Abstract. We present random access schemes for machine-type communication where a massive number of low-energy wireless devices want to occasionally transmit short information packets. We focus on the device discovery problem, with extensions to joint discovery and data transmission as well as data transmission without communicating device identities. We formulate this problem as a combinatorial group testing one, where the goal is to exactly identify the set of at most $d$ defective items from a pool of $n$ items. We translate the energy constraint at the physical layer to a constraint on the number of tests each item can participate in, and study the resulting “sparse” combinatorial group testing problem.

The celebrated result for the combinatorial group testing problem is that the number of tests $t$ can be made logarithmic in $n$ when $d = O(\log n)$. However, state-of-the-art group testing codes require the items to be tested $w = \Omega(\log n)$ times. In our sparse setting, we restrict the number of tests each item can participate in by $w_{\text{max}}$. It is easy to observe that if $w_{\text{max}} \leq d$, then we must have $t = n$; i.e., testing every item individually is optimal. We show that if $w_{\text{max}} = d + 1$, the number of tests decreases suddenly from $t = n$ to $t = (d + 1)\sqrt{n}$. More generally, if $w_{\text{max}} = ld + 1$ for any positive integer $l$ such that $ld + 1 \leq \frac{1}{l} \sqrt{n}$, we can achieve $t = (ld + 1)n^{1/(l+1)}$ using Kautz and Singleton’s construction with a particular choice of field size. We also prove a nearly matching lower bound which shows that $t = \Omega(d^{1/(l+1)}n^{1/(l+1)})$. This shows that in the sparse setting $t$ is a fractional power of $n$, rather than logarithmic in $n$ as in the classical setting.

Since encoding and decoding efficiency can be just as important as energy efficiency, we demonstrate that our construction can be decoded in $(\text{poly}(d) + O(l))$-time and each entry in any codeword can be computed in space $\text{poly}(\log n)$. This shows that our construction not only (nearly) achieves the fundamental lower bound, but also does that with a favorable encoding and decoding complexity.

1. Introduction. A massive number of low energy wireless devices are envisioned to form the fabric of smart technologies and cyberphysical systems, enabling the Internet of Things (IoT). While this vision is expected to bring many business and social opportunities, it presents unprecedented challenges to wireless system and radio designers. One of these challenges is how to enable a massive number of devices to efficiently access the spectrum. Random access in this setting differs significantly from that in more conventional systems, such as cellular and WiFi, due to a number of reasons.

First, the number of devices (or sensors) associated with a single access point can be much larger than that in traditional wireless systems. Further, each device can be only sporadically active; i.e., has bursty traffic. Therefore, the number of active devices at any given time can be much smaller than the total number of nodes in the system. Second, when active, each device can have only a few bits to communicate; for example, a single measurement value. Third, typically such wireless devices are severely energy-limited since they are expected to operate for many years on small batteries or harvest their energy from the environment (without relying on any traditional batteries). When the system size is large and the number of information bits to be communicated by each device (payload) is small, tasks associated with the control plane, such as discovering active devices, coordinating transmissions, resolving collisions, and estimating the channel can dominate the energy expenditure and throttle the network performance.

In this paper, we tackle the following fundamental question: how do we allow a massive number of sporadically active low-energy wireless devices with small payloads to access the spectrum with minimal coordination and channel estimation overheads? Our design philosophy and problem formulation hinges on four principles: (a) combining the device discovery and data transmission phases, (b) embracing sensor collisions, (c) trading spectral efficiency for energy efficiency, and (d) focusing on simple modulation and decoding techniques. The first principle allows us to study device discovery, data transmission, and transmission without discovery in a single framework; the second aims to eliminate the cost of collision resolution (feedback and retransmissions such as in Aloha type protocols); the third principle allows us to discover a particularly favorable regime for achieving both energy and spectral efficiency; the fourth principle aims to ensure that the resultant schemes and protocols are well-suited for implementation in resource and
complexity constrained IoT radios.

1.1. Massive Random Access. We focus on the following model for random access: $n$ devices (or sensors) are associated with a single access point. At most $d$ of them can be active at any given time, where $n \gg d \gg 1$. We adopt the following modulation and detection techniques at the transmitters and the receiver respectively: each device uses on-off signaling; i.e., it transmits a binary sequence of 0’s and 1’s, which corresponds to either transmitting a pulse or no pulse in every time-slot. The access point simply detects whether or not there is energy in the channel in every time-slot. This leads to a (potentially noisy) Boolean OR-channel from the devices to the access point. This simple modulation and detection technique does not require any channel state information at the receiver, thus eliminating the need for channel training and estimation. This setting is depicted in Figure 1. To simplify the discussion, we mainly focus on the device discovery problem in this setting. However, we will argue in the next subsection that the solution we derive for this setting can be easily extended to jointly send device IDs and messages, and even to send messages without communicating the device IDs. Therefore, our problem formulation is as follows. Given $n$ devices, design a length $t$ binary signature for each device (i.e., $M_i \in \{0, 1\}^t$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$) such that from any $S \subset \{1, \ldots, n\}$ with $|S| \leq d$, we can exactly identify the set $S$ (the active devices) from

$$Y = \bigvee_{i \in S} M_i.$$

Note that even though we require a zero-error code design, the energy detection at the receiver can be noisy in practice, leading to a Boolean OR-channel with occasional bit flips of the output. Ignoring such bit-flips essentially corresponds to uncoded transmission that is not protected via coding against the noise in the channel. This is sometimes preferred for its simplicity in IoT type radios [30]. To minimize errors due to channel noise, the energy of the pulses should be chosen large enough to be detected at the receiver. Note that this model also assumes that the active devices have synchronized transmissions. In practice, this can be achieved by sending a beacon signal from the access point and having devices synchronize their transmissions to the transmitted beacon signal.

