

Lecture 7: ϵ -biased and almost k -wise independent spaces

Topics in Complexity Theory and Pseudorandomness (Spring 2013)

Rutgers University

Swastik Kopparty

Scribes: Ben Lund, Tim Naumovitz

Today we will see ϵ -biased spaces, almost k -wise independent spaces, and some applications.

1 Distributions

Let μ be a distribution on $\{0, 1\}^n$.

Lemma 1. μ is uniformly distributed on $\{0, 1\}^n$ iff for each nonempty $S \subseteq [n]$

$$\Pr_{x \in \mu} \left[\sum_{i \in S} x_i = 1 \right] = \frac{1}{2}$$

(where the addition is mod 2).

Proof. Let $\chi_S: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where

$$\chi_S(x) = (-1)^{\sum_{i \in S} x_i}.$$

$$\text{Thus: } \chi_S(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sum_{i \in S} x_i = 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } \sum_{i \in S} x_i = 1. \end{cases}$$

We can treat μ as a real valued function $\mu: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $\mu(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and $\sum_{x \in \{0, 1\}^n} \mu(x) = 1$.

For nonempty S , consider the inner product:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mu, \chi_S \rangle &= \sum_{x \in \{0, 1\}^n} \mu(x) \chi_S(x) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \{0, 1\}^n, \chi_S(x)=1} \mu(x) - \sum_{x \in \{0, 1\}^n, \chi_S(x)=0} \mu(x) \\ &= \Pr_{x \in \mu} \left[\sum_{i \in S} x_i = 0 \right] - \Pr_{x \in \mu} \left[\sum_{i \in S} x_i = 1 \right] = 0 \text{ (by our hypothesis)} \end{aligned}$$

Aside: Characters and Fourier analysis

The χ_S are called the characters of the group $(\mathbb{Z}_2^n, +)$.

We have the following important properties:

1. $\chi_S(x + y) = \chi_S(x) * \chi_S(y)$
2. For any nonempty S , we have $\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \chi_S(x) = 0$. This follows from the following calculation. Pick any $i \in S$. Then:

$$\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \chi_S(x) = - \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \chi_S(x + e_i) = - \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \chi_S(x),$$

where e_i is the 0-1 vector with 1 only in the i th coordinate.

3. Furthermore, $\chi_S(x) * \chi_T(x) = (-1)^{\sum_{i \in S} x_i + \sum_{i \in T} x_i} = (-1)^{\sum_{i \in S \Delta T} x_i} = \chi_{S \Delta T}(x)$. Sometimes we will also treat S, T as their characteristic vectors in \mathbb{Z}_2^n , and in this notation, $\chi_S(x) \cdot \chi_T(x) = \chi_{S+T}(x)$.
4. $\langle \chi_S, \chi_T \rangle = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \chi_S(x) \chi_T(x) = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \chi_{S \Delta T}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } S \neq T \neq \emptyset \\ 2^n & \text{if } S = T. \end{cases}$

This means that $\{\chi_S\}$ are an orthogonal system, and since there are 2^n of them, they are a basis for $\mathbb{R}^{\{0,1\}^n}$.

Let $\hat{\mu}(S) = \langle \mu, \chi_S \rangle$: the S^{th} Fourier coefficient of μ .

End Aside

Proof (continued) We have $\hat{\mu}(S) = 0$ for each nonempty S . Thus $\mu = \alpha * \chi_\emptyset$ for some α , and since μ is a distribution, we have $\mu = \frac{1}{2^n} \cdot \chi_\emptyset$, and this is the uniform distribution. \square

Lemma 2. Suppose that for all nonempty $S \subseteq [n]$,

$$\Pr_{x \in \mu} \left[\sum_{i \in S} x_i = 1 \right] \in ((1 - \epsilon)/2, (1 + \epsilon)/2).$$

Then μ is ϵ close to the uniform distribution in L_2 , and thus μ is $\epsilon 2^{n/2}$ close to the uniform distribution in L_1 and μ is ϵ close to the uniform distribution in L_∞ .

Proof. The hypothesis gives us that $|\hat{\mu}(S)| \leq \epsilon$
We also have $\hat{\mu}(\emptyset) = \langle \mu, \chi_\emptyset \rangle = 1$

Aside: Parseval's Identity

Lemma 3. Take any $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We have

$$f = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_S \langle f, \chi_S \rangle \cdot \chi_S = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_S \hat{f}(S) \cdot \chi_S.$$

Then

$$\sum_x f(x)^2 = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_S \hat{f}(S)^2$$

Proof. This follows from the orthogonality of the χ_S :

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_x f(x)^2 &= \langle f, f \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{4^n} \langle \sum_S \hat{f}(S) \chi_S, \sum_T \hat{f}(T) \chi_T \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{4^n} \sum_{S,T} \hat{f}(S) \hat{f}(T) \langle \chi_S, \chi_T \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_S \hat{f}(S)^2. \end{aligned}$$

□

End Aside

Proof (cont'd): Let $U = \chi_\emptyset * \frac{1}{2^n}$ be the uniform distribution.

