Polynomial Identity Testing

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Outline

Matrix Product Verification

Verifying Matrix Product

Input: Three $n \times n$ real matrices A, B and C.
Output: Is $C = AB$?

1st Approach: Evaluate AB and compare with C.
- Requires computation of AB
- Time Complexity: $O(n^3), O(n^{\log_2 7}), \ldots$

2nd Approach: Find almost the right answer

Randomized algorithm for matrix product testing

Step 1: Compute a (uniformly at) random Boolean vector r of dimension n.

Step 2: Compute $A(Br)$ and Cr

Step3: If $A(Br) \neq Cr$, report $AB \neq C$,
Otherwise, report $AB = C$

Analysis of Randomized Algorithm

Time Complexity:

Computation of the product of $n \times n$ matrix with a vector of size n takes $\Theta(n^2)$ time.

Thus,
- Computation of Br takes $O(n^2)$ time resulting in a vector of size n
- Computation of $A(Br)$ takes $O(n^2)$ time
- Computation of Cr takes $O(n^2)$ time
- Testing $Cr = A(Br)$ takes $O(n)$ time.

Total Complexity = $O(n^2)$

Correctness

- If $ABr \neq Cr \implies AB \neq C$.

- But if $ABr = Cr$, AB may or may not be equal to C.
(algorithm incurs one-sided error)

Bounding Failure Probability

One-sided error

Let r be a (uniform) random n-dimensional Boolean vector and $C \neq AB$.
$Pr(ABr = Cr) \leq \frac{1}{2}$

Proof: Let $D = C - AB$. Since $C \neq AB$, $D \neq 0$.
Moreover, since $ABr = Cr \implies (AB - C)r = 0 \implies Dr = 0$.
Since $D \neq 0$, there is an entry, say $d_{ij} \neq 0$.
Since $Dr = 0$, we have that $\sum_{k=1}^{n} d_{ik} r_k = 0$.

We can express $r_j = -\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{j-1} d_{ik} r_k + \sum_{k=j+1}^{n} d_{ik} r_k}{d_{ij}}$
Since only a specific value of r_j satisfies this equation, and we can choose r_j to be either 0 or 1 with equal probability, thus $Pr(Dr = 0) \leq \frac{1}{2}$.

□

To increase the success probability, we can run the experiment k times.
Error probability $\leq \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k$
Running Time = $O(kn^2)$

Polynomial Identity Testing

String Equality Testing

Alice-Bob String Testing Problem

Assume Alice has a binary string $A = a_1 a_2 \ldots a_n$ and Bob has a binary string $B = b_1 b_2 \ldots b_n$. What is minimum amount of communication required to test whether $A = B$?

Randomized Algorithm

Define $A(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x^i$ and $B(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i x^i$, where $x \in F$.
F is a Field defined with modular arithmetic for a large prime number p.

Algorithm:

1. Pick a random element $\alpha \in F$
2. Alice computes $A(\alpha)$ and sends $(\alpha, A(\alpha))$ to Bob
3. Bob computes $B(\alpha)$
4. Bob communicates to Alice True if $B(\alpha) = A(\alpha)$, else False

Analysis of Randomized Algorithm

Case I: $A = B$: Algorithms reports TRUE as $A(\alpha) = B(\alpha)$ no matter what is the value $\alpha \in F$

Case II: Assume $A \neq B$.

Can algorithm make an error?

Yes, if α is the root of the polynomial $(A - B)x = 0$.

Pr(a random element of F is root of $(A - B)x$) $\leq n/|F|$

Question: How to increase the success probability?

Communication Complexity: $O(\log |F|)$ bits.

Polynomials of degree d

Two polynomials $\mathcal{P}(x)$ and $\mathcal{Q}(x)$ of degree d.
Output: Is $\mathcal{P}(x) \equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$?

Example: Is $(2-x)(x-5)(x^2-12) = -x^4+7x^3+2x^2-84x+120$?

Answer: Expand and Check.
Alternatively, evaluate the polynomials at a random point in $\{1, \ldots, 100d\}$.

For example
$x = 20$, both of them evaluate to -104760.
$x = 29$, both of them evaluate to -537192

$\implies$ Check whether $\mathcal{P}(x) - \mathcal{Q}(x) = 0$?

Polynomials of degree d

Suppose $\mathcal{P}(x) \not\equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$.