1.2. Random Access and Group Testing. The problem statement above corresponds to a (non-adaptive) combinatorial group testing problem. The group testing problem consists of identifying a small set of $d$ (or less) defective items from a large population of size $n$ by performing tests on groups of items, rather than on individual items. For an unknown sequence $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ with at most $d$ ones representing the defective items, we are allowed to test any subset $S \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\}$ of the items. The result of a test $S$ could either be positive, which happens when at least one item in $S$ is defective (i.e., $\exists i \in S$ such that $x_i = 1$), or...
negative when all the items in $S$ are not defective (i.e., $\forall i \in S$ we have $x_i = 0$). The goal is to design as few tests as possible so that we can exactly recover the unknown sequence $x$.

The original group testing framework was developed in 1943 by Robert Dorfman [8]. Back then, group testing was devised to identify which WWII draftees were infected with syphilis – without having to test them individually. In Dorfman’s application, items represented draftees and tests represented actual blood tests. Over the years, group testing has found numerous applications [6, 14, 15, 16], and many variations to the problem have been studied. Non-adaptive combinatorial group testing (CGT) refers to the fact that tests need to be designed ahead of time and the set of defective items needs to be recovered exactly. A non-adaptive CGT strategy can be represented by a $t \times n$ binary matrix $M$, where $M_{ij} = 1$ means that item $j$ participates in test $i$. The test results vector $Y$ is simply $M$ multiplied by $x$, where linear summations are replaced by Boolean ORs. A necessary and sufficient condition for the design of a non-adaptive CGT is that of separability. A matrix $M$ is $d$-separable if for any $x_1 \neq x_2$, $d$-sparse vectors, we have that $Mx_1 \neq Mx_2$. Note that this precisely corresponds to the device discovery problem defined above.

The celebrated result for the group testing problem is that $t$ can be made logarithmic in $n$, $t = O(\min\{d^2 \log n, d^2 \log^2 n\})$ [22, 29, 2]. This implies that group testing can provide drastic gains when $d \ll n$, say $d = O(\log n)$, compared to the naive approach of testing every item individually which results in $t = n$. Therefore, state-of-the-art group testing codes can be used for device discovery to minimize the length of the signature sequences, which is equivalent to minimizing the completion time of the device discovery phase. More precisely, given a non-adaptive CGT matrix $M$, we can use it for the following four tasks:

1. Device discovery: assign the $i^{th}$ column $M_i$ to device $i$ as its signature sequence. The $d$-separability condition ensures that as long as there are no more than $d$ devices transmitting their signature sequences simultaneously, the receiver can exactly identify the active transmitters.

2. Joint discovery and data transmission: partition the columns of the matrix $M$ into disjoint sets and assign each set to a different device. This set will be used as a codebook for data transmission by this device, where columns correspond to codewords. By transmitting one of its assigned codewords, each device can communicate both its identity and data, provided that there are less than $d$ simultaneously transmitting devices. For example, by assigning $m$ columns of $M$ to each of $n/m$ sensors, the sensors can communicate their identity and $\log_2 m$ bits of information. Note that the identity of the device is implicitly revealed by the transmitted codeword since the codebooks are disjoint across different transmitters. In general, different devices can have codebooks of different size.

3. Data transmission with non-identifiable transmitters: form a codebook by using all the $n$ columns of $M$ as codewords, and use this codebook for data transmission at all the transmitters; i.e., all devices use the same codebook formed by the columns of $M$ for data transmission. By construction, as long as there no more than $d$ simultaneously transmitting devices, the codewords chosen by the active transmitters can be recovered at the receiver. With this approach up to $d$ devices will be able to simultaneously communicate $\log n$ bits of information to the transmitter. Note that while the receiver can recover the transmitted messages, it can not recover the identity of the transmitting devices since all devices use the exact same codebook. This approach can be suitable for some IoT applications, such as process monitoring and control applications where the access point is interested in generating a certain statistics (ex. histogram or average) of the sensor measurements. In this case, sensor identities may be irrelevant and conventional codes and protocols that either implicitly or explicitly communicate identity information can lead to a poor performance, especially when the number of sensors is very large. A similar setting has been recently considered in [28].

4. Joint transmission of data and group identity: assume transmitters are partitioned into different groups (for example, sensors can be grouped according to their geographical location) and we are interested in communicating data and the group identity (but not the individual identity of the sensors in the group) while we still desire a solution that is resilient to up to $d$ collisions. This is a natural combination of the previous two settings. The group testing matrix $M$ can be used to provide a solution for this problem by splitting its columns to different sets of disjoint codebooks in a manner similar to (2) above and assigning the same codebook to all devices in the same group.
similar to (3).

The connection between group testing and random access has been recognized in the literature, in the early works of [4, 35] and more recently in [24], which is more closely related to our paper. However, different from our combinatorial non-adaptive setting, [4, 35] consider node discovery via the adaptive group testing framework (they rely on feedback from the receiver for resolving collisions). [24] considers neighborhood discovery via stochastic group testing where the decoder is allowed to declare an error in $\epsilon$-fraction of the subsets $S \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\}$ of the items. Under an $\epsilon$ average probability of error criterion, it is known that the number of tests can be reduced to $d \log n$. Despite this better scaling performance, we believe the group testing framework with an $\epsilon$ average probability of error criterion is not a good fit for random access for the following reason. While in point-to-point communication a codebook designed under the average probability of error criterion can be easily converted to a codebook satisfying a maximum probability of error constraint by simply throwing away the “bad” codewords, which are at most a constant fraction of the total number of codewords, such a reduction is not possible in our setting because. In this case, one would need to expurgate “bad” combinations of codewords the simultaneous transmission of which systematically lead to errors. By expurgating combinations of codewords, one may end up with a codebook that has too few codewords in it.

