15-855: Intensive Intro to Complexity Theory Spring 2009

Lecture 24: Expander Graphs

Recall we always deal with connected, n-vertex, d-regular undirected graphs with self-loops and multiple edges allowed. Some basics of expanders to recall from last time:

Definition 0.1. We say G is an (n, d, ρ) -combinatorial expander if for all $S \subseteq V$ with $|S| \leq n/2$,

$$|E(S, \overline{S})| \ge \rho \cdot d|S|.$$

where $|E(S, \overline{S})|$ denotes the number of edges between S and its complement $\overline{S} = V \setminus S$.

Definition 0.2. (The MGG expander.) $V = \mathbb{Z}_m^2$, with (x,y) connected to $(x \pm y, y)$, $(x \pm y + 1, y)$, $(x, y \pm x)$, $(x, y \pm x + 1)$. This is an $(m^2, 8, \rho)$ -combinatorial expander for some explicit $\rho > 0$.

1 Random walks and error reduction

Perhaps the most useful fact about expanders is that random walks on them *mix fast*. I.e., if you start at any vertex and take a very short random walk, soon enough your position will be almost uniformly random. For example, we will see the following theorem:

Theorem 1.1. Let G be an (n, d, .01)-combinatorial expander. Let $B \subseteq V$ be a set of "bad" vertices with $|B| \le (1 - \delta)n$. Suppose we pick a random vertex $u_1 \in V$, then take t - 1 steps in a standard random walk: to u_2, u_3, \ldots, u_t . Then it's exponentially unlikely all u_i 's fall into B:

$$\Pr[u_i \in B \ \forall i \in [t]] \le (1 - .00001\delta)^t.$$

Let's see why this is useful in derandomization. Let $L \in \mathsf{RP}$. Perhaps the best algorithm A we know uses $\ell = \ell(n)$ random bits and has one-sided error $1 - \delta$; i.e., if $x \notin L$ then A always says No, if $x \in L$ then A says Yes with probability at least δ . Suppose we would like to get the error down to 1/2. The straightforward solution would be to repeat A for $O(1/\delta)$ times; this requires using $O(\ell/\delta)$ random bits. If random bits are precious, here is a better solution:

"Take" (implicitly) a strongly explicit (N, 8, .01)-combinatorial expander G (like the MGG one), where $N = 2^{\ell}$. We interpret the vertices V as strings in $\{0, 1\}^{\ell}$. We spend ℓ random bits to pick an initial random vertex r_1 . We then take a random walk r_2, \ldots, r_t of $t = O(1/\delta)$ steps. Note that this can be done with 3(t-1) random bits and $t \cdot \operatorname{polylog}(N) = t \cdot \operatorname{poly}(\ell)$ time, by strong explicitness; indeed $O(t \cdot \ell) = O(\ell/\delta)$ time for the MGG graphs. We run our algorithm with these random strings r_1, \ldots, r_t and accept if it ever accepts.

Total random bits used: $\ell + O(1/\delta)$, much better than $O(\ell/\delta)$.

¹This is a square if ℓ is even, which we can assume without loss of generality.

But why does this get the error down to 1/2? If $x \notin L$ the algorithm still says No. Otherwise, if $x \in L$, let $B \subseteq \{0,1\}^{\ell}$ be the random strings which cause A to say No. By assumption, $|B| \le (1-\delta)2^{\ell} = (1-\delta)L$. By the Theorem, the probability that all $r_1, \ldots, r_t \in B$ and hence the algorithm says No is at most $(1-.00001\delta)^t = (1-.00001\delta)^{O(1/\delta)} \le 1/2$, taking the $O(\cdot)$ constant large enough.

That's nice.

Exercise 1.2. Show how to efficiently find an n-bit prime who using O(n) random bits.

One can also get the same randomness reduction for BPP algorithms; i.e., two-sided error.

Now that we've shown an application, let's go back and prove some theorems.