For Example:

$\mathcal{P}(x) = 2x^4 - 20x^3 + 50x^2 - 80x + 21$

$\mathcal{Q}(x) = x^4 - 8x^3 + x^2 - 2x - 19$

$\mathcal{P}(x) - \mathcal{Q}(x) = (x-1)(x-2)(x-4)(x-5) \neq 0$

What is the probability that a random element $\alpha \in \{1, \ldots, 100d\}$ will satisfy $\mathcal{P}(\alpha) - \mathcal{Q}(\alpha) = 0$?

If the random element $\alpha \in \{1, 2, 4, 5\}$ than $\mathcal{P}(\alpha) - \mathcal{Q}(\alpha) = 0$.

Probability of making an error $\leq \frac{d}{100d} = \frac{4}{400} = 0.01$

$\implies$ Probability of determining that $\mathcal{P}(x) \not\equiv \mathcal{Q}(x) \geq 1 - 0.01 = 0.99$

How can we improve the probability of success?

Decreasing Failure Probability

If $\mathcal{P}(x) \not\equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$, probability of failure is $\leq \frac{d}{100d} = \frac{1}{100} = 0.01$

What if we repeat this experiment with multiple values of $\alpha \in \{1, \ldots, 100d\}$.

How to choose multiple values of α?

Choice 1: With replacement (same value may be chosen multiple times)

Choice 2: Without replacement (all chosen values are distinct)

With or Without Replacement Sampling

Decreasing Failure Probability - With Replacement

Consider repeating the experiment $k > 0$ times **with** replacement.
If in any of the trials we find that $\mathcal{P}(\alpha) - \mathcal{Q}(\alpha) \neq 0$, we report $\mathcal{P}(x) \not\equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$, otherwise we report $\mathcal{P}(x) \equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$.

Observe:
- If in any of the k trials, we find $\mathcal{P}(\alpha) - \mathcal{Q}(\alpha) \neq 0$, then for sure $\mathcal{P}(x) \not\equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$, and we answer correctly.

- Suppose, $\mathcal{P}(x) \not\equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$, but in each of the trials we find that $\mathcal{P}(\alpha) - \mathcal{Q}(\alpha) = 0$
Probability of making error $\leq \left(\frac{d}{100d}\right)^k = \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^k$.
For example with $k = 2$, the probability of error is $\leq 0.01^2 = 0.0001$

Decreasing Failure Probability - Without Replacement

Consider repeating the experiment $k > 0$ times **without** replacement.
If in any of the trials we find that $\mathcal{P}(\alpha) - \mathcal{Q}(\alpha) \neq 0$, we report $\mathcal{P}(x) \not\equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$, otherwise we report $\mathcal{P}(x) \equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$.

Observe:
- If in any of the k trials, we find $\mathcal{P}(\alpha) - \mathcal{Q}(\alpha) \neq 0$, then for sure $\mathcal{P}(x) \not\equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$, and we answer correctly.

- Suppose, $\mathcal{P}(x) \not\equiv \mathcal{Q}(x)$, but in each of the trials we find that $\mathcal{P}(\alpha) - \mathcal{Q}(\alpha) = 0$
Let us call events $E_1, \ldots, E_k$ be the k-events where event E_i states that the random number chosen in the i-th trial is a root of the polynomial $\mathcal{P}(x) - \mathcal{Q}(x)$.

Probability of getting a wrong answer is $Pr(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_k)$

Decreasing Failure Probability - Without Replacement (contd.)

Recall that $Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A|B) \cdot Pr(B)$, assuming $Pr(B) \neq 0$

$$
\begin{aligned}
&Pr(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_k) \\
&= Pr(E_k | E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_{k-1}) \cdot Pr(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_{k-1}) \\
&= Pr(E_k | E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_{k-1}) \cdot Pr(E_{k-1} | E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_{k-2}) \cdot Pr(E_1 \cap \\
&E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_{k-2}) \\
&\ldots \\
&= Pr(E_1) \cdot Pr(E_1 | E_2) \cdot Pr(E_3 | E_1 \cap E_2) \cdots Pr(E_k | E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_{k-1})
\end{aligned}
$$

Question: How to bound $Pr(E_j | E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_{j-1})$?

We have already chosen $j-1$ roots for the events $E_1, \ldots, E_{j-1}$. Only $\leq d - (j-1)$ roots are remaining.

