

1. Introduction and preliminaries

• See (1') ~ (2')

Definition 1.0. Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m be events in an arbitrary probability space. A graph $G = (V, E)$ on the set of vertices $V = \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$ is said to be a dependency graph for the events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m if for each $i, 1 \leq i \leq m$, the event A_i is mutually independent of a set of all the other events except for those A_j with $\{i, j\} \in E$.

In the following, e denotes the base of natural logarithms,

i.e., $e \approx 2.71828$.

Theorem 1.1. (The Lovász Local Lemma; Symmetric case)

Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m be events in an arbitrary probability space.

Suppose that each event A_i is mutually independent of a set of all the other events A_j but at most μ , and that $P_r(A_i) \leq p$

for all $1 \leq i \leq m$. If $e \cdot p \cdot (\mu + 1) \leq 1$, then $P_r(\bigcap_{i=1}^m \bar{A}_i) > 0$.

(*) You may consider A_i as "bad" event. Then, \bar{A}_i is a good event. (Good events 同時發生的機率大於 0!)

(Y)

Definition 7.1.1 (Discrete Probabilistic Space) , D.P.S.

A D.P.S. is an ordered pair (S, f) where S is a countable set and $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying (i) $0 \leq f(x) \leq 1$ and (ii) $\sum_{x \in S} f(x) = 1$.

(Note) A countable set is either a finite set or an infinite set which has the same cardinality as \mathbb{N} .

Definition 7.1.2 (The probability of an event $A \subseteq S$)

Let (S, f) be a D.P.S.. Then the probability of $A \subseteq S$ is $P(A) = \sum_{x \in A} f(x)$.

Definition 7.1.3 (Independent events)

If $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$, then A and B are independent events.

Definition 7.1.4 (Random variables)

Let (S, f) be a D.P.S.. Then $\mathbb{X} : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a random variable where we use $\mathbb{X} = k$ to denote an event.

$$K = \{x \in S \mid \mathbb{X}(x) = k\}.$$

e.g. Let $S = [1, 6]^2$ and $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{36}$ for each $(x, y) \in [1, 6]^2$. $\mathbb{X}((x, y)) = x + y$, $k = 7 \Rightarrow \mathbb{X} = 7 = \{(1, 6), (2, 5), (3, 4), (4, 3), (5, 2), (6, 1)\}$.

Definition 7.1.5 (Expectation)

Let \mathbb{X} be a random variable. Then the expectation of \mathbb{X} , $\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_k k \cdot p(\mathbb{X} = k)$. (We define $P(\mathbb{X} = h) = 0$ if h is not in the image of $\mathbb{X} : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.)

e.g. (Continued), $\mathbb{X} = 7$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(X) &= 2 \cdot \frac{1}{36} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{18} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{12} + 5 \cdot \frac{1}{9} + 6 \cdot \frac{5}{36} + 7 \cdot \frac{1}{6} \\ &\quad + 12 \cdot \frac{1}{36} + 11 \cdot \frac{1}{18} + 10 \cdot \frac{1}{12} + 9 \cdot \frac{1}{9} + 8 \cdot \frac{5}{36} \\ &= 14 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{36} + \frac{1}{18} + \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{5}{36} + \frac{1}{12} \right) \\ &= 14 \cdot \frac{1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 3}{36} = 7. \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 7.1.1 (Pigeon-hole principle of Expectation)

Let \mathbb{X} be a random variable of a D.P.S. Then, there exists a $y \in S$ such that $\mathbb{X}(y) \geq \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{X})$.

⑤

Lemma 7.1.2 (Linear Property of Expectation)

Let X, X_1, \dots, X_m be random variables such that $X = \sum_{i=1}^m X_i$. Then, $\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{E}(X_i)$.

Definition 7.1.6 (Indicator Random Variable)

An indicator random variable is a random variable X such that $\mathbb{X} : S \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ (instead if \mathbb{R}).

(Note) A random variable \mathbb{X} can be written as a sum of $|G|$ indicator random variables

$$x_v = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } v \in \mathbb{X}, \text{ and} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Theorem 7.1.3 If $\binom{n}{k} \cdot 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}} \leq 1$, then $R(k, k) > n$. Thus, $R(k, k) > \lfloor 2^{\frac{k}{2}} \rfloor$ for all $k \geq 3$.

