{2.2.7}$$

Recall that if A_G was regular, we showed that largest eigenvalue = degree of the graph.

^aHere $\lambda_1(G)$ = largest eigenvalue in magnitude.

Proof: Suppose $A_G \mathbf{v} = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}$. Let v_{i^*} be the largest entry of \mathbf{v} in absolute value.

$$|\lambda_i||v_{i^*}| = \left|\sum_{i=1}^n A_{i^*j} \cdot v_j\right| \tag{2.2.8}$$

$$\leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} |A_{i^*j}| \cdot |v_j| \tag{2.2.9}$$

$$\leq \sum_{j:A_{i^*j}\neq 0} |v_j| \tag{2.2.10}$$

$$\leq \sum_{j:A_{i^*j}\neq 0} |v_{i^*}| \tag{2.2.11}$$

$$= degree(i^*) \cdot |v_{i^*}| \tag{2.2.12}$$

i.e., $|\lambda_1| \le degree(i^*)$ as wanted.

Definition 2.7: Signed-Adjacency Matrix

A matrix "B" is called a *signing* of a graph *G* if

$$B_{ij} = (i,j) \text{ edge } ? \in \{0,1\} : 0$$
 (2.2.13)

Proposition 2.8: Observation 2

Take any graph *G*, let *B* be a signed adjacency matrix of *G*. Then,

$$\Delta(G) \ge |\lambda_1(B)| \tag{2.2.14}$$

Theorem 2.5: Cauchy-Interlacing Theorem

For a symmetric matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, with eigenvalues

$$\lambda_1(M) \ge \lambda_2(M) \ge \lambda_3(M) \ge \dots \ge \lambda_N(M)$$
 (2.2.15)

its sub-matrix M_{-1} is a $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix with interlacing eigenvalues

$$\lambda_i(M) \ge \lambda_i(M_{-1}) \ge \lambda_{i+1}(M) \tag{2.2.16}$$