Probability of choosing one of the remaining roots (defining the event E_j)

$Pr(E_j | E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_{j-1}) \leq \frac{d-(j-1)}{100d-(j-1)} < \frac{d}{100d} = \frac{1}{100}$

Thus, $Pr(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_k) \leq \prod_{j=1}^{k} \frac{d-(j-1)}{100d-(j-1)} \leq \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^k$

Decreasing Failure Probability - Without Replacement (contd.)

For $k \geq 2$, $Pr(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \ldots \cap E_k) \leq \prod_{j=1}^{k} \frac{d-(j-1)}{100d-(j-1)} < \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^k$.

For example, for $k = 2$ and $d = 4$, the probability of error is
$\leq \left(\frac{4}{400}\right)\left(\frac{3}{399}\right) = 0.000075 < 0.01^2 (= 0.0001)$

Ideally we should use **without replacement** strategy, but
- Analysis is tedious.
- Bit complex to code

In practice, employ **with replacement** strategy
- Analysis is simpler
- Probability of making an error is still negligible
- Easier to code

Schwartz-Zippel Lemma

Multivariate Polynomials

Determine if the multivariate polynomial $\mathcal{Q}(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \equiv 0$?

Example I:

$$\mathcal{Q}(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (x_1^3 - x_2^2)(-x_1^2 - x_3^4)(x_4^3 - 2x_1x_2) \equiv 0$$

Example II:

$$\text{Det} \begin{vmatrix} x_1 - x_2^2 & x_3 - x_1 & x_4^2 & x_4 - x_1 \\ -x_2^4 & x_2 - x_4 & 2x_3 - 7x_1 & x_2^2 - x_3^2 \\ x_1^3 & x_2 - x_1 & x_4 - x_3 & x_2^3 \\ x_2^3 & x_4 - 2x_2 & x_1 - x_3^2 & x_1^3 - x_2^3 \end{vmatrix} \equiv 0$$

Schwartz–Zippel Lemma

Schwartz–Zippel Lemma

Let $\mathcal{Q}(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \not\equiv 0$ be a multivariate polynomial of total degree d, where each x_i takes value from a finite field $\mathcal{F}$. Fix any finite set $S \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ and let $r_1, \ldots, r_n$ be chosen uniformly at random from S. Then $Pr(\mathcal{Q}(r_1, \ldots, r_n) = 0) \leq \frac{d}{|S|}$

Proof: Technique: Induction on number of variables n.
Base Case: $n = 1$. Degree d polynomial in a single variable x_1 has at most d distinct roots. Thus $Pr(\mathcal{Q}(x_1 = r_1) = 0) \leq \frac{d}{|S|}$, as this polynomial is zero only if r_1 is a root of $\mathcal{Q}$, where r_1 is a random element from S.

Assume the induction hypothesis holds for all polynomials of fewer than n-variables.

Observe that $\mathcal{Q}(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} x_1^i \mathcal{Q}_i(x_2, \ldots, x_n)$, where $k \leq d$ is the highest degree of x_1 in $\mathcal{Q}(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$. Note that $\mathcal{Q}_k(x_2, \ldots, x_n) \neq 0$ and moreover its degree is $d - k < d$.

Schwartz–Zippel Lemma (Proof contd.)

Thus, by setting $x_2 = r_2, \ldots, x_n = r_n$, and using I.H on $n-1$ variables, we have $Pr(\mathcal{Q}_k(r_2, \ldots, r_n) = 0) \leq \frac{d-k}{|S|}$

Assume that $\mathcal{Q}_k(r_2, \ldots, r_n) \neq 0$ and consider the single variable polynomial of degree k, $\mathcal{Q}(x_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n)$. By I.H. $Pr(\mathcal{Q}(x_1 = r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n) = 0) \leq \frac{k}{|S|}$.