Proof. Consider a random red-blue coloring of the edges of K_n . For a fixed set T of k vertices, let A_T be the event that $\langle T \rangle$ is monochromatic. Hence, $P(A_T) = (\frac{1}{2})^{\binom{k}{2}} \cdot 2 = 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}}$. Since there are $\binom{n}{k}$ possible sets for T , the probability that at least one of the events A_T occurs is $\binom{n}{k} \cdot 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}}$. By assumption, $\binom{n}{k} \cdot 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}} < 1$. This implies that no event A_T occurs is of positive probability, i.e., there exists a red-blue coloring such that no monochromatic K_k exists, we have $R(k, k) > n$. Now, if we take $n = \lfloor 2^{\binom{k}{2}} \rfloor$,

$$\begin{aligned} & \binom{n}{k} 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}} \text{ where } 1 - \frac{k(k-1)}{2} = 1 - \frac{k^2}{2} + \frac{k}{2} \\ & < \frac{n^k}{k!} \cdot \frac{2^{1+\frac{k}{2}}}{2^{\frac{k^2}{2}}} \\ & \leq \frac{(2^{\frac{k}{2}})^k}{k!} \cdot \frac{2^{1+\frac{k}{2}}}{2^{\frac{k^2}{2}}} < 1. (k \geq 3) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $R(k, k) > \lfloor 2^{\frac{k}{2}} \rfloor$ for all $k \geq 3$. This concludes the proof. □

Theorem 7.1.4 (Szele, 1943)

There exists a tournament T_n such that T_n has at least $\frac{n!}{2^{n-1}}$ Hamiltonian paths.

2. The main results

For positive integers n and d , let $[n]$ denote the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and $\binom{[n]}{d}$ denote the collection of all d -subsets of $[n]$. Let $t(d, n)$ denote the minimum number of rows for a d -disjunct matrix with n columns. In [12], Yeh proved the following theorem by using Theorem 1.1. (葉鴻圖)

Theorem 2.1. $t(d, n) \leq d^{-d} \cdot (d+1)^{d+1} \cdot \left(1 + \ln(d+1) + \ln \binom{[n]}{d+1} - \binom{[n-d-1]}{d+1}\right)$.

To generalize Theorem 2.1, we start by giving a more general definition.

Definition 2.2. A $t \times n$ binary matrix M is called $(d, r]$ -disjunct if the union of any d columns does not contain the intersection of any other r columns in M . (d, r] ↓

It is worth of noting that a $(d, r]$ -disjunct matrix can identify the up-to- d positives on the complex model with ^{at most} complexes of size r , see [13] for a reference. (Lecture 8)

Let $t(n, d, r]$ denote the minimum number of rows for

a $(d, r]$ -disjunct matrix with n columns. Then we have the following generalization of Theorem 2.1.

Theorem 2.3. $t(n, d, r] \leq d^{-d} \cdot r^{-r} \cdot (d+r)^{d+r} \cdot \left(1 + \ln \left[\binom{n}{d} \binom{n-d}{r} - \binom{n-d-r}{d} \binom{n-2d-r}{r} \right]\right)$.

Proof. Let $M = (m_{ij})$ be a $t \times n$ random binary matrix with $\Pr(m_{ij}=1) = p$ and $\Pr(m_{ij}=0) = 1-p$. Note that all m_{ij} 's are chosen independently. Let $A_{D,R}$ be the event that $\underline{OR} \subseteq \underline{UD}$

where $D \in \binom{[n]}{d}$ and $R \in \binom{[n]}{r}$ with $D \cap R = \emptyset$. Then,

$$\Pr(A_{D,R}) = \underbrace{(1-p^r (1-p)^d)^t}_{t \times n} \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} R \text{ 中有一列出现 } r \text{ 个 } 1, \text{ 则} \\ D \text{ 中 } p \text{ 列全部是 } 0. \end{array} \right)$$

By Lovász's Local Lemma, a $(d, r]$ -disjunct matrix exists whenever $e \cdot (\mu+1) \cdot \Pr(A_{D,R}) \leq 1$ where $\mu+1 = \binom{n}{d} \binom{n-d}{r} - \binom{n-d-r}{d} \binom{n-2d-r}{r}$. Here, μ is the maximum degree of dependency graph. (除了自己及相邻的事件)