We have $\hat{U}(\emptyset) = 1$, and $\hat{U}(S) = 0$ for all nonempty S . Thus $\mu - U$ (which is what we want to show is small in the L_2 norm), has the following Fourier coefficients:

$$\widehat{\mu - U}(S) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } S = \emptyset \\ \hat{\mu}(S) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Now using the Parseval identity, we get that

$$\|\mu - U\|_2^2 = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{S \neq \emptyset} \hat{\mu}(S)^2 \leq \frac{1}{2^n} \epsilon^2 (2^n - 1) \leq \epsilon^2.$$

This completes the proof, and the result for L_1 and L_∞ follow from Cauchy-Schwarz and trivially.

□

Thus if a distribution fools linear functions really well, it is almost uniform.

1.1 Notes on the L_1 distance

There are many distances between probability distributions. But the L_1 distance has special status when we are interested in pseudorandomness.

Lemma 4 (Data processing inequality). *Suppose μ, ν are distributions over the same domain D . Let f be a function defined on D . Pick $x \in \mu, y \in \nu$.*

$$\|f(x) - f(y)\|_{L_1} \leq \|\mu - \nu\|_{L_1}.$$

This is closely related to the following simple characterization of L_1 distance:

$\frac{1}{2} \|\mu - \nu\|_{L_1} \geq \epsilon$ if and only if there exists a distinguishing test $T : D \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ such that

$$\|T(\mu) - T(\nu)\|_{L_1} = \Pr_{x \in \mu}[T(x) = 1] - \Pr_{x \in \nu}[T(x) = 1] \geq \epsilon.$$

Sketch of Proof: Graph the distributions μ and ν over their domain (They have the same domain). $\frac{1}{2} \|\mu - \nu\|_{L_1}$ is the area between the curves where μ is above ν . Choose T to output 1 on sets where $\mu > \nu$. This gives us $\Pr_{x \in \mu}[D(x) = 1] - \Pr_{x \in \nu}[D(x) = 1]$ is the area between μ and ν on these sets, which is $\frac{1}{2} \|\mu - \nu\| \geq \epsilon$.

Relationship to pseudorandom generators When we studied PRGs, the goal was to find a simple μ s.t. \forall small circuits C ,

$$\Pr_{x \in \mu}[C(x) = 1] - \Pr_{x \in U}[C(x) = 1] \leq \epsilon.$$

The only difference between this condition and the condition for small L_1 distance is the complexity constraint that C is small. *THIS MAKES ALL THE DIFFERENCE IN THE WORLD!*

By the above discussion, we could try to show that μ is a PRG by showing the stronger condition that μ is ϵ -close to the uniform distribution in L_1 . This strengthening ruins the approach: there cannot be a μ which is generated using a small seed that is close to the uniform distribution in L_1 distance:

$$\|\mu - U\|_{L_1} \leq \epsilon \Rightarrow \text{support}(\mu) \geq (1 - \epsilon) \cdot 2^n.$$

Try to show this.

2 ϵ -biased distributions and k -wise independence

Definition 5. μ is ϵ -biased if for all nonempty $S \subseteq [n]$,

$$\Pr\left[\sum_{i \in S} x_i = 1\right] \in [(1 - \epsilon)/2, (1 + \epsilon)/2].$$

Note:

1. μ is 0-biased $\iff \mu$ is uniform.
2. ϵ -biased $\implies \mu$ is $(\epsilon, \epsilon 2^{n/2})$ -close to uniform in (L_2, L_1) .
3. ϵ -biased $\Leftarrow \mu$ is ϵ -close to uniform in L_1 .

When is μ k -wise independent?

μ is k -wise independent $\iff \forall S$ $1 \leq |S| \leq k$, we have $\hat{\mu}(S) = 0$.

Proof: (\implies) Take such an S . Since μ is k -wise independent, we have $\Pr_{x \in \mu}[\sum_{i \in S} x_i = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$. By definition of $\hat{\mu}$, this yields $\hat{\mu}(S) = 0$.

(\impliedby) Let S be as stated. Look at $\mu|_S$. $\forall T \subseteq S$, $T \neq \emptyset$, we know that $\Pr_{x \in \mu|_S}[\sum_{i \in S} x_i = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$, so $\hat{\mu}|_S(T) = 0$, meaning $\mu|_S$ is uniform. This implies that μ is k -wise independent. \square

When is δ -almost μ k -wise independent?