Hence,

$Pr(\mathcal{Q}(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n) = 0) = Pr(\mathcal{Q}(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n) = 0 | Pr(\mathcal{Q}_k(r_2, \ldots, r_n) = 0) \times Pr(\mathcal{Q}_k(r_2, \ldots, r_n) = 0) + Pr(\mathcal{Q}(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n) = 0 | Pr(\mathcal{Q}_k(r_2, \ldots, r_n) \neq 0) \times Pr(\mathcal{Q}_k(r_2, \ldots, r_n) \neq 0)$

$Pr(\mathcal{Q}(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n) = 0) \leq 1 \times \frac{d-k}{|S|} + \frac{k}{|S|} \times 1 = \frac{d}{|S|}$

□

Testing Determinants

Is Det $\begin{vmatrix} x_1 - x_2^2 & x_3 - x_1 & x_4^2 & x_4 - x_1 \\ -x_2^4 & x_2 - x_4 & 2x_3 - 7x_1 & x_2^2 - x_3^2 \\ x_1^3 & x_2 - x_1 & x_4 - x_3 & x_2^3 \\ x_2^3 & x_4 - 2x_2 & x_1 - x_3^2 & x_1^3 - x_2^3 \end{vmatrix} \equiv 0$?

Choose a large enough prime number p, and choose random values for x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 from $\{0, \ldots, p-1\}$.

Evaluate the determinant.

Probability of one sided error $\leq \frac{d}{p}$,
where d is the degree of the polynomial.

Bipartite Matching

Bipartite Matching

Let $G = (U \cup V, E)$ be a bipartite graph, where $|U| = |V| = n$.

$M \subseteq E$ is a perfect matching if

1. $|M| = n$
2. Edges in M are independent, i.e. vertex disjoint.

Adjacency Matrix

Define $n \times n$ matrix A where,

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} x_{ij}, \text{ if } u_i v_j \in E \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & 0 \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & 0 \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & x_{33} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} \\ 0 & x_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & x_{32} & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

Determinant of Complete Bipartite Graphs

Consider $K_{3,3}$ and its Adjacency Matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & x_{33} \end{bmatrix}$

The terms in the determinant of A are

$x_{11}x_{22}x_{33}$

$x_{11}x_{23}x_{32}$

$x_{12}x_{21}x_{33}$

$x_{12}x_{23}x_{31}$

$x_{13}x_{21}x_{32}$

$x_{13}x_{22}x_{31}$

Observe that each (non-zero) term in the determinant corresponds to a perfect matching in the graph.

Edmonds Theorem

Edmonds

A bipartite graph G has a perfect matching if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.

Proof:

Assume $det(A) \neq 0$.

Consider any term in the determinant - it is of the form

$\Pi_{i=1}^{n} A_{i\sigma(i)} = A_{1\sigma(1)} A_{2\sigma(2)} \cdots A_{n\sigma(n)}$.

If $A_{1\sigma(1)} A_{2\sigma(2)} \cdots A_{n\sigma(n)} \neq 0$, it corresponds to the matching

$\{x_{1\sigma(1)}, x_{2\sigma(2)}, \ldots, x_{n\sigma(n)}\}$.

Suppose G has a perfect matching.

Let $\{x_{1\sigma(1)}, x_{2\sigma(2)}, \ldots, x_{n\sigma(n)}\}$ be a perfect matching in G.

The corresponding term $A_{1\sigma(1)} A_{2\sigma(2)} \cdots A_{n\sigma(n)} \neq 0$ in the determinant.

□

Decision Problem

Input: Given a bipartite graph $G = (U \cup V, E)$, where $|U| = |V|$

Output: TRUE if G has perfect matching, otherwise FALSE

Randomized Algorithm:

1. Choose a large enough prime number p.
2. For each edge $u_i v_j$, set x_{ij} to be a random value in $\{0, \ldots, p-1\}$ uniformly at random.
3. Compute $det(A)$
4. Return TRUE iff $det(A) \neq 0$.

Analysis

1. Choose a large enough prime number.
2. For each edge $u_i v_j$, set x_{ij} to be a random value in $\{0, \ldots, p-1\}$ uniformly at random.
3. Compute $det(A)$
4. Return TRUE iff $det(A) \neq 0$.

Case 1: If G has no perfect matching $\implies$ $det(A) = 0$

Case 2: If G has perfect matching $\implies$ $det(A) \neq 0$ (Edmonds)

Degree of determinant polynomial is $\leq n = |U| = |V|$

Pr(det(A)=0 given that G has a perfect matching) $\leq n/p$ (Schwartz-Zippel)

Choose $p \approx 1000n$,
Probability of success $\geq 1 - 1/1000$

Finding a Perfect Matching

How to find a perfect matching

Isolation Lemma (MVV87)

Assume we have a set system $\mathcal{S}$ on a ground set of n elements. Assign weights to each element uniformly and at random from $\{1, 2, \ldots, 2n\}$. The probability that there is a unique minimum weight set in $\mathcal{S}$ is $\geq \frac{1}{2}$

Example: Let $GS = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$, and assume random weights assigned to the elements are $a = 2$, $b = 7$, $c = 3$, $d = 6$, $e = 2$. Let $\mathcal{S} = \{\{a, b\}, \{a, b, d\}, \{a, e\}, \{b, d, e\}, \{b, d\}, \{d, e\}, \{a, d\}\}$.

