Expander graphs

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 ... à l'expansion de mon cœur refoulé s'ouvrirent aussitôt des espaces infinis.
M. Proust, « À l'ombre des jeunes filles en fleurs", (second part, « Noms de Pays : le Pays")

Outline

- What is a graph?
- What are graphs useful for?
- Expansion in graphs
- Expander graphs
- Applications

A set of vertices;



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- And edges joining certain pairs of vertices;



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- Maybe with multiple edges;



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- And edges joining certain pairs of vertices;
- Maybe with multiple edges;
- Maybe with loops;
- Sometimes edges are oriented;
- And sometimes we add data to either vertices or edeges or both.





Parts of the tree of life; Source: Yifan Hu



Bullmore and Bassett, Annu. Rev. Clin. Psychol. 2011, 7:113-40



The nervous system of *Caenorhabditis Elegans* (302 neurons, about 8000 synapses), from White, Southgate, Thomson, Brenner (1986), updated and represented by Varshney, Chen, Paniagua, Hall, Chklovskii (2011)





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A "normal" family



A "normal" family



McCaslin family genealogy in "Go Down, Moses" (W. Faulkner); Source: J. Padgett



Source: A. Shamir, "Random graphs in cryptography"



Dynkin diagram of type E_8



Source: E. Szemerédi, "On sets of integers containing no k elements in arithmetic progression", Acta Arith. 1973



A Cayley graph

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Example 1. In a computer data structure, we organize objects (files, etc) linearly (as in an audio tape). The diameter is large: it is proportional to the number of vertices.

Example 2. If we can put objects in a tree-like configuration, the diameter is much smaller: it is proportional to the logarithm of the number of vertices.



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The diameter may be very small, if one is allowed to put many edges, as in a *complete graph*. But in practice, we often can not choose which graph to work with, or it could be that the "cost" of edges requires that we restrict their number.



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- (1) This graph is connected.
- (2) Its diameter is of order of magnitude n^2 .


Digression: what can diameter be useful for?

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ANALYSIS OF CASINO SHELF SHUFFLING MACHINES

BY PERSI DIACONIS¹, JASON FULMAN² AND SUSAN HOLMES³

Stanford University, University of Southern California and Stanford University

Many casinos routinely use mechanical card shuffling machines. We were asked to evaluate a new product, a shelf shuffler. This leads to new probability, new combinatorics and to some practical advice which was adopted by the manufacturer. The interplay between theory, computing, and realworld application is developed.

1. Introduction. We were contacted by a manufacturer of casino equipment to evaluate a new design for a casino card-shuffling machine. The machine, already built, was a sophisticated "shelf shuffler" consisting of an opaque box containing ten shelves. A deck of cards is dropped into the top of the box. An internal elevator moves the deck up and down within the box. Cards are sequentially dealt from the bottom of the deck onto the shelves; shelves are chosen uniformly at random at the command of a random number generator. Each card is randomly placed above or below previous cards on the shelf with probability 1/2. At the end, each shelf contains about 1/10 of the deck. The ten piles are now assembled into one pile, in random order. The manufacturer wanted to know if one pass through the machine would yield a well-shuffled deck.

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The "robustness" of a non-oriented graph, with vertex set $S \neq \emptyset$, is measured by its *Cheeger constant*:

$$h = \min_{\substack{X \subset S \\ 1 \leq |X| \leq |S|/2}} \frac{|\partial X|}{|X|},$$

where ∂X is the set of edges with one extremity exactly in X (and |A| is the number of elements of a finite set A).

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because the number of vertices at distance d from a fixed origin is at least

$$\min\left(\frac{|S|}{2},\left(1+\frac{h}{k}\right)^d\right).$$

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We notice that in each of these cases, h tends to 0 as the number of vertices tends to infinity.

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But do expanders exists? Or is just a castle in the sky?

 1973, L. A. Bassalygo et M.S. Pinsker, "On complexity of optimal non-blocking system without rearrangement" (Russian; Problemy Peredaci Informacii 9, 84–87).

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- ▶ 1973, G.A. Margulis, "Explicit constructions of expanders" (Russian, Problemy Peredaci Informacii 9, 71–80).

- [†]1967, Ya. M. Barzdin et A.N. Kolmogorov, "On the realization of networks in three-dimensional space" (Russian; Problemy Kibernetiki 19, 261–268).
- 1973, L. A. Bassalygo et M.S. Pinsker, "On complexity of optimal non-blocking system without rearrangement" (Russian; Problemy Peredaci Informacii 9, 84–87).
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 $^\dagger As$ note by L. Guth (2010); see L. Guth and M. Gromov, "Generalizations of the Kolmogorov-Barzdin embedding estimates", 2011.