1.3. Energy vs Spectral Efficiency. In most IoT applications, the length of the codewords, which determines the spectral efficiency of the system, is not the only performance metric of interest. Typically, energy efficiency is even more critical since devices rely on tiny batteries. Therefore, it is desirable to minimize the time needed to identify active devices, it is also desirable to achieve this in an energy efficient manner; i.e., to minimize the total energy spent by each device. The energy spent is proportional to the number of pulses, i.e. the number of “1”s, in the codeword transmitted by each device. This motivates the study of the group testing problem with constraints on the total number of tests that can be performed on each item. Using our previous notation, this corresponds to imposing a constraint on the total number of “1”s in each column of $M$. Note that if energy efficiency were the only metric of interest, we could have resorted to the trivial solution that tests every item individually. This leads to a single “1” in each column of $M$ but the length of each column, and therefore that of our codewords, becomes equal to $n$. Typically it is desirable to achieve both energy and spectral efficiency and the relative importance of one with respect to the other depends on the specific application. Therefore, it is desirable to understand the optimal trade-off between these two metrics. In particular, can allowing for a few more “1”s in each codeword significantly reduce the length of the codewords?

In other applications, the total number of tests that can be performed on each item or the number of items each test can include can be limited due to different reasons. For example, the amount of blood or genetic material available from an individual can limit the number of tests that this individual can participate in. Similarly, equipment limitations and testing procedures can impose a maximum on the number of objects that can be simultaneously tested.

1.4. Technical Contributions. In this paper, we explore the “sparse” setting for the non-adaptive combinatorial group testing problem where we restrict either the number of tests each item can participate in by $w_{\text{max}}$ or the number of items each test can include by $\rho_{\text{max}}$. Non-adaptive combinatorial group testing refers to the fact that tests need to be designed ahead of time and the set of defective items needs to be recovered exactly. We first revisit existing constructions based on $d$-disjunct matrices that achieve $t = O(d^2 \log n)$ [22] and $t = O(d^2 \log_d^2 n)$ tests [29]. A $t \times n$ binary matrix $M$ is called $d$-disjunct if none of the columns of $M$ is covered by the Boolean sum of any other $d$ columns of $M$. It is easy to see that the set of at most $d$ defective items can be decoded uniquely if the test matrix $M$ satisfies this property. It is also easy to see that any testing matrix $M$ that allows to uniquely recover up to $d$ defective items must be $(d-1)$-disjunct [9]. We show that these constructions require items to be tested $w = \Omega(d \log n)$ times, and tests to include $\rho = \Omega(n \frac{d}{d \log_d n})$ items. In the other extreme, we show that if $w_{\text{max}} \leq d$ or if $\rho_{\text{max}} \leq d + 1$ then $d$-disjunct matrices must have $t = n$; i.e., testing every item individually is optimal. A natural question then is the following: how does $t$ decrease as we increase $w_{\text{max}}$ and $\rho_{\text{max}}$ beyond these bare minimum (up to
their values in state-of-the-art constructions)? In particular, can we slightly increase \(w_{\text{max}}\) and \(\rho_{\text{max}}\) beyond \(d\) and \(d+1\), respectively, to significantly reduce \(t\), the minimum number of tests needed? Surprisingly, the answer is positive when we have a \(w_{\text{max}}\) constraint but negative for the case with a \(\rho_{\text{max}}\) constraint. We show that when \(w_{\text{max}} = d+1\), the number of tests decreases drastically from \(t = n\) to \(t = (d+1)\sqrt{n}\). More generally, if \(w_{\text{max}} = ld + 1\) for any positive integer \(l\) such that \(ld + 1 \leq \frac{l+1}{l+1}\sqrt{n}\), we can achieve

\[
t = \frac{(d+1)n}{\rho_{\text{max}} + d + 1}.
\]

This implies that the fractional power of \(n\) can be reduced drastically by increasing \(w_{\text{max}}\) linearly in \(d\). This result is most significant when \(d = O(\log n)\). We achieve this performance by introducing a simple modification of Kautz and Singleton’s construction, which shows that the field size in this construction can be used to trade between \(t\) and \(w_{\text{max}}\). We then prove a nearly matching lower bound which shows that

\[
t = \Omega(d^{\frac{2}{l+1}} n^{\frac{1}{l+1}}).
\]

In particular when \(w_{\text{max}} = d+1\), this shows that Kautz and Singleton’s construction is order optimal (even up to an almost matching constant). This is surprising given that Kautz and Singleton’s construction is strictly suboptimal in the classical group testing setting when \(d = O(\log n)\).

As opposed to the case with \(w_{\text{max}}\) constraint, the decrease in \(t\) is much less dramatic with increasing \(\rho_{\text{max}}\). We prove that for any \(\rho_{\text{max}}\),

\[
t \geq \frac{(d+1)n}{\rho_{\text{max}} + d + 1}.
\]

In other words, \(\rho_{\text{max}}\) needs to be a fractional power of \(n\), in order for \(t\) to scale sublinear in \(n\). When \(\rho_{\text{max}} = \Theta(n^\alpha)\), we prove that there exists a \(d\)-disjunct matrix \(M\) with \(t = \Theta(dn^{1-\alpha})\). We also show that when \(\alpha = l/(l+1)\), for any fixed integer \(l \geq 1\), Kautz and Singleton’s construction can be used to achieve the optimal \(t = (ld + 1)\sqrt{n}\).

Since encoding and decoding efficiency can be just as important as energy efficiency, we demonstrate that our constructions can be decoded in \((\text{poly}(d) + O(t))\)-time and each entry in any codeword can be computed in space \(\text{poly}(\log n)\). This shows that these constructions not only (nearly) achieve the fundamental lower bound, but also do that with a favorable encoding and decoding complexity.

**1.5. Paper Organization.** The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we present the needed prerequisite material and describe two common combinatorial group testing constructions. We also show that both constructions require items to be tested \(w = \Omega\left(\frac{d\log n}{\log d + \log \log n}\right)\) times and tests to include \(\rho = \Omega\left(\frac{n}{\log \log \log n}\right)\) items. The main results of our paper are formally presented in Section 3. We investigate the decoding and encoding complexity of our constructions in Section 4. The proofs are deferred to sections 5 and 6. We provide, in Section 7, a brief survey of important results on combinatorial group testing and a detailed comparison with a recent related paper. Finally, we conclude our paper in Section 8 with a few interesting and nontrivial extensions.

