CS 466/666: Algorithm Design and Analysis
Lecture 20
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Instructor: Sepehr Assadi

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## Topics of this Lecture

1 Motivation ..... 1
1.1 Large Independent Sets in Bounded-Degree Graphs ..... 1
1.2 Coloring 3-Uniform Hypergraphs ..... 2
2 Lovász Local Lemma ..... 3
2.1 Application 1: Independent Sets in Bounded-Degree Graphs ..... 4
2.2 Application 2: Coloring 3-Uniform Hypergraphs ..... 4

## 1 Motivation

We have used the probabilistic method so far in the course multiple times: to show an object with certain properties exist, we show that there is a randomized process that generates it with a non-zero probability (or in expectation). However, in all the applications we have used so far, we in fact managed to show the object exist even with high probability: this somehow means that we were searching for a "hay in a haystack"! But, what if we are in a scenario that we are really searching for a "needle in a haystack"? Let us use a couple of simple examples to showcase such a scenario.

### 1.1 Large Independent Sets in Bounded-Degree Graphs

Let us consider two different statements about independent sets in graphs.
Statement 1: Suppose we have a graph $G=(V, E)$ with maximum degree $\Delta$. Prove that there is always an independent set of size at least $n /(\Delta+1)$ in $G$.

Proof. Pick $\pi$ to be a random permutation of vertices and let $S$ be the following independent set: iterate over vertices in the order of $\pi$, pick the first available vertex in $S$ and remove all its neighbors; continue like this until all vertices are either picked in $S$ or are removed. Clearly, $S$ is an independent set. Moreover, by linearity of expectation,

$$
\mathbb{E}|S|=\sum_{v \in V} \operatorname{Pr}(v \in S)=\sum_{v \in V} \operatorname{Pr}(\pi(v) \text { is the minimum } \pi \text {-value for }\{v\} \cup N(v))=n \cdot \frac{1}{\Delta+1}
$$

thus, there is always an independent set with the desired size.

Statement 2: Suppose we have a graph $G=(V, E)$ with maximum degree $\Delta$ with an arbitrary partitioning of vertices $V=V_{1} \sqcup V_{2} \sqcup \ldots \sqcup V_{r}$ in to $r$ sets of size $6 \Delta$. Prove that there is always an independent set in $G$ that picks exactly one vertex from each $V_{i}$.

Notice that this statement is qualitative generalization of the first one since it puts more structure on the independent set, although quantitatively it is a bit weaker because the independent set size we get here is only $n / 6 \Delta$. Let us see a proof attempt.

Proof Attempt? Suppose we pick one vertex uniformly at random from each $V_{i}$ to obtain a set $S$. What is the probability that $S$ is an independent set?

For a single edge $(u, v) \in V$, the probability that both $u$ and $v$ are also sampled is at most

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(\text { both } u \text { and } v \text { sampled in } S) \leqslant \frac{1}{(36 \Delta)^{2}}
$$

since each vertex is marginally sampled with probability at most $1 / 6 \Delta$ and if vertices are in two different $V_{i}$ 's they are independent, and if they are inside the same one, the probability is zero any way.

So, a single edge is "good"-i.e., does not violate independent set property-with a "good enough" probability, i.e., $1-\Theta\left(1 / \Delta^{2}\right)$. However, this is not good enough to do a union bound over all edges which are possibly $\Theta(n \Delta)$ many. So, this approach does not seem to be able to prove existence of the type of the independent set we want.

While our proof attempt for Statement 2 failed, we can also see that something went wrong with our analysis attempt and not necessarily with the randomized process we had. See the example below.


Figure 1: Consider the $r / 2$ edges above that do not share any layers with each other. The probability that each of them is "bad", i.e., has both its endpoints sampled in $S$ is $1 /(6 \Delta)^{2}$ as we calculated earlier. If we do a union bound, the probability that none of them is bad can only be bounded by $r / 2 \cdot 1 /\left(6 \Delta^{2}\right)$ which is much larger than one even! (when $\Delta \ll n / \Delta$ ). However, at least in this case, the probability that all of these edges are good is at least $\left(1-1 /\left(6 \Delta^{2}\right)\right)^{r / 2}>0$ since these edges are all independent.