Hence $e \cdot (1-p^r (1-p)^d)^t \cdot \left[\binom{n}{d} \binom{n-d}{r} - \binom{n-d-r}{d} \binom{n-2d-r}{r} \right] \leq 1$ is

required. This implies that

$$t \geq \frac{1 + \ln \left[\binom{n}{d} \binom{n-d}{r} - \binom{n-d-r}{d} \binom{n-2d-r}{r} \right]}{-\ln(1-p^r (1-p)^d)} \quad \dots (*)$$

Since $-\ln(1-x) \geq x$ for $0 \leq x < 1$, we conclude that if

$$t \geq \frac{1 + \ln \left[\binom{n}{d} \binom{n-d}{r} - \binom{n-d-r}{d} \binom{n-2d-r}{r} \right]}{p^r (1-p)^d} \quad (2)$$

(*) holds. By the fact that $p = \frac{r}{d+r}$ gives the minimum value of

R.H.S. ^{we} conclude the proof by plugging in p . \square

By a similar technique, we also have the following result.

First, we need a definition.

Definition 2.4. A $t \times n$ binary matrix M is called (d, r) -disjunct if the union of any d columns does not contain the union of any other r columns in M .

Note that an (h, d) -disjunct matrix can be applied to identify the positives on the (d, h) -inhibitor model. ^{[6] 余国忠论文} Here, h is the number of inhibitors.

Let $t(n, d, r)$ denote the minimum number of rows for a (d, r) -disjunct matrix with n columns. The following is also a generalization of Theorem 2.1.

Theorem 2.5. $t(n, d, r) \leq \left(1 + \frac{d}{r}\right) \left(1 + \frac{r}{d}\right)^{\frac{d}{r}} \cdot \left(1 + \ln \left[\binom{n}{d} \binom{n-d}{r} - \binom{n-d-r}{d} \binom{n-2d-r}{r} \right] \right)$

Proof. By a similar set up as in Theorem 2.3. Let $A_{D,R}$ be the event that $UR \subseteq UD$ where $D \in \binom{[n]}{d}$, $R \in \binom{[n]}{r}$ and $D \cap R = \emptyset$. Then,

$$\Pr(A_{D,R}) = \left(1 - (1-p)^d \cdot [1 - (1-p)^r]\right)^{\frac{d}{r}}$$

By using the Lovász Local Lemma, we conclude that a $t \times n$ (d, r) -disjunct matrix

exists whenever

$$e \cdot \Pr(A_{D,R}) \cdot \left[\binom{n}{d} \binom{n-d}{r} - \binom{n-d-r}{d} \binom{n-2d-r}{r} \right] \leq 1.$$

Hence, we conclude the proof by letting $p = 1 - \left(\frac{d}{d+r}\right)^{\frac{1}{r}}$. \blacksquare

We can use the following notion to extend the above two types of disjunct matrices.

Definition 2.6. For $1 \leq s \leq r$, a $t \times n$ binary matrix M is called

$(d, s \text{ out of } r)$ -disjunct if for any d columns and any other r

columns of M , there exists a row index in which none of

the d columns appear and at least s of the r columns do.

Clearly, $(d, 1 \text{ out of } r)$ -disjunctness is precisely the

(d, r) -disjunctness and $(d, s \text{ out of } r)$ -disjunctness is equivalent to (d, r) -disjunctness.

Now, with the same technique, we can also find a good upper bound for the number of rows t in a $t \times n$ $(d, s \text{ out of } r]$ -disjunct matrix.

Theorem 2.7. Let $t(n, d, r, s)$ denote the minimum number of rows we need in a $(d, s \text{ out of } r]$ -disjunct matrix with n columns.

Then, $t(n, d, r, s) \leq (1 + \ln \left[\binom{n}{d} \binom{n-d}{r} - \binom{n-d+r}{d} \binom{n-2d+r}{r} \right]) / f_{d,r,s}(p)$ for all $0 < p < 1$, where $f_{d,r,s}(p) = (1-p)^d \cdot \left[1 - \sum_{i=0}^{s-1} \binom{r}{i} p^i (1-p)^{r-i} \right]$.

Proof. By using the same set up as above, let $\overline{A_{D,R}}$ be the event that there exists a row index in which none of the column $C_j, j \in D$, and appear at least s of the columns $C_k, k \in R$, do. Then,

$$\Pr(\overline{A_{D,R}}) = \left\{ 1 - (1-p)^d \cdot \left[1 - \sum_{i=0}^{s-1} \binom{r}{i} p^i (1-p)^{r-i} \right] \right\}^t.$$

For convenience, let $f_{d,r,s}(p) = (1-p)^d \cdot \left[1 - \sum_{i=0}^{s-1} \binom{r}{i} p^i (1-p)^{r-i} \right]$.