**2. Preliminaries.** For any \(t \times n\) matrix \(M\), we use \(M_j\) to refer to its \(j\)th column and \(M_{ij}\) to refer to its \((i,j)\)th entry. For an integer \(m \geq 1\), we denote the set \(\{1, \ldots, m\}\) by \([m]\). The Hamming weight of a row or a column of \(M\) will be simply referred to as the “weight” of the row or column.

**2.1. Non-adaptive Combinatorial Group Testing.** Our paper focuses on non-adaptive combinatorial group testing (CGT). A non-adaptive CGT strategy can be represented by a \(t \times n\) binary matrix \(M\), where \(M_{ij} = 1\) means that item \(j\) participates in test \(i\). We will occasionally refer to \(M\) as a group testing code (or codebook) and its \(i\)th column \(M_i\) as the \(i\)th codeword. The test results vector \(Y\) is simply \(M\) multiplied with by \(x\), where linear summations are replaced by Boolean summations. A necessary condition for the design of a non-adaptive CGT strategy \(M\) is that of separability. A matrix \(M\) is \(d\)-separable if for any \(x_1 \neq x_2\), \(d\)-sparse vectors, we have that \(Mx_1 \neq Mx_2\). Unfortunately, the \(d\)-separability condition does
Proposition 2.1 suggests that we need $q$ some of the codewords will differ by only one position on the fixed in the codewords. If any two codewords have the same symbols in these positions, then it must be the case the codewords as $d$ in the proof of this proposition is due to D’yachkov and Rykov, and can be found in [11].

We define $t(d, n)$ to be the smallest $t$ needed for a binary $t \times n$ matrix $M$ to be $d$-disjunct. Notice that naturally, $t(d, n) \leq n$ because we can always use the identity matrix $M = I_n$ to identify any $1 \leq d \leq n$ defective among $n$ items. A classical result in the non-adaptive CGT literature shows that $t(d, n) \geq \Omega(d^2 \log n)$ [10, 12, 2]. Several explicit and randomized constructions of $d$-disjunct matrices have been developed over the past 50 years with the most efficient known constructions achieved $t = O(d^2 \log n)$ [29, 21, 2].

2.2. Relevant Lower Bounds. We now summarize two known lower bounds on the minimum number of tests. These bounds imply that individual testing is necessary whenever $d = \Omega(\sqrt{n})$ or $w_{\text{max}} \leq d$, where $w_{\text{max}}$ is the maximum number of tests an item participates in.

**Proposition 2.1.** For all $n$ and $d$, the following bound on $t(d, n)$ holds

$$t(d, n) \geq \min \left\{ \frac{d+2}{2}, n \right\}.$$ 

Proposition 2.1 suggests that we need $d = O(\sqrt{n})$ to be able to design a $d$-disjunct matrix with $t < n$. The proof of this proposition is due to D’yachkov and Rykov, and can be found in [11].

**Proposition 2.2.** If $w_{\text{max}} \leq d$, then $t(d, n) = n$.

The above proposition shows that one cannot do better than individual testing when the maximum number of tests an item can participate in is less than or equal to $d$. Hence, we focus our attention on a setting where $w_{\text{max}} \geq d + 1$ and show that $t(d, n)$ suddenly transitions from $n$ to $\sqrt{n}$ when $w_{\text{max}} = d + 1$. The proof of Proposition 2.2 can be found in [9].

2.3. Disjunct Matrices via Error Correcting Codes. A $q$-nary error-correcting code is a code whose codewords consist of $q$ basic symbols [27]. Binary codes are a special case of $q$-nary codes with $q = 2$. Consider a $q$-nary code with $n = q^k$ codewords of length $t = k + r$. Denoting the minimum distance between the codewords as $d_{\text{min}}$, one can show that $d_{\text{min}} \leq r + 1$ from the following observation. Fix any $k$ positions in the codewords. If any two codewords have the same symbols in these positions, then it must be the case that $d_{\text{min}} \leq r$. Otherwise, we must observe all possible $q^k$ sequences in the $k$ fixed positions. In this case, some of the codewords will differ by only one position on the fixed $k$ positions. Hence, $d_{\text{min}} \leq r + 1$. We state this formally in the following theorem [33].

**Theorem 2.3.** A $q$-nary code with $n = q^k$ codewords of length $t = k + r$ must satisfy $d_{\text{min}} \leq r + 1$.

Codes with $d_{\text{min}} = r + 1$ and $n = q^k$ are called maximum distance separable (MDS) codes [33]. Reed-Solomon codes [31] are a known class of MDS codes with the constraint that $q \geq t$. When concatenated with a nonlinear code, Reed-Solomon codes lead to $d$-disjunct group testing codes. In what follows, we will use the subscript $q$ in the parameters of the Reed-Solomon codes to separate them from the group testing codes that will be constructed shortly. To recap, Reed-Solomon codes achieve a minimum distance of $d_{\text{min}} = r_q + 1$ with a code length of $t_q = k_q + r_q$ and a number of codewords equal to $n_q = q^{k_q}$, provided that $q \geq t_q$ and $q$ is any prime power.
We can convert a Reed-Solomon code into a group testing code using the following method introduced by Kautz and Singleton in [22]. We replace each codeword symbol \( i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, q\} \) by \( e_i \), a length \( q \) binary sequence with a single nonzero entry in the \( i^{th} \) position. Thus, a Reed-Solomon code is transformed into a binary code of length \( t = qt_q \) by concatenating it with an “identity code.” The minimum distance of the resultant binary code is double that of the Reed-Solomon code; i.e., \( d_{\text{min}} = 2(r_q + 1) \). This is because any two distinct \( q \)-nary symbols will differ in two positions in their corresponding length \( q \) binary sequences. Note that the number of codewords remains the same \( n = n_q = q^{k_q} \), and all the binary codewords have the same weight \( w = t_q \). This construction will be referred to as the Kautz and Singleton construction.