Suppose $\forall S \subseteq [n]$, $|S| \leq k$, $S \neq \emptyset$ we have $|\hat{\mu}(S)| \leq \epsilon$, then μ is δ -almost k -wise independent in L_1 for $\delta = \epsilon 2^{k/2}$.

Take any $S \subseteq [n]$ $|S| = k$. Look at $\nu = \mu|_S$, a distribution on $\{0, 1\}^S$. $\forall T \subseteq S$, since $\hat{\nu}(T) = \hat{\mu}(T)$, we have $|\hat{\nu}(T)| \leq \epsilon$. This implies that ν is $\epsilon \cdot 2^{k/2}$ close to uniform on $\{0, 1\}^S$.

How much randomness is needed to generate these spaces?

For k -wise independence: we saw that $k(\log n)$ bits suffices. In fact, $\Omega(k \log n)$ bits are needed (you will prove this in the homework).

For ϵ -biased spaces: First let us show that there exist “simple” ϵ -biased spaces; we will later see how to get them explicitly. We try to get an ϵ -biased μ which is uniform on some $K \subseteq \{0, 1\}^n$ with $|K|$ small. Then $\log |K|$ bits suffice to generate a sample from μ .

We use the probabilistic method: Choose K at random as follows: pick y_1, \dots, y_m in $\{0, 1\}^n$ uniformly. We want that for all linear functions $h : \mathbb{Z}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2$,

$$\Pr_{i \in [m]} [h(y_i) = 1] \in ((1 - \epsilon)/2, (1 + \epsilon)/2).$$

Fix h . Then:

$$\Pr_{y_1, \dots, y_m} [y_1, \dots, y_m \text{ are bad for } h] \leq e^{-\Omega(\epsilon^2 m)},$$

by a Chernoff bound (This is because for a random $y \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$, $\Pr[h(y) = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$).

We then union bound over all h to get

$$\Pr_{y_1, \dots, y_m} [\exists h : y_1, \dots, y_m \text{ are bad for } h] \leq 2^n \cdot e^{-\Omega(\epsilon^2 m)}.$$

Now choose $m = O(\frac{n}{\epsilon^2})$, so that this is less than 1. We thus get an ϵ -biased space which can be generated using $\log n + 2 \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} + O(1)$ bits of true randomness. It turns out that this seed length is near optimal. Later this class we will explicitly construct ϵ -biased spaces with seed length $O(\log n + \log \frac{1}{\epsilon})$.

For δ -almost k -wise independent spaces: We know that ϵ -biased spaces are automatically δ -almost k -wise independent for some δ . It turns out that this already gives us almost k -wise independent spaces using smaller seed length than what is needed for pure k -wise independence. Indeed, if we take $\epsilon = 2^{-k/2} \cdot \delta$ and take an explicit ϵ biased space as mentioned above, then this is δ -almost k -wise independent, and has a seed length of $O(\log n + \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}) = O(\log n + k + \log \frac{1}{\delta})$.

3 Efficient construction of δ -almost k -wise independent spaces

One way to get k -wise independence is to multiply a random seed y by a matrix M :

$$y \mapsto y^T M.$$

In this construction, y is a vector with $O(k \log n)$ elements chosen uniformly at random, and M has n columns. Each element of $y^T M$ is $\langle y, a_i \rangle$, where a_i is a column of M .

Claim: The output $y^T M$ will be k -wise independent if and only if every k rows of M are independent.

Proof: Let $S \subset [n]$. Suppose $\sum_{i \in S} \langle a_i, y \rangle$ is not uniformly distributed. This is equivalent to $\langle y, \sum_{i \in S} a_i \rangle$ is not uniformly distributed. But, this implies that $\sum_{i \in S} a_i = 0$, since $\langle y, b \rangle$ is uniform for any fixed $b \neq 0$.

Claim: If, instead of taking y from a uniformly random distribution, we take y from an ϵ -biased distribution, $y^T M$ will still be $\epsilon^{2^{k/2}}$ -almost k -wise independent.

Proof: Suppose not; then there exists $S \in [n], S \neq \emptyset, |S| \leq k$ such that $\text{bias}(\langle \sum_{i \in S} a_i, y \rangle) \geq \epsilon$. Since each set of k columns of M are independent, we know that $\sum_{i \in S} a_i \neq 0$. In addition, y is chosen from an ϵ -biased space. So, we've reached a contradiction.

How many bits of randomness will we need to generate an n bit sample from a δ -almost k -wise independent space using this procedure? We need a $\delta 2^{-k/2}$ -biased sample of length $O(k \log n)$. Since $\log m + 2 \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ bits of uniform randomness are needed for m bits of ϵ -biased randomness, we need $O(\log k + \log \log n) + O(\log(\frac{1}{\delta}) + k) = O(k + \log \log n + \log(\frac{1}{\delta}))$ total bits of randomness.