As the above example suggests, we need a tool that can take into account the independence between the "bad" events better than just applying a union bound to them.

### 1.2 Coloring 3-Uniform Hypergraphs

Let us consider another example of the same flavor. A hypergraph $H=(V, E)$ over vertices $V$ is similar to a graph except that it has hyperedges that can connect more than 2 vertices together. I.e., each hyperedge is a set of vertices $\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{k}\right\} \subseteq V$. The degree of a vertex in a hypergraph is the number of hyperedges this vertex belongs to.

For any integer $k \geqslant 1$, a $k$-uniform hypergraph is a hypergraph wherein every hyperedge connects exactly $k$ distinct vertices together. So, a 'normal' graph is a 2-uniform hypergraph. We can extend the definition of vertex coloring to hypergraphs by defining a coloring to be proper as before if it does not create any monochromatic hyperedge: this means that in this coloring, not all vertices in the same hyperedge should receive the same color (but it is okay if more than one vertex receives the same color as long as at least two distinct colors appear on vertices of the hyperedge). Notice that this means coloring hypergraphs is "easier" than graphs in the sense that we may need fewer colors even.

Recall that every graph with maximum degree $\Delta$ can be colored with $\Delta+1$ colors. One can try to extend this to other $k$-uniform hypergraphs for $k>2$ as well. The following is an example:

Statement 3: Suppose we have a 3 -uniform hypergraph $H=(V, E)$ with maximum degree $\Delta$. Prove that $H$ can always be properly vertex colored with $O(\sqrt{\Delta})$ colors.

Proof Attempt? Suppose we color the vertices of $H$ randomly from a set of $4 \sqrt{\Delta}$ colors. What is the probability that this is a proper coloring?

For a single hyperedge $(u, v, w) \in V$, the probability that all endpoints are colored the same is

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(u, v, \text { and } w \text { are colored the same }) \leqslant \frac{1}{(4 \sqrt{\Delta})^{2}}=\frac{1}{16 \Delta}
$$

So, again, a single hyperedge is "good"-i.e., is not monochromatic-with a "good enough" probability, i.e., $1-\Theta(1 / \Delta)$. However, once again, this is not good enough to do a union bound over all hyperedge which are possibly $\Theta(n \Delta)$ many. So, this approach does not seem to work for us.

Yet again, the problem is in the union bound step even though clearly two hyperedge which are "very far" from each other in the graph-specifically, do not share any common vertices-have nothing to do with each other.

## 2 Lovász Local Lemma

With the above examples in mind, we can now present the statement of the Lovász Local Lemma (LLL), one of the strongest tools in the entire probabilistic methods literature, that precisely address the above scenarios.

Given a collection of "bad" events $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n}$, the dependency graph of these events is defined as follows: there is a vertex $i \in[n]$ for each event $B_{i}$. The neighbors of $i \in[n]$ are denoted by $N(i) \subseteq[n]$. The neighbors are defined such that for any $i \in[n]$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(B_{i} \mid \wedge_{j \in J} B_{j}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left(B_{i}\right) \quad \forall J \subseteq[n] \backslash(\{i\} \cup N(i)) ;
$$

in words, the bad event $B_{i}$ is mutually independent of any subset of other events except for its neighbors. In other words, regardless of what is happening to non-neighbors of $i$, the probability of $B_{i}$ happening is not going to change. The simplest form of LLL is the following:

Theorem 1 (Symmetric LLL). Suppose $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n}$ are a collection of events. If:

1. $\operatorname{Pr}\left(B_{i}\right) \leqslant p$ for every $i \in[n]$, for some $p \in(0,1)$;
2. and, the events admits a dependency graph with maximum degree $d \geqslant 1$,

Then, as long as

$$
e \cdot p \cdot(d+1) \leqslant 1
$$

the probability that none of $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n}$ happens is strictly more than zero.