Consider a binary code \( M \) with minimum codeword weight of \( w_{\text{min}} \). We define \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \) to be the maximum number of overlapping ones between any two codewords in \( M \). In the coding theory literature, \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \) is commonly referred to as the maximal correlation of \( M \). A central result in group testing demonstrates that \( M \) is \( d \)-disjunct as long as \( \lambda_{\text{max}} d + 1 \leq w_{\text{min}} \). This can be seen from the following simple argument. Take any \( d + 1 \) codewords and fix one codeword among them. The number of overlapping ones between the fixed codeword and the rest of the codewords is at most \( d \lambda_{\text{max}} \). Since the minimum weight satisfies \( w_{\text{min}} \geq d \lambda_{\text{max}} + 1 \), this codeword cannot be covered by the rest of the codewords. Thus, \( M \) must be at least \( d \)-disjunct. We state this formally in the following lemma.

**Lemma 2.4.** A binary code \( M \) with codewords of minimum weight \( w_{\text{min}} \) and maximal correlation \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \) is \( \left\lceil \frac{w_{\text{min}} - 1}{\lambda_{\text{max}}} \right\rceil \)-disjunct.

Observe that in Kautz and Singleton’s construction, we have that

\[
\lambda_{\text{max}} = w - d_{\text{min}}/2 = t_q - r_q - 1 = k_q - 1.
\]

Therefore, Kautz and Singleton’s construction provides us with a group testing code that is \( \left\lceil \frac{t_q - 1}{k_q - 1} \right\rceil \)-disjunct.

**Theorem 2.5.** The Kautz and Singleton construction provides a \( t \times n \) \( d \)-disjunct matrix where \( t = O(d^2 \log^2 n) \) with constant column weight \( w = \Omega \left( \frac{d \log n}{\log d + \log \log n} \right) \) and constant row weight \( \rho = \Omega \left( \frac{n}{d \log d \log n} \right) \).

**Proof.** To obtain a \( d \)-disjunct code using Kautz and Singleton’s construction, we set \( t_q = q \), and choose \( q \) and \( k_q \) such that \( d = \left\lceil \frac{q - 1}{k_q - 1} \right\rceil \). Note that \( n = q^{k_q} \) and \( q = \Theta(dk_q) \). Hence, \( q = \Theta(d \log_q n) \) or \( q \log q = \Theta(d \log n) \). Since \( q \geq d \), we get that \( q = O(d \log_n n) \). Note that \( t = qt_q = q^2 \), therefore \( t = O(d^2 \log^2 n) \). The corresponding binary code has constant column weights \( w = t_q = q \). Note that \( q \log q = \Theta(d \log n) \) is related to the famous Lambert \( W \) function [7] and using \( W(x) \geq \log x - \log \log x \), we get \( q = \Omega \left( \frac{d \log n}{\log(d \log n)} \right) \) or equivalently \( w = \Omega \left( \frac{d \log n}{\log d + \log \log n} \right) \). From our earlier discussion on MDS codes, recall that achieving a minimum distance of \( r_q + 1 \) requires that for any arbitrary \( k_q \) rows of this code, the chosen \( k_q \times q^{k_q} \) matrix must include all \( q^{k_q} \) possible assignments of \( q \)-nary symbols in the columns. It follows that any row of a Reed-Solomon code must include every \( q \)-nary symbol an equal number of times. More precisely, each \( q \)-nary symbol must present \( q^{k_q - 1} \) times in all rows. Therefore, the corresponding binary code has a constant row weight of \( \rho = n/q \). Since \( q = O(d \log_d n) \), it follows that \( \rho = \Omega \left( \frac{n}{d \log d n} \right) \).

A different line of work introduced by Porat and Rothschild in [29] constructs \( t \times n \) \( d \)-disjunct matrices with \( t = O(d^2 \log n) \). Their approach is based on \( q \)-nary codes that meet the Gilbert-Varshamov bound where the alphabet size is \( q = \Theta(d) \). As in the Kautz and Singleton construction, their inner code is the identity code. The resulting binary code has the property that all the columns have the same weight of \( w = \Theta(d \log n) \). Furthermore, the maximum row weight satisfies \( \rho_{\text{max}} = \Omega(n/d) \).

**Theorem 2.6.** The explicit construction by Porat and Rothschild in [29] achieves a \( t \times n \) \( d \)-disjunct matrix where \( t = O(d^2 \log n) \) with constant column weight \( w = \Theta(d \log n) \) and maximum row weight \( \rho_{\text{max}} = \Omega(n/d) \).
Compared to Kautz and Singleton’s construction, one can observe that the Porat and Rothschild’s construction is better in the regime where \( d = O(\log n) \). However, Kautz and Singleton’s construction is better when \( d = \Theta(n^\alpha) \) for some constant \( \alpha \in (0, 1/2) \). In this regime, Kautz and Singleton’s construction meets the fundamental lower bound and is therefore order optimal. Nevertheless, the regime where \( d = \Theta(n^\alpha) \) has not received considerable attention in the group testing literature because \( t \) cannot scale logarithmically in \( n \) when \( d = \Theta(n^\alpha) \). This is why we focus our attention on the more common \( d = O(\log n) \) regime in which Kautz and Singleton’s construction is strictly suboptimal.

3. Main Results. In this section, we formally present our results for both the sparse codewords and sparse tests settings. The detailed proofs are deferred to sections 5 and 6.

3.1. Sparse Codewords. In the sparse codewords setting, we focus on a model where each item can participate in a limited number of tests. This is equivalent to restricting the codewords (columns of \( M \)) to have a limited number of “1”s. Recall, from the discussion in the preliminaries section, that if the codewords have a Hamming weight that is bounded by \( d \), one cannot do better than the identity matrix; i.e., \( t = n \). Hence, we are interested in the regime where \( w_{\max} > d \).

Given that it is impossible to achieve \( t < n \) when \( w_{\max} \leq d \), it is natural to ask: what happens when \( w_{\max} = d + 1 \)? The following theorem presents our first result for this case.