Again, by Theorem 1.1, a $t \times n$ $(d, s \text{ out of } r]$ -disjunct matrix exists

whenever $e \cdot (1 - f_{d,r,s}(p))^t \cdot \left[\binom{n}{d} \binom{n-d}{r} - \binom{n-d+r}{d} \binom{n-2d+r}{r} \right] \leq 1$.

Hence, $t \geq (1 + \ln \left[\binom{n}{d} \binom{n-d}{r} - \binom{n-d+r}{d} \binom{n-2d+r}{r} \right]) / f_{d,r,s}(p)$ by

using the fact $-\ln(1-x) \geq x$ for $0 \leq x < 1$. □

We can use similar approaches to obtain an upper bound for the minimum size (of rows) of a (k, m, n) -selector. Review that a (k, m, n) -selector with t rows is a $t \times n$ binary matrix M such that any submatrix of M obtained by choosing arbitrary k columns of M contains at least m rows of the identity matrix I_k . The integer t is commonly known as the size of the (k, m, n) -selector. Du and Hwang [9] proved that a (k, m, n) -selector is $(m-1, k-m+1)$ -disjunct, but in

general the reverse statement is not true. The (k, m, n) -selector does have quite a few applications in group testing, see [5] for example.

Let $t_s(k, m, n)$ denote the minimum size of a (k, m, n) -selector. De Boris et al. [5] obtained upper bounds for $t_s(k, m, n)$ by translating the problem into the hypergraph language.

Theorem 2.8. [5] $t_s(k, m, n) < \frac{ek^2}{k-m+1} \left(\ln \frac{n}{k} \right) + \frac{ek(2k-1)}{k-m+1}$.

The following upper bound is obtained by applying Theorem 1.1.

Theorem 2.9. $t_s(k, m, n) \leq \frac{m}{\binom{k}{m} \cdot m!} \cdot \left[k \left(1 + \frac{1}{k-1} \right)^{k-1} \right]^m \cdot \left[1 + \ln \left(\binom{n}{k} - \binom{n-k}{k} \right) \right]$.

Proof. Let $M^* = (m_{i,j}^*)$ be a $t \times n$ random binary matrix with $\Pr(m_{i,j}^* = 1) = p$ and $\Pr(m_{i,j}^* = 0) = 1 - p$. For $K \in \binom{[n]}{k}$ and $M \in \binom{[t]}{m}$, define A_K be the event that the $t \times k$ submatrix of M^* corresponding to K contains at most $m-1$ rows of I_k , and $A_{K,M}$ be the event that the $m \times k$ submatrix of M^* corresponding to K and M doesn't consist m distinct rows of I_k . Observe

$$\text{that } A_K = \bigcap_{M \in \binom{[t]}{m}} A_{K,M}.$$

For convenience, assume that $m|t$. Let $M_i = \{m(i-1)+1, m(i-1)+2, \dots, mi\}$ for $1 \leq i \leq \frac{t}{m}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(A_K) &= \Pr\left(\bigcap_{M \in \binom{[t]}{m}} A_{K,M}\right) \leq \Pr\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\frac{t}{m}} A_{K,M_i}\right) \\ &= \left[1 - \binom{k}{m} m! \cdot p^m \cdot (1-p)^{m(k-1)}\right]^{\frac{t}{m}}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that A_K is mutually independent of all the other events $A_{K'}$ except for those $K' \cap K \neq \emptyset$. There are exactly

$\binom{m}{k} - \binom{m-k}{k} - 1$ such events. Now, by Theorem 1.1, a $t \times n$

(k, m, n) -selector exists whenever

$$e \cdot \left[1 - \binom{k}{m} m! p^m (1-p)^{m(k-1)} \right]^{\frac{t}{m}} \cdot \left[\binom{m}{k} - \binom{m-k}{k} \right] \leq 1.$$

This implies that

$$t \geq m \cdot \frac{1 + \ln \left[\binom{m}{k} - \binom{m-k}{k} \right]}{-\ln \left[1 - \binom{k}{m} m! p^m (1-p)^{m(k-1)} \right]} \quad \text{and}$$

$$\text{thus } t \geq m \cdot \frac{1 + \ln \left[\binom{m}{k} - \binom{m-k}{k} \right]}{\binom{k}{m} m! p^m (1-p)^{m(k-1)}}.$$