Barzdin–Kolmogorov

11 ON THE REALIZATION OF NETWORKS IN THREE-DIMENSIONAL SPACE** (Jointly with Ya. M. Barzdin) By a (d,n)-network we shall mean a oriented graph with n numbered vertices $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ and dn marked edges such that precisely dedges are incident to each vertex and one of them is marked by the weight x_1 , another by the weight x_2 , etc., and finally this reason that the question of constructing such networks in ordinary three-dimensional space under the condition that the vertices are balls while the edges are tubes da certain poortive diameter in of importance.

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Remark. It is not always possible to represente a graph in the plane, but it is easy to convince oneself that this is possible in space.

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What is the meaning of Theorem 3?

Almost all graphs are expanders

Consider a "large" integer $n \ge 1$. We take the vertex set

$$S_n = \{(1,0),\ldots,(n,0),(1,1),\ldots,(n,1)\}.$$



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We construct a graph $\Gamma(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_4)$ by connected with an edge (i, 0) to $(\sigma_1(i), 1)$,



	1	2	3	4	5
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The Theorem means: there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\lim_{n \to +\infty} \frac{1}{(n!)^4} |\{(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_4) \mid h(\Gamma(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_4)) \geq \delta\}| = 1$$

The motivation of Barzdin and Kolmogorov

Barzdin indicates in the notes of the selected works of Kolmogorov:

Unfortunately, I do not remember what was the occasion or event at which Andrei Nikolayevich first mentioned these results (I was not present there). I know only that the topic discussed there was the explanation of the fact that the brain (...) is so constituted that the most of its mass is occupied by nerve fibers (axons), while the neurons are only disposed on its surface. The construction of Theorem 1 precisely confirms the optimality (in the sense of volume) of such a disposition of the neuron network.

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Valiant (1994–2005) has suggested possible algorithms to model realistically certain basic operations that must be performed by the brain; he observes that these methods require some expansion properties of the neuron network:

The property of expansion (...) is an archetypal such property. (This property, widely studied in computer science, was apparently first discussed in a neuroscience setting [BK].) The vicinal algorithms for the four tasks considered here need some such connectivity properties. In each case random graphs with appropriate realistic parameters have it, but pure randomness is not necessarily essential.

Bassalygo and Pinsker

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Proof o	of I	emma	1.							
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- Because this might be required in applications (to construct efficient networks, for instance).
- To understand the nature of the expansion property... In particular, to have methods to prove that certain *concretely given* graphs are expanders, or not.

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Margulis graphs. The set of vertices is $Z/nZ \times Z/nZ$ (hence there are n^2 vertices); edges connect (a, b) to the vertices

$$(a+b,b), (a-b,b), (a,b+a), (a,b-a), (a+b+1,b), (a-b+1,b), (a,b+a+1), (a,b-a+1),$$

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Example: for n = 5, the neighbors of (2, 3) are (0, 3), (4, 3), (2, 0), (2, 1), (1, 3), (0, 3), (2, 1), (2, 2).



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> Are there other remarkable properties or applications of expander graphs?

For a finite non-oriented graph Γ , with vertex set $S \neq \emptyset$, we define $C(\Gamma)$ to be the vector space of functions $f : S \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}$. It is a finite-dimensional space, and its dimension is equal to the number of vertices.

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Assuming the degree at each x is at least 1, we then consider the linear operator ("combinatorial" laplacian)

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defined by

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$$0 = \lambda_0 \leq \lambda_1 \leq \cdots \leq \lambda_{|S|-1}$$

the eigenvalues of Δ ("spectrum of the graph").

Exercise. The eigenvalue $\lambda_0 = 0$ is *simple*, or in other words, we have $\lambda_1 > 0$, *if and only if* Γ is connected.

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Using (fancy) numerical linear algebra, it is then possible to compute λ_1 , hence to estimate *h*, for very large graphs (up to a billion vertices).

Digression

▶ Why "laplacian"? If we have a function *f* of *C*³ class on **R**², a Taylor expansion shows that

$$\begin{aligned} -\Delta f(a,b) &= -\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a,b) - \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(a,b) \\ &= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h^2} \left(f(a,b) - \frac{1}{4} (f(a+h,b) + f(a-h,b) + f(a,b+h)) \right) \end{aligned}$$

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The spectrum of the Laplace operator has many other applications; for instance, if the graph is regular of degree k, the number of *triangles* in the graph is equal to

$$\frac{k^3}{6}\operatorname{Tr}((\operatorname{Id} - \Delta)^3) = \frac{k^3}{6}\sum_i (1 - \lambda_i)^3.$$



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- Geometry;
- Number theory and arithmetic geometry;
- Group theory;
- Theoretical computer science;
- Operator theory;
- Combinatorics;
- And many others...