**Theorem 3.1.** For all integers \( d, n \geq 2 \) such that \( d + 1 \leq \sqrt{n} \) and \( \sqrt{n} \) is a prime power, there exists a \( t \times n \) matrix that is \( d \)-disjunct with constant column weight \( w = d + 1 \) such that
\[
t = (d+1)\sqrt{n}.
\]

On the other hand, for any integer \( d, n \geq 2 \), a \( t \times n \) matrix that is \( d \)-disjunct with maximum column weight \( w_{\max} \leq d + 1 \) must satisfy
\[
t \geq \min \left\{ \sqrt{nd(d+1)}, n \right\}.
\]

The proof of the above theorem can be found in Section 5.1.

A few comments are in order. First, Theorem 3.1 shows that by increasing \( w_{\max} \) from \( d \) to \( d + 1 \), we suddenly get \( t = \Theta(d\sqrt{n}) \) instead of \( t = n \). Second, the achievability result in Theorem 3.1 is obtained by changing the field size from \( q = O(d \log_d n) \) to \( q = \sqrt{n} \) in Kautz and Singleton’s construction. Kautz and Singleton’s construction is strictly suboptimal in the classical case when \( d = O(\log n) \). It is interesting that a simple modification of this well known construction makes it optimal (even up to an almost matching constant).

We next investigate the more general case where the codeword weights are bounded by \( w_{\max} = ld + 1 \), for some integer \( l > 1 \). The achievability result in the next theorem is again obtained by tuning the field size in the Kautz and Singleton’s construction. In this case we can show that this construction is nearly optimal.

**Theorem 3.2.** For every integer \( d \geq 2 \) and \( n > \left( \frac{d+2}{2} \right) \), there exists a \( t \times n \) matrix that is \( d \)-disjunct with constant column weights \( w = ld + 1 \) such that
\[
t = (ld + 1) \sqrt[l+1]{n},
\]
where \( l \) is any integer satisfying \( ld + 1 \leq \sqrt[l+1]{n} \) and \( l \sqrt[l+1]{n} \) is a prime power.

On the other hand, for any integer \( d \geq 2 \) and \( n > \left( \frac{d+2}{2} \right) \), a \( t \times n \) matrix that is \( d \)-disjunct with maximum column weight \( w_{\max} \leq ld + 1 \), where \( l > 1 \) is any integer such that \( ld + 1 \leq l \sqrt[l+1]{n} \), must satisfy
\[
t \geq \left( \frac{(l-1)^{l+1}(d-1)^{l+1}}{2e^l(l-1)(d-1)^{l-1} + 1} \right)^{1/l+1} \sqrt[l+1]{n}.
\]

The proof of the above theorem can be found in Section 5.2.
Note that as we increase the weights as a multiple of \(d\) (i.e., \(w_{\text{max}} = ld + 1\)), the minimum number of required tests decreases exponentially in \(l\). As we see from Theorem 3.2, for a fixed \(l\) the lower bound we get is \(\Theta(d^{\frac{l}{\sqrt{d^{l+1}}}})\) whereas the upper bound is \(\Theta(d^{\frac{l}{\sqrt{d^{l}}}})\). While we have a matching lower and upper bounds in terms of the scaling with respect to \(n\), there is an increasing gap of \(d^{\frac{2}{l+1}}\) between them, which approaches \(d\) for large \(l\).

3.2. Sparse Tests. In the sparse tests setting, we focus on a model where each test can include a limited number of items. In other words, we restrict the row weights of \(M\), and derive lower and upper bounds on the minimum number of tests so that \(M\) is a \(d\)-disjunct matrix.

Our first theorem provides a fundamental lower bound on the minimum required number of tests under a row weight constraint and upper bound which is again based on Kautz and Singleton’s construction.

**Theorem 3.3.** For every integer \(d \geq 2\) and \(n > (\frac{d+2}{2})\), there exists a \(t \times n\) matrix that is \(d\)-disjunct with constant row weights \(\rho = n^{\frac{1}{d+1}}\) such that

\[
t = (ld + 1)^{\frac{l}{\sqrt{d}}}.
\]

where \(l\) is any integer satisfying \(ld + 1 \leq d^{\frac{l}{\sqrt{d}}}\) and \(d^{\frac{l}{\sqrt{d}}}\) is a prime power.

On the other hand, for any integer \(d, n \geq 2\), a \(t \times n\) matrix that is \(d\)-disjunct with maximum row weight \(\rho_{\text{max}}\) must satisfy

\[
t \geq \frac{(d + 1)n}{\rho_{\text{max}} + d + 1}.
\]

The proof of the above theorem can be found in Section 6.1.

Observe that for any fixed integer \(l \geq 1\) that satisfies the conditions stated in Theorem 3.3, the number of tests we get under Kautz and Singleton’s construction is \(\Theta(d^{\frac{l}{\sqrt{d^{l}}}})\). Considering the region where \(d = O(\sqrt{n})\) (otherwise we cannot have \(t < n\)), for \(l \geq 1\) we have \(\rho = n^{\frac{1}{d+1}} = \Omega(d)\). Therefore, the lower bound we obtain is \(\Theta(d^{\frac{l}{\sqrt{d^{l}}}})\). Here, we again see that Kautz and Singleton’s construction is order optimal in this setting.

The following proposition follows by a simple observation in the proof steps of the previous theorem.

**Proposition 3.4.** For any integer \(d, n \geq 2\), a \(t \times n\) matrix that is \(d\)-disjunct with maximum row weight \(d + 1\) must satisfy \(t \geq n\).

It has been known in the group testing literature that if the weights of the columns are bounded by \(d\), one cannot do better than the identity matrix; i.e., \(t = n\). The proposition states an analogous result for the case with row weight constraint: if the weights of the rows are bounded by \(d + 1\), we again have \(t = n\). Note furthermore that the lower bound in Theorem 3.3 suggests that as long as \(\rho = \Theta(d)\), then \(t = \Theta(n)\).