4 Applications of δ -almost k -wise independent distribution

4.1 k -universal sets

A k universal set $S \subseteq \{0, 1\}^n$ has the property that the projection of S onto any k indexes contains all 2^k possible patterns. We can use δ -almost k -wise independent distribution to construct k -universal sets. If $\delta = \frac{1}{10} \cdot \frac{1}{2^k}$, then any δ -almost k -wise independent distribution has k -universal support.

The size of the k -universal set we get out of this is $2^{O(k + \log \log n + \log(\frac{1}{\delta}))} = (2^k \cdot \log n)^{O(1)}$, and is nearly optimal. (Note the surprisingly tiny dependence on n !)

4.2 Ramsey graphs

Pick the edges $(x_{ij})_{i < j} \in \{0, 1\}^{\binom{n}{2}}$ from a δ -almost k -wise independent space; we can interpret $x_{ij} = 1$ as an edge between vertex i and vertex j , and $x_{ij} = 0$ as the absence of an edge. Fix $S \in [n], |S| = k$. By the data processing inequality,

$$\Pr[x_{ij} \text{ are all 0 or all 1 for all } i, j \in S] \leq 2 \cdot 2^{-\binom{k}{2}} + \delta.$$

Taking a union bound,

$$\Pr[\exists S, |S| = k, \text{ such that } S \text{ is a clique or independent set}] \leq \binom{n}{k} (2 \cdot 2^{-\binom{k}{2}} + \delta)$$

By setting $\delta = 2^{-\binom{k}{2}}$ and $n = 2^{k/10}$ in the above inequality, we ensure that the probability that there is a clique or independent set of size k is less than 1. Thus, we've described an explicit family of $2^{O(\log^2 n)}$ graphs on n vertices, at least one of which is $O(\log n)$ Ramsey. As a corollary, we can construct an $O(\log n)$ Ramsey graph in $2^{O(\log^2 n)}$ time.

5 Construction of ϵ -biased spaces

5.1 Finite extension field review

The construction described here will use the finite field \mathbb{F}_{2^n} . This is an n -dimensional vector space over \mathbb{F}_2 . Addition is the same as for \mathbb{F}_2^n ; multiplication is a bilinear map. A polynomial $P(x) \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}[x]$ of degree d has at most d roots.

5.2 Properties needed from an ϵ -biased space

Suppose $y_1 \dots y_m$ is an ϵ -biased space; let G be the n by m matrix with columns $y_1 \dots y_m$. Pick $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$. Consider $x^T G$. If $x \neq 0$, it must have $((1 - \epsilon)/2, (1 + \epsilon)/2)$ fraction of 1s. Pick any $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^n$, and consider the Hamming distance $\Delta(x^T G, y^T G)$; this is the number of 1s in $x^T G - y^T G = (x - y)^T G$, which is in the range $((1 - \epsilon)/2, (1 + \epsilon)/2)$. Thus, the image of $x^T G$ is a linear space in $\{0, 1\}^m$ of dimension n , such that any two vectors in the space have distance of $\frac{1}{2} \pm \epsilon/2$.

5.3 Construction and proof of correctness

A point from the ϵ -biased space is calculated from two uniformly chosen elements $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$. The point is calculated as

$$(\alpha, \beta) \mapsto [\langle 1, \beta \rangle, \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle, \dots, \langle \alpha^N, \beta \rangle].$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is the inner product over \mathbb{F}_2^n , when elements of \mathbb{F}_{2^n} are represented in some basis over \mathbb{F}_2 .

If N is set to $\epsilon 2^n$, then this construction needs $2 \log(N/\epsilon) = 2 \log N + 2 \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ bits of randomness.

We need to show that the sample space described is ϵ -biased. Pick (α, β) uniformly from \mathbb{F}_{2^n} , and take any $S \subseteq [N]$. We need to show that

$$\Pr_{\alpha, \beta} \left[\sum_{i \in S} \langle \alpha^i, \beta \rangle = 0 \right] \in ((1 - \epsilon)/2, (1 + \epsilon)/2).$$

We have $\sum_{i \in S} \langle \alpha^i, \beta \rangle = \langle \sum_{i \in S} \alpha^i, \beta \rangle$. There are two cases to consider; either α is a root of $P(x) = \sum_{i \in S} x^i$, or it is not. If α is not a root of $P(x)$, then $\Pr_{\beta} [\langle \sum_{i \in S} \alpha^i, \beta \rangle = 0] = \frac{1}{2}$. If α is a root of $P(x)$, then certainly $\langle \sum_{i \in S} \alpha^i, \beta \rangle = 0$. However, there are at most N roots of $P(x)$, so the probability that α is a root is at most $\frac{N}{2^n} = \epsilon$. Thus, the space is ϵ -biased.