Application: geometry, arithmetic and sieve

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(With the convention that circles with radius < 0 are allowed, in which case the "l'intérieur" is the complement of the disc bounded by the circle.)



Starting with four circles $(\bigcirc_1, \bigcirc_2, \bigcirc_3, \bigcirc_4)$,



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Starting with four circles $(\bigcirc_1, \bigcirc_2, \bigcirc_3, \bigcirc_4)$, and applying this result to $(\bigcirc_1, \bigcirc_2, \bigcirc_3)$, $(\bigcirc_1, \bigcirc_2, \bigcirc_4)$, $(\bigcirc_1, \bigcirc_3, \bigcirc_4)$, $(\bigcirc_2, \bigcirc_3, \bigcirc_4)$, we obtain four new circles, and then a full *circle packing* by iterating.



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- (Bourgain–Fuchs, 2011) There exists $c_1 > 0$ such that the number R(N) of integers $n \le N$ such that $r(n) \ge 1$ satisfies $R(N) \ge c_1 N$ for N large enough.
- ▶ (Bourgain–Kontorovich, 2014) "Almost all" those integers $n \ge 1$ for which it is not the case that r(n) = 0 for "obvious reasons" satisfy $r(n) \ge 1$.

A direct computation shows that, at each stage, the curvatures are obtained by formulas like

$$(c'_1, c_2, c_3, c_4) = (c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4)^t A_1,$$

and similarly with matrices A_2 , A_3 , A_4 ; these 4 \times 4 matrices have integral coefficients. For instance

$$A_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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The set of all curvatures is therefore the set of coordinates of vectors of the form v_0B , where v_0 corresponds to the initial four curvatures, and *B* runs over the subgroup of the group of 4×4 matrices generated by $S = (A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4)$: the set A of all products of matrices A_i and of their inverses (because $A_i^{-1} = A_i$).

For any integer $q \ge 1$, if we consider the set A_q of matrices with coefficients in $\mathbf{Z}/q\mathbf{Z}$ that are obtained by replacing each coefficient of A_i and of the elements $B \in A$ with their values modulo q, we obtain a finite group.

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Theorem (Varjú 2013; Helfgott, Bourgain–Gamburd, Bourgain–Gamburd–Sarnak) The sequence of graphs (Γ_q) is a family of expanders.

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This means that, in the products of matrices defining a complicated element of \mathcal{A} , each reduction modulo q has "the same chance" of appearing, as long as q is not too large compared with the length N of the product $B_1 \cdots B_N$. Precisely, since $|\mathcal{A}_q| \leq q^{16}$, the error is negligible as long as

$$(1-\delta)^N \leq 10^{-10} q^{-16}$$

which means that q may grow exponentially with q, because δ is independent of q.

Application: complicated knots

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The *distorsion* of a knot N is an invariant defined by Gromov:

$$\delta(N) = \min_{\substack{\gamma : [0,1] \to \mathbf{R}^3 \ (x,y) \in \gamma \\ \text{realizing } N}} \sup_{\substack{x,y) \in \gamma \\ x \neq y}} \frac{d_{\gamma}(x,y)}{\|x-y\|},$$

where $d_{\gamma}(x, y)$ is the distance *along the knot* between x and y and ||x - y|| is the usual euclidean distance.

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where $d_{\gamma}(x, y)$ is the distance along the knot between x and y and ||x - y|| is the usual euclidean distance.

To say that $\delta(N)$ is "large" means that, whichever way one puts the knot in space, there will be points "close" in space which are "far away" along the knot.

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The proof of Pardon is constructive and direct: for toric knots $T_{p,q}$, he gives a lower-bound for the distortion in terms of p and q. (See http://images.math.cnrs.fr/ Des-Noeuds-Indetordables.html)



 $T_{8,3}$; picture B. Klæckner

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Finally, they know that (Γ_n) is a sequence of expanding graphs, for subtle reasons close to that used by Margulis ("Property (τ) of Lubotzky"; Selberg, Clozel).

Some some open questions

Obtain "reasonable" estimates for the Cheeger constant of graphs like the Cayley graphs of the matrix group modulo p generated by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{p}, \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{p}$$

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$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & (p-1)/2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

as a product, of length proportional to $\log p$ of the matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \pm 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{p}, \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \mp 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{p}$$

And find new applications!

Some references

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