Note that the Kautz and Singleton construction in Theorem 3.3 provides us codes with constant row weight of \(n^{\frac{1}{d+1}}\); i.e., when \(\rho\) is a fractional power of \(n\) in the form \(\frac{1}{\sqrt{d^{l+1}}}\) in the interval \([1/2, 1)\). It is natural to ask whether there exist group testing codes with \(\rho = n^{\alpha}\) for some real number \(\alpha \in (0, 1)\) that achieves the lower bound in Theorem 3.3. The following theorem shows the existence of such codes when \(d = O(\log n)\) by using a random construction.

**Theorem 3.5.** In the regime where \(d = O(\log n)\), there exists a \(t \times n\) matrix that is \(d\)-disjunct with a maximum row weight \(\rho_{\text{max}} = \Theta(n^{\alpha})\), for any \(\alpha \in (0, 1)\), such that

\[
t = O(dn^{1-\alpha}).
\]

The proof of the above theorem can be found in Section 6.3.

In the regime where \(d = O(\log n)\), the lower bound in Theorem 3.3 suggests that the minimum number of tests is \(\Omega(dn^{1-\alpha})\) when \(\rho = \Theta(n^{\alpha})\) for some fixed real number \(\alpha \in (0, 1)\). The randomized construction in Theorem 3.5 proves that there exist codes that achieve \(t = \Theta(dn^{1-\alpha})\). This matches the lower bound in Equation Theorem 3.3.
4. Encoding & Decoding. We have so far focused on investigating the fundamental trade-off between $t$ and $(d, n)$ under constraints on either the number of items that can participate in a test (sparse tests) or the number of tests an item can participate in (sparse codewords), without considering the encoding or decoding complexities. However, especially in the aforementioned massive random access setting, the computational complexities of encoding and decoding are just as important. Therefore, it is desirable not to sacrifice on encoding or decoding complexity to achieve the optimal trade-off between $t$ and $(d, n)$. In this section, we discuss the encoding and decoding complexities of the explicit constructions we presented earlier in this paper.

In the classical combinatorial group testing framework, the interest has been on designing testing strategies that can be decoded in $\text{poly}(t)$-time while achieving the best known upper bound $t = O(d^2 \log n)$. Guruswami et al. present an efficiently decodable $(O(t)$ time decoding) $d$-disjunct matrix in [18]. Nevertheless, their constructions require $O(d^4 \log n)$ tests. The first result that achieves efficient decoding time while matching the $O(d^2 \log n)$ bound on the number of tests was recently presented in [21].

We now show that our explicit constructions can be decoded in $(\text{poly}(d) + O(t))$-time and each entry in any codeword can be computed in space $\text{poly}(\log n)$ by following a similar approach to [21]. This shows that these constructions not only (nearly) achieve the fundamental lower bound in the energy constrained setting, but also do that with a favorable encoding and decoding complexity.

**Theorem 4.1.** For any integer $d \geq 2$ and $n > \left(\frac{d+2}{2}\right)$, there exists a $t \times n$ matrix that is $d$-disjunct with constant column weights $w = ld + 1$ and constant row weights $p = n^{1/t}$ with

$$t = (ld + 1)^{i^*/\sqrt{n}},$$

where $l$ is any integer satisfying $ld + 1 \leq i^*/\sqrt{n}$ and $i^*/\sqrt{n}$ is a prime power. Furthermore, the decoding can be done in time $\text{poly}(d) + O(t)$ and each entry can be computed in space $\text{poly}(\log n)$.

**Proof.** The construction is based on Kautz and Singleton’s construction where the field size and block length are chosen according to what has been presented in Section 3. The decoding procedure is as follows. For an output vector $Y \in \{0,1\}^t$, we can consider it as $Y = (Y_1, \ldots, Y_n)$, a vector in $(\{0,1\}^{q})^{t_q}$ where $t_q = ld + 1$ is the block length of the outer Reed-Solomon code. Note that since we use the identity code as the inner code, for each $i \in [t_q]$, $Y_i$ will have at most $d$ ones and the position of ones will correspond to the symbols of defective items in the outer code. We now apply the following procedure. For each $i \in [t_q]$, we create the sets $S_i \subseteq [q]$ such that $S_i$ consists of the set of position of ones in $Y_i$. It follows that $|S_i| \leq d$, for every $i \in [t_q]$. We further have the following property. For any defective item, the corresponding codeword $(c_1, \ldots, c_{t_q})$ in the outer code must satisfy $c_i \in S_i$ for all $i \in [t_q]$ and for any non-defective item, the corresponding codeword $(c_1, \ldots, c_{t_q})$ in the outer code will include a symbol $c_i$ such that $c_i \notin S_i$. Note that this step can be done in $O(t)$ time.

The second step is to output all codewords $(c_1, \ldots, c_{t_q})$ in the outer code such that $c_i \in S_i$ for all $i \in [t_q]$ given $S_i \subseteq [q]$ with $|S_i| \leq d$ for every $1 \leq i \leq t_q$. This problem is an instance of the error-free list recovery problem [19, 17, 34]. When each set $S_i$ has at most $s$ elements, it is referred to as list recovering with input lists of size $s$. It has been shown that the corresponding error-free list recovery problem can be solved in polynomial time for a $[t_q, k_q, t_q - k_q + 1]_q$ Reed-Solomon code as long as the parameter $s$ satisfies $s < \lfloor \frac{t_q}{k_q - 1} \rfloor$ [19, 20]. We note that in our case, we have $s = d$, $t_q = ld + 1$, and $k_q = l + 1$, therefore it satisfies that $s < \lfloor \frac{t_q}{k_q - 1} \rfloor$. It follows that the second step can be done in time $\text{poly}(t_q)$. In particular, we can use the algorithm in [1] that runs in time $\text{poly}(d) \cdot t_q \log^2 t_q \log \log t_q$ which is $\text{poly}(d)$ with our choice of $t_q$. The error-free list recovery problem that we are interested in solving is a special case of a more general problem known as soft decoding which is defined as follows. The decoder is given a set of non-negative weights corresponding to each row and each symbol $(w_{i,\alpha}, i \in [t_q], \alpha \in [q])$ and a threshold $W \geq 0$. The decoder
needs to output all codewords \((c_1, \ldots, c_q)\) in \(q\)-ary code of block length \(t_q\) that satisfy