Roughly speaking, Theorem 1 states that if the dependencies of our bad events to each other are small, say, $d$, then we can get away with bounding the probability of each bad event with roughly $1 / d$ (which is enough for union bound over $d$ neighbors of a single event but not the entire event-sets) instead of $1 / n$ which is needed for union bound.

Let us see how we can apply LLL to the scenarios of the previous section.

### 2.1 Application 1: Independent Sets in Bounded-Degree Graphs

Proposition 2. Suppose we have a graph $G=(V, E)$ with maximum degree $\Delta$ with an arbitrary partitioning of vertices $V=V_{1} \sqcup V_{2} \sqcup \ldots \sqcup V_{r}$ in to $r$ sets of size $6 \Delta$. Then, there is always an independent set in $G$ that picks exactly one vertex from each $V_{i}$.

Proof. We do the same exact strategy as our 'proof attempt' for statement 2 in the previous section. Suppose we pick one vertex uniformly at random from each $V_{i}$ to obtain a set $S$. For any edge $e=(u, v)$, define the bad event $B_{e}$ to be the event that both $u$ and $v$ are sampled. As calculated earlier,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(B_{e}\right) \leqslant \frac{1}{36 \Delta^{2}}:=p
$$

What is the degree of the dependency graph? Well, the edge $e=(u, v)$ can depend on the choice of all other edges that go out of the same level as $u$ or $v$ (because they share the 'same source of randomness' as the one that determines the status of $u$ and $v$ being in $S$ or not). Any other edge however is entirely independent. The total number of such edges is

$$
2 \cdot(6 \Delta \cdot \Delta)=12 \Delta^{2}
$$

Thus, the maximum degree $d$ of the dependency graph on $\left\{B_{e}\right\}_{e \in E}$ is at most $12 \Delta^{2}$, and hence

$$
p \cdot(d+1)=\frac{1}{36 \Delta^{2}} \cdot\left(12 \Delta^{2}+1\right)<\frac{1}{e}
$$

We can now apply LLL (Theorem 1) and obtain that the probability that none of $\left\{B_{e}\right\}_{e \in E}$ happens is more than zero. This means, at least one choice of $S$ leads to an independent set, which proves the original statement.

### 2.2 Application 2: Coloring 3-Uniform Hypergraphs

Proposition 3. Suppose we have a 3-uniform hypergraph $H=(V, E)$ with maximum degree $\Delta$. Then, $H$ can always be properly vertex colored with $\sqrt{3 e \cdot \Delta}$ colors

Proof. We do the same exact strategy as our 'proof attempt' for statement 3 in the previous section. Suppose we pick color each vertex uniformly at random from $\{1, \ldots, \sqrt{3 e \cdot \Delta}\}$. For any hyperedge $e=(u, v, w)$, define the bad event $B_{e}$ to be the event that all of $u, v, w$ are colored the same. As calculated earlier,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(B_{e}\right)=\frac{1}{(\sqrt{3 e \cdot \Delta})^{2}}=\frac{1}{3 e \cdot \Delta}:=p
$$

What is the degree of the dependency graph? The hyperedge $e=(u, v, w)$ can depend on the choice of all other hyperedges that share at least one vertex with $e$ which are at most $3 \cdot(\Delta-1)$ many (because they share the 'same source of randomness' as the one that determines the color of $u, v, w)$. Any other hyperedge however is entirely independent. Thus, the maximum degree $d$ of the dependency graph on $\left\{B_{e}\right\}_{e \in E}$ is at most $3 \Delta$, and hence

$$
p \cdot(d+1)=\frac{1}{3 e \Delta} \cdot(e \Delta) \leqslant \frac{1}{e}
$$

We can now apply LLL (Theorem 1) and obtain that the probability that none of $\left\{B_{e}\right\}_{e \in E}$ happens is more than zero. This means, at least one choice of the coloring leads to a proper vertex coloring, which proves the original statement.