2 Spectral analysis

We would like to analyze random walks on (regular) graphs. This may be more familiar to you as the analysis of Markov chains. The first step is to form the $n \times n$ transition matrix K:

$$K[i,j] = \frac{1}{d}A = \mathbf{Pr}[\text{going from vertex } i \text{ to vertex } j] = \begin{cases} 1/d & \text{if } (i,j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{else,} \end{cases}$$

where A is the adjacency matrix. Note that K is symmetric and doubly stochastic (all entries nonnegative, all row and column sums are 1). You can also easily see that

$$K^{t}[i, j] = \mathbf{Pr}[\text{walk of length } t \text{ starting at } i \text{ ends at } j].$$

Suppose π is a probability distribution on vertices; think of it as a row vector with nonnegative entries summing to 1. Suppose $u \sim \pi$ and then we take one random step. What is the resulting probability distribution? It's easily seen to be πK . In particular, if $\pi = [\frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{n} \cdots \frac{1}{n}]$ represents the uniform distribution, $\pi K = \pi$, since all column-sums in K are 1. We say that the uniform distribution is the *stationary distribution* for the random walk. We also prefer to work with column vectors from now on; since K is symmetric, we've just seen that $K\pi^{\top} = \pi^{\top}$.

We now take a detour to linear algebra, a topic we hope you remember. Because $K\pi^{\top} = 1 \cdot \pi^{\top}$, the vector π^{\top} is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 1. To study eigenvalues further, define the *Laplacian* matrix

$$L = id - K$$

The following identity is the key to several observations:

Exercise 2.1. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^V \cong \mathbb{R}^n$ be any vector, with coordinates indexed by the vertices. Then

$$x^{\top} L x = \frac{n}{2} \cdot \underset{(u,v) \ rand. \ edge}{\mathbf{E}} [(x[u] - x[v])^2]. \tag{1}$$

Since the RHS is always nonnegative, we conclude that L is a "positive semidefinite (PSD)" matrix. We now recall a fact from linear algebra:

Fact 2.2. Since L is PSD, it has n real, nonnegative eigenvalues, which we sort as

$$0 < \lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \cdots < \lambda_n$$

and a corresponding orthonormal basis of eigenvectors, ψ_1, \ldots, ψ_n .

Since K = id - L, we immediately conclude that ψ_1, \ldots, ψ_n are eigenvectors for K with eigenvalues

$$1 \ge \beta_1 \ge \beta_2 \ge \dots \ge \beta_n, \qquad \beta_i = 1 - \lambda_i.$$

Actually, we already saw $\beta_1 = 1$, with unit eigenvalue $\sqrt{n} \cdot \pi^\top$; i.e.,

$$\psi_1 = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \cdots \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right]^\top.$$

Since we're assuming G is connected, λ_2 must be strictly positive. This can be seen from (1): if x is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 0 then one sees that x must be constant on all connected components of G; hence x must be parallel to $[11 \cdots 1]^{\top}$. Hence:

$$\beta_2 < 1$$
.

Exercise 2.3. Show that $\beta_n \ge -1$ with equality iff G is bipartite. (Hint: consider id + K and get a + sign on the RHS of (1).)

Exercise 2.4. Form G' from G by making it "lazy": adding d self-loops to each vertex. The random walk on G' is like the one on G, except at each tick it stays put with probability 1/2. Show $\beta'_i = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\beta_i$, hence all β'_i are nonnegative.

We now come to an important definition:

Definition 2.5. The "second largest eigenvalue" is

$$\beta := \max\{\beta_2, |\beta_n|\};$$

i.e., the maximum of $|\beta_i|$ over all $i \neq 1$. This quantity is strictly less than 1 assuming G is not bipartite. $1 - \beta$ is called the "spectral gap".

The reason this parameter is key is as follows. From the eigenvector/eigenvalue decomposition of K, we have:

Fact 2.6. For any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the vector Kx is equal to $\beta_1 = 1$ times the projection of x on $\psi_1 = [\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \cdots \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}]$, plus β_2 times the projection of x on ψ_2 plus \cdots plus β_n times the projection of x on ψ_n .

In particular, the components of x orthogonal to $[11 \cdots 1]$ get contracted by a factor of β (or smaller).

3 Algebraic expanders

Why have we gone through all this eigenvalue analysis? The idea is that the second largest eigenvalue β gives an excellent measure of expansion for G.

Definition 3.1. We say G is an (n, d, ϵ) -algebraic expander if the second largest eigenvalue β is at most $1 - \epsilon$.

Proposition 3.2. If G is an (n, d, ϵ) -algebraic expander then it is an $(n, d, \epsilon/2)$ -combinatorial expander.

This is extremely useful: The reason is that it's in P to determine the algebraic expansion of a given graph (just compute eigenvalues) whereas it's known to be coNP-hard to certify the combinatorial expansion. For this reason, it's much easier to analyze and use the algebraic expansion of graphs. Indeed, the LPS and MGG expanders are proved via the algebraic definition.