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{t_q} w_{i,c_i} \geq W.
\]

Note that the error-free list recovery is a special case of soft decoding under the parameters \(W = t_q\) and \(w_{i,\alpha} = 1\) for \(\alpha \in S_i\) and \(w_{i,\alpha} = 0\) otherwise. The soft decoding is related to weighted polynomial reconstruction problem which is defined as follows. For the given integer parameters \(k\) and \(N\) with \(N\) points \((x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_N, y_N)\) and their corresponding weights \(w(x_1, y_1), \ldots, w(x_N, y_N)\), the goal is to output all polynomials of degree at most \(k\) such that \(\sum_{i:p(x_i)=y_i} w(x_i, y_i) \geq W\). The algorithm presented in [1] solves this problem and runs in time \(\text{poly}(d)\) translated to our case. Combining the two steps, we conclude that the decoding can be done in time \(\text{poly}(d) + O(t)\).

The reconstruction of the matrix with the claimed space complexity follows from the fact that any position in a Reed-Solomon codeword can be computed in space \(\text{poly}(k, \log q)\) and any bit value of the identity inner code can be computed in \(O(\log q)\) space.

5. Proofs for Sparse Codewords.

5.1. Proof of Theorem 3.1. We begin with the lower bound. We consider \(M\) to be a \(t \times n\) \(d\)-disjunct matrix. We will separate the columns of this matrix into 2 groups \(N_1, N_2 \subseteq [n]\) such that \(N_1 \cup N_2 = [n]\) and \(N_1 \cap N_2 = \emptyset\). We define a row \(i \in [t]\) to be private for a column \(j\), if \(j\) is the only column in the matrix having a one on row \(i\). If a column \(M_j\) has weight at most \(d\), then it must have at least one private row, otherwise we can find at most \(d\) columns such that their union will span \(M_j\) which contradicts with \(d\)-disjunctiveness. Now consider all the columns that have weights equal to \(d + 1\). It may well be possible that some of them also have private rows. Hence, we construct the first set \(N_1\) such that it includes the columns whose weights are less than or equal to \(d\) and the ones that have weights equal to \(d + 1\) such that they have at least one private row. The second set \(N_2\) consists of the rest of the columns; i.e., the ones that have weights equal to \(d + 1\) and do not have any private row. Defining \(w_j\) to be weight of the column \(j\) for \(1 \leq j \leq n\), more formally we write

\[
N_1 = \{j \in [n] \mid w_j \leq d \text{ or } w_j = d + 1 \text{ and } M_j \text{ has at least one private row}\},
\]

\[
N_2 = \{j \in [n] \mid w_j = d + 1 \text{ and } M_j \text{ has no private row}\}.
\]

Note that by construction, \(N_1 \cup N_2 = [n]\) and \(N_1 \cap N_2 = \emptyset\), hence \(n = |N_1| + |N_2|\). In the following, we will bound the size of both sets \(N_1\) and \(N_2\).

We note that each column in the set \(N_1\) has at least one private row and by definition of the private row it cannot be shared by two distinct columns. Since there could be at most \(t\) private rows, we have \(|N_1| \leq t\).

We now consider the set \(N_2\). We generalize the definition of the private row to the private set as follows. A private set for a column is defined as a set of position of ones such that no other column can cover these positions by itself; i.e., no other column has all ones in these positions. We claim that all size-2 sets of positions of ones of a column in set \(N_2\) must be private; i.e., all pairs of positions of ones must be private for a column in set \(N_2\). We prove this by contradiction. Assume there exists a column in the set \(N_2\) such that it has at least one pair of positions of ones which is not private. This means that there exists another column which can cover these positions. Note that any column in the set \(N_2\) has weight \(d + 1\) and has no private row, therefore, there are \(d - 1\) positions of ones except this pair and we can find at most \(d - 1\) columns that can cover union of these positions. This yields that we can find at most \(d\) columns that can cover all \(d + 1\) positions of ones of this column which contradicts with the \(d\)-disjunctiveness. Note that there are \({d + 1 \choose 2}\) number of pairs of position of ones and by definition of a private set it cannot be shared by two distinct columns. We further note that each column in the set \(N_1\) will have a private row and it must be the case that the columns in the set \(N_2\) must have a zero in these rows, therefore, there could be at most
Note that by construction, \( j \in N \) for any column \( j \). More formally, \( \{ j \in [n] \mid w_j \leq d \text{ or } w_j = d + 1 \text{ and } M_j \text{ has at least one private row} \} \), \( N_i = \{ j \in [n] \mid (i - 2)d + 2 \leq w_j \leq (i - 1)d + 1 \text{ and } M_j \text{ has no private set of size } i - 1 \) or \( (i - 1)d + 2 \leq w_j \leq id + 1 \text{ and } M_j \text{ has at least one private set of size } i \}, \) for \( i = 2, \ldots, l \), \( N_{l+1} = \{ j \in [n] \mid (l - 1)d + 2 \leq w_j \leq ld + 1 \text{ and } M_j \text{ has no private set of size } l \} \). Note that by construction, \( N_1 \cup \ldots \cup N_{l+1} = [n] \) and \( N_i \cap N_j = \emptyset \) for any \( i, j \in [l+1] \) such that \( i \neq j \), hence \( n = |N_1| + \ldots + |N_{l+1}| \). In the following, we will bound the size of these sets.

Recalling the discussion in the previous section, we have \( |N_1| \leq t \). Consider the sets \( N_i \) for \( i = 2, \ldots, l \). For any column \( j \in N_i \), if we have \( (i - 1)d + 