Now, by plugging in $p = \frac{1}{k}$, we obtain the desired upper bound

for $t_2(k, m, n)$. ■

Lecture 2. The Lovász Local Lemma

2.1 Introduction and motivation

We start with the *Lovász Local Lemma*, a fundamental tool of the “probabilistic method” and a prototypical non-constructive argument in combinatorics — proving that a certain object exists without showing what it looks like. Often in applying the probabilistic method, one is trying to show that it is possible to avoid “bad events” $\mathcal{E}_1, \dots, \mathcal{E}_n$ with positive probability, or in other words,

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\bigcap_{i=1}^n \bar{\mathcal{E}}_i \right] > 0.$$

Here \mathcal{E}_i are subsets of a probability space Ω (typically a finite set), and $\bar{\mathcal{E}}_i = \Omega \setminus \mathcal{E}_i$ denotes the complementary event for each i .

If $\sum_i \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_i] < 1$, then the above inequality clearly follows, by the “union bound”. However, this is often not a strong enough tool, since the sum $\sum_i \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_i]$ may be much larger than 1 even if the events can be avoided.

A weaker constraint on the individual probabilities $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_i]$ is sufficient if the events \mathcal{E}_i are also independent. In that case if $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_i] < 1$ for all i , then $\mathbb{P}[\bigcap_i \bar{\mathcal{E}}_i]$ is clearly positive. The Lovász Local Lemma is an effective refinement of this phenomenon, for events that do not have “too much (inter)dependency” – a notion that will be made precise presently. An additional attractive feature of the Local Lemma is that it does not place any restriction on the (finite) number of events \mathcal{E}_i .

2.2 Symmetric Local Lemma and application to hypergraph colorability

Before we state and prove the Local Lemma, we first present a prototypical application of the result, which serves to motivate it.

Example 2.1 (Hypergraph 2-coloring) *Given an integer $k \geq 2$, a k -uniform hypergraph $G = (V(G), E(G))$ consists of a finite set of nodes $V(G)$ and a collection of subsets $e_1, \dots, e_n \subset V(G)$, each of size k , which are termed “edges” (or “hyper-edges”). We want to color each node in $V(G)$ either red or blue. Under what conditions can we guarantee that there is a coloring with no monochromatic edge, i.e., every edge contains both red and blue nodes? Such hypergraphs are said to be 2-colorable.*

Notice, if we color each node red or blue uniformly at random, then the event \mathcal{E}_i that the i th edge is monochromatic has probability 2^{1-k} . Thus if the hypergraph G has less than 2^{k-1} edges, then by the union bound, the probability that there is at least one monochromatic edge is $< 2^{k-1} \cdot 2^{1-k} = 1$. It follows that G is 2-colorable.

However, this argument fails when G has $\geq 2^{k-1}$ edges. In this case, under what assumptions can we prove 2-colorability? One such assumption is that every edge intersects at most d other

$$2 \cdot \frac{1}{2^k}$$

edges, for some d . Under such an assumption, we will show 2-colorability using the Lovász Local Lemma. (Interestingly, d will be comparable to 2^{k-1} .)

We now define the following notion of mutual independence.

Definition 2.2 For all integers $n > 0$, define $[n] := \{1, \dots, n\}$. Given events $\mathcal{E}_1, \dots, \mathcal{E}_n \subset \Omega$ and a subset $J \subset [n]$, the event \mathcal{E}_i is said to be mutually independent of $\{\mathcal{E}_j : j \in J\}$ if for all choices of disjoint subsets $J_1, J_2 \subset J$,

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\mathcal{E}_i \cap \bigcap_{j_1 \in J_1} \mathcal{E}_{j_1} \cap \bigcap_{j_2 \in J_2} \bar{\mathcal{E}}_{j_2} \right] = \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_i] \cdot \mathbb{P} \left[\bigcap_{j_1 \in J_1} \mathcal{E}_{j_1} \cap \bigcap_{j_2 \in J_2} \bar{\mathcal{E}}_{j_2} \right].$$

Equipped with this notion, we can state the first form of the Lovász Local Lemma, which will help answer the above question of 2-colorability for k -uniform hypergraphs.

Theorem 2.3 (Symmetric Lovász Local Lemma) Suppose $p \in (0, 1)$, $d \geq 1$, and $\mathcal{E}_1, \dots, \mathcal{E}_n$ are events such that $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_i] \leq p$ for all i . If each \mathcal{E}_i is mutually independent of all but d other events \mathcal{E}_j , and $ep(d+1) \leq 1$, where $e = 2.71828\dots$ is Euler's number, then $\mathbb{P}[\bigcap_{i=1}^n \bar{\mathcal{E}}_i] > 0$.

Remark 2.4 In the above result, d is sometimes called the “dependence degree”. The “local”-ness of the result has to do with the fact that assumptions depend only on d rather than n , the number of events.

Before we prove the Local Lemma (in a more general form), let us see how it can be used to study 2-colorability for hypergraphs. In the setting of Example 2.1, suppose the hypergraph G has n edges, denoted by e_1, \dots, e_n . Let \mathcal{E}_i denote the event that the edge e_i is monochromatic; as computed above, $p = 2^{1-k}$.

We now claim that “ $d = d$ ”, that is, the d in Example 2.1 is precisely the d in Theorem 2.3. Indeed, fix an edge e_i ; now any conditioning (i.e., node-coloring) on the edges disjoint from e_i is independent of \mathcal{E}_i , since the node colors are i.i.d. Bernoulli random variables. Thus, the assumptions of the Symmetric Lovász Local Lemma are indeed satisfied, as long as

$$d + 1 \leq \frac{1}{ep} = \frac{2^{k-1}}{e}.$$

We stress again that this condition is independent of the number of edges in the hypergraph G .

2.3 (Asymmetric) Lovász Local Lemma: statement and proof

We now prove the Symmetric Lovász Local Lemma, i.e., Theorem 2.3. In fact we show a stronger, “asymmetric” version, and use it to prove the symmetric version. This will require the following useful concept.

Definition 2.5 A (directed) graph $G = (V(G), E(G))$ is a dependency (di)graph on events $\mathcal{E}_1, \dots, \mathcal{E}_n$ if $V(G) = [n]$ and each event \mathcal{E}_i is mutually independent of its non-neighbors $\{\mathcal{E}_j : j \neq i, (i, j) \notin E(G)\}$.

Remark 2.6 *Most applications in the literature use the undirected version of the dependency graph; however, there are some applications that use the digraph structure. In such cases, given a directed edge (i, j) , i is the source and j the target.*

We can now state the Lovász Local Lemma in its more general form.

Theorem 2.7 ((Asymmetric) Lovász Local Lemma) *Suppose G is a dependency (di)graph for events $\mathcal{E}_1, \dots, \mathcal{E}_n$, and there exist $x_1, \dots, x_n \in (0, 1)$ such that*

$$\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_i] \leq x_i \prod_{(i,j) \in E(G)} (1 - x_j), \quad \forall i \in [n]. \quad (2.1)$$

Then,

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\bigcap_{i=1}^n \bar{\mathcal{E}}_i \right] \geq \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - x_i) > 0. \quad (2.2)$$

Remark 2.8 *Given a set of events \mathcal{E}_i , the choice of a dependency digraph G is not unique, nor is the choice of the parameters x_i . Rather, the “user” decides which dependency digraph G and parameters x_i to work with, in a given application. The dependency graph is often clear from the context (e.g. in the hypergraph colorability application above), although the choice of x_i might not be.*

Remark 2.9 *Theorem 2.7 is sharp when the \mathcal{E}_i are independent, G is empty, and $x_i = \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_i] \forall i$.*

Before we show the Asymmetric Local Lemma, let us quickly see why it implies the Symmetric version. Indeed, if the hypotheses of Theorem 2.3 hold, set $x_i = \frac{1}{d+1} \forall i$. Now the hypotheses imply that there is an undirected dependency graph G in which each node has degree at most d . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} x_i \prod_{(i,j) \in E(G)} (1 - x_j) &= \frac{1}{d+1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{d+1} \right)^{\deg(i)} \geq \frac{1}{d+1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{d+1} \right)^d \\ &\geq \frac{1}{d+1} \cdot \frac{1}{e} \geq \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_i]. \end{aligned}$$

It follows by the Asymmetric Lovász Local Lemma that $\mathbb{P}[\bigcap_i \bar{\mathcal{E}}_i] > 0$.

Finally, we prove the Asymmetric Lovász Local Lemma.