Proof. Assume G is an (n, d, ϵ) -algebraic expander and let $S \subseteq V$ have $0 < |S| \le n/2$ (for |S| = 0 there's nothing to prove). Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^V$ be the 0-1 indicator of S. From (1) we have

$$x^{\top} L x = \frac{n}{2} \Pr_{(u,v) \text{ rand. edge}} [(u,v) \text{ cut by } S] = \frac{n}{2} \cdot \frac{|E(S,\overline{S})|}{dn/2} = \frac{|E(S,\overline{S})|}{d}.$$
 (2)

On the other hand, by the eigenvector/eigenvalue decomposition of L, writing x_i for the projection of x onto ψ_i , we have

$$x^{\top} L x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \|x_i\|_2^2 \ge \lambda_2 \sum_{i=2}^{n} \|x_i\|_2^2 = \lambda_2 (\|x\|_2^2 - \|x_1\|_2^2)$$
 (3)

Here we used $\lambda_1 = 0$ and "the Pythagorean Theorem" (orthonormality of ψ_i 's). Clearly

$$||x||_2^2 = |S|. (4)$$

And

$$||x_1||_2^2 = \langle x, \psi_1 \rangle^2 = \left(\sum_{v \in V} \frac{x[v]}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 = \frac{|S|^2}{n}.$$
 (5)

Combining (2), (3), (4), (5):

$$\frac{|E(S,\overline{S})|}{d} \ge \lambda_2 \left(|S| - \frac{|S|^2}{n} \right) = (1 - \beta_2) \frac{|S|(n - |S|)}{n},$$

hence

$$|E(S, \overline{S})| \ge (1 - \beta_2)d|S|(1 - |S|/n) \ge (1 - \beta)d|S|(1 - |S|/n).$$

The last factor here is at least 1/2 since $|S| \le n/2$, completing the proof.

There is also a reverse to this theorem, which we won't need, which is good because it's a bit trickier to prove:

Proposition 3.3. If G is an (n, d, ρ) -combinatorial expander then its β_2 is at most $1 - \rho^2/2$.

There is also an extension of Proposition 3.2 called:

The Expander Mixing Lemma: Let G be an (n, d, ϵ) -algebraic expander and let $S, T \subseteq V$. Then

$$\left| |E(S,T)| - \frac{d}{n}|S||T| \right| \le (1 - \epsilon)d\sqrt{|S||T|}.$$

Proof. Exercise. Mimic the proof of Proposition 3.2 but with $y^{\top}Lx$, where x is the indicator of S and y is the indicator of T.

Thus we see that expanders have nice "pseudorandomness" properties: the number of edges between S and T is close to "what you would expect" for a random d-regular graph.

Here's one more simple fact that follows from (1); every graph is at least "slightly expanding":

Proposition 3.4. Assume G is not bipartite. Then $\beta \leq 1 - \frac{1}{dn^2}$.

Proof. The result is not too hard; we leave it as an exercise to prove

$$\beta \le 1 - \Omega\left(\frac{1}{dn \operatorname{diam}(G)}\right).$$

The hint is to take x to be the second unit eigenvector in (1) and note that, since $x \perp \psi_1$, its coordinates sum to 0. Hence it has at least one component x[u] with $|x[u]| \geq 1/\sqrt{n}$, and at least one other component x[v] with the opposite sign to x[u]. Now consider a path from u to v...

4 Fast mixing

Here we'll see the first utility of studying eigenvalues:

Proposition 4.1. (Fast mixing.) Let G be an (n, d, ϵ) -algebraic expander. Suppose p is a probability distribution on V (thought of as a column vector); we start a random walk from distribution p and run it for t steps. Then the resulting distribution, K^tp , is very close to the uniform distribution $\pi = \left[\frac{1}{n} \cdots \frac{1}{n}\right]^\top$:

$$||K^t p - \pi||_2 \le (1 - \epsilon)^t.$$

Proof. Decompose p in the eigenvector decomposition as $p = \alpha \psi_1 + p'$, where $p' \perp \psi_1$. We have

$$\alpha = \langle p, \psi_1 \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{v} p[v] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}};$$

hence $\alpha \psi_1 = \pi$. Note also that $||p'||_2 \le ||p||_2 \le ||p||_1 = 1$. Thus

$$||K^t p - \pi||_2 = ||K^t p'||_2 \le \beta^t ||p'||_2 \le \beta^t = (1 - \epsilon)^t,$$

by definition of β .