Sets	Weights
$\{a, b\}$	9
$\{a, b, d\}$	15
$\{a, e\}$	4
$\{b, d, e\}$	15
$\{b, d\}$	13
$\{d, e\}$	8
$\{a, d\}$	8

Remarks on Isolation Lemma

This result is counterintuitive:

- There are $\approx 2^n$ possible subsets on n-elements.
- The weight of any non-empty set $X \in \mathcal{S}$ is in the range $1 \leq wt(X) \leq 2n^2$.
- We expect almost $\frac{2^n}{2n^2}$ sets for each weight
- Why with probability $\geq \frac{1}{2}$, minimum weight set is unique?

Proof of Isolation Lemma

This proof is credited to Joel Spencer - see wikipedia on Isolation Lemma.

For an element v, let $\mathcal{F}_v$ be sets in $\mathcal{S}$ that contains v and let $\mathcal{F}_{\bar{v}}$ be sets in $\mathcal{S}$ that do not contain v.

Let $\alpha(v) = \min_{A \in \mathcal{F}_{\bar{v}}} w(A) - \min_{B \in \mathcal{F}_v} w(B - \{v\})$.

Observation

$\alpha(v)$ depends only on the weights of all other elements except the weight of v.

$\implies Pr(\alpha(v) = w(v)) = \frac{1}{2n}$

Thus, for some element v of ground set $Pr(\alpha(v) = w(v)) \leq \frac{1}{2}$ (by Union Bound)

Proof of Isolation Lemma (contd.)

Assume that there are two distinct sets X and Y that have minimum weight in $\mathcal{F}$. Consider an element $v \in X \setminus Y$.

Now observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha(v) &= \min_{A \in \mathcal{F}_{\bar{v}}} w(A) - \min_{B \in \mathcal{F}_v} w(B - \{v\}) \\ &= w(Y) - w(X - \{v\}) \\ &= w(v) \end{aligned}$$

But this happens with probability at most $\frac{1}{2}$.
Thus with probability $\geq \frac{1}{2}$, the minimum weight set is unique.

□

Finding a Perfect Matching

- Let $G = (U \cup V, E)$ and $|E| = m$.
- Assume G has a perfect matching.
- For each edge $e \in E$, assign a weight in $\{1, \ldots, 2m\}$ uniformly at random.
- Let $\mathcal{M}$= Set system consisting of all perfect matchings
- Isolation Lemma: $\exists M \in \mathcal{M}$ of unique minimum weight with probability $\geq 1/2$.

New Problem

Find (unique) minimum weight perfect matching M in G

Unique MWPM

Let unique MWPM has a total weight $W \leq 2m^2$.
For each edge $e = (u_i v_j) \in E$ with weight $w(e)$,
set $x_{ij} = 2^{w(e)}$ in det(A).

Consider the non-zero terms in the expansion of $det(A)$.

Observation: Only one term is 2^W and all other terms are $\geq 2^{W+1} = 2 * 2^W$.

Unique MWPM (contd.)

Note:

$$\frac{det(A)}{2^k} = \begin{cases} \text{odd, if } k = W \\ \text{even, if } k < W \\ \text{fractional, if } k > W \end{cases}$$

Algorithm:

1. Find k: Guess k and check parity of $\frac{det(A)}{2^k}$
2. For each edge $e = (uv)$, it is in unique MWPM if and only if MWPM in $G \setminus \{u, v\}$ has weight $W - w(e)$.

Note: Computation of det(A), Guess & Check k, and Testing which edges of the graph are in a unique MWPM are parallelizable.

Matching in General Graphs

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a general graph.

Define

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} +x_{ij}, \text{ if } v_i v_j \in E \text{ and i<j} \\ -x_{ij}, \text{ if } v_i v_j \in E \text{ and i>j} \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Tutte

G has a perfect matching if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.

References

References

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