Proof of Theorem 2.7. Given $S \subset [n]$, define

$$\bar{P}_S := \mathbb{P} \left[\bigcap_{i \in S} \bar{\mathcal{E}}_i \right], \quad \bar{P}_\emptyset := 1.$$

The result follows once we show, by induction on $|S|$, that for all $S \subset [n]$ and $a \in S$,

$$\frac{\bar{P}_S}{\bar{P}_{S \setminus \{a\}}} \geq 1 - x_a. \quad (2.3)$$

More precisely, we will show by induction on $|S|$ that

$$\overline{P}_S \geq (1 - x_a) \overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a\}} > 0.$$

Indeed, this yields the result, because applying the inequality to $S = [n]$, then $[n - 1]$, and so on, yields:

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\bigcap_{i=1}^n \overline{\mathcal{E}}_i \right] = \overline{P}_{[n]} \geq (1 - x_n) \overline{P}_{[n-1]} = (1 - x_n)(1 - x_{n-1}) \overline{P}_{[n-2]} \geq \cdots \geq \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - x_i) > 0,$$

as desired.

Thus it remains to prove (2.3). The base case is when $S = \{a\}$ is a singleton. In this case,

$$\frac{\overline{P}_{\{a\}}}{\overline{P}_{\emptyset}} = \mathbb{P}[\overline{\mathcal{E}}_a] \geq 1 - x_a \prod_{(a,j) \in E(G)} (1 - x_j) \geq 1 - x_a,$$

proving the assertion. Now suppose (2.3) holds for all subsets $S' \subset [n]$ with size at most k , and say $S \subset [n]$ has size $k + 1$. To proceed further, let us define the neighborhood of $a \in S$, as well as its “closure”, via:

$$\Gamma(a) := \{j \in V(G) : (a, j) \in E(G)\}, \quad \Gamma^+(a) := \{a\} \cup \Gamma(a). \quad (2.4)$$

Now fix $a \in S$, and compute:

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{P}_S &= \mathbb{P} \left[\bigcap_{i \in S} \overline{\mathcal{E}}_i \right] = \mathbb{P} \left[\bigcap_{i \in S \setminus \{a\}} \overline{\mathcal{E}}_i \right] - \mathbb{P} \left[\mathcal{E}_a \cap \bigcap_{i \in S \setminus \{a\}} \overline{\mathcal{E}}_i \right] \geq \mathbb{P} \left[\bigcap_{i \in S \setminus \{a\}} \overline{\mathcal{E}}_i \right] - \mathbb{P} \left[\mathcal{E}_a \cap \bigcap_{i \in S \setminus \Gamma^+(a)} \overline{\mathcal{E}}_i \right] \\ &= \overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a\}} - \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_a] \overline{P}_{S \setminus \Gamma^+(a)}, \end{aligned}$$

where the first equality and the inequality are straightforward, and the final equality follows from the mutual independence of \mathcal{E}_a and $\{\mathcal{E}_i : i \notin \Gamma^+(a)\}$. From this computation it follows that

$$\frac{\overline{P}_S}{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a\}}} \geq 1 - \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_a] \frac{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \Gamma^+(a)}}{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a\}}},$$

where $\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a\}} > 0$ by the induction hypothesis. Now say $\Gamma(a) \cap S = \{b_1, \dots, b_d\}$ for some $d \geq 0$, and write the fraction on the right-hand side as a telescoping product:

$$\frac{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \Gamma^+(a)}}{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a\}}} = \frac{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a, b_1\}}}{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a\}}} \frac{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a, b_1, b_2\}}}{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a, b_1\}}} \cdots \frac{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a, b_1, \dots, b_d\}}}{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a, b_1, \dots, b_{d-1}\}}},$$

where all terms on the right-hand side are strictly positive by the induction hypothesis. By the same hypothesis, each ratio on the right-hand side is bounded above by $\frac{1}{1 - x_{b_i}}$. Therefore,

$$\frac{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \Gamma^+(a)}}{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a\}}} \leq \frac{1}{1 - x_{b_1}} \cdots \frac{1}{1 - x_{b_d}}.$$

Recalling that by assumption $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{E}_a] \leq x_a \prod_{b \in \Gamma(a)} (1 - x_b)$, it follows that

$$\frac{\overline{P}_S}{\overline{P}_{S \setminus \{a\}}} \geq 1 - x_a \prod_{b \in \Gamma(a)} (1 - x_b) \prod_{c \in \Gamma(a) \cap S} \frac{1}{1 - x_c} \geq 1 - x_a > 0.$$

This shows (2.3), and with it, the Lovász Local Lemma. \square

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