Corollary 4.2. The diameter of G is at most $\lceil \frac{\ln n}{\epsilon} \rceil$.

I.e., good expanders have diameter $O(\log n)$. This will be key in the proof of $\mathsf{SL} = \mathsf{L}$.

Proof. Fix $u, v \in V$. Let p be the distribution with all its probability on u. Take $t \geq \frac{\ln n}{\epsilon}$ in the above proposition, so $(1 - \epsilon)^t < \exp(-\epsilon t) = 1/n$. It follows that $K^t p$ cannot have any zero components (else the 2-norm of the difference from π would be at least 1/n); in particular, its component on v is positive. Hence for a random walk of t steps starting at u, there is a positive probability of reaching v.

Exercise 4.3. Using Proposition 3.4 and the idea in the proof of Corollary 4.2, show USTCON is in RL. (This was discussed in Lecture 9.)

5 Proof of error-reduction by random walks

In this section we prove Theorem 1.1; more specifically, the more detailed version for algebraic expanders.

Theorem 5.1. Let G be an (n, d, ϵ) -algebraic expander. Let $B \subseteq V$ be a set of "bad" vertices with $|B| \leq (1 - \delta)n$. Suppose we pick a random vertex $u_1 \in V$, then take t - 1 steps in a standard random walk: to u_2, u_3, \ldots, u_t . Then it's exponentially unlikely all u_i 's fall into B:

$$\mathbf{Pr}[u_i \in B \ \forall i \in [t]] \le \sqrt{1 - \delta} \cdot (1 - \epsilon \delta)^t \le (1 - \epsilon \delta)^t. \tag{6}$$

Note that Theorem 5.1 implies the earlier Theorem 1.1, using Proposition 3.2.

Proof. Let P be the projection matrix which "zeroes out" components of a probability vector which are not in B: i.e., P[u, u] = 1 if $u \in B$, and all other entries are 0. We leave it as an exercise to check the following:

$$\mathbf{Pr}[u_i \in B \ \forall i \in [t]] = \| \overbrace{PK \cdots PKPK}^{t \text{ times}} P\pi \|_1,$$

where $\pi = \left[\frac{1}{n} \cdots \frac{1}{n}\right]^{\top}$ denotes the uniform distribution on vertices. Since $P^2 = P$, we can also write this as

$$||(PKP)^t P \pi||_1 \le \sqrt{n} \cdot ||(PKP)^t P \pi||_2$$

using Cauchy-Schwarz. Note that $||P\pi||_2 = \sqrt{(1-\delta)/n}$. Hence we can complete the proof by showing that the maximum eigenvalue (spectral norm) of PKP is at most $1-\epsilon\delta$. I.e., we want to show

$$\max_{\|x\|=1} x^{\top} P K P x \le 1 - \epsilon \delta. \tag{7}$$

Now given any unit $x \in \mathbb{R}^V$, write y = Px so that the LHS above is $y^\top Ky$. Write $y = y_1 + y'$, where y_1 is the projection of y onto ψ_1 and y' is the orthogonal component. By eigenvector/eigenvalue decomposition of K,

$$y^{\top} K y \le \|y_1\|_2^2 + (1 - \epsilon)(\|y\|_2^2 - \|y_1\|_2^2) = \epsilon \|y_1\|_2^2 + (1 - \epsilon)\|y\|_2^2.$$
 (8)

But

$$||y_1||_2^2 = \langle y, \psi_1 \rangle^2 = \langle y, P\psi_1 \rangle^2 \le ||y||_2^2 ||P\psi_1||_2^2 = (1 - \delta)||y||_2^2$$

where the second equality uses that y = Px, so in the inner product it doesn't hurt to replace ψ_1 by $P\psi_1$, the inequality is Cauchy-Schwarz, and the last equality is the definition of P and $\psi_1 = [\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \cdots \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}]^{\top}$. Hence (8) is at most

$$\epsilon(1-\delta)\|y\|_2^2 + (1-\epsilon)\|y\|_2^2 = (1-\epsilon\delta)\|y\|_2^2 \le (1-\epsilon\delta)\|x\|_2^2 = 1-\epsilon\delta,$$

where the inequality is because y = Px and P is a projection. This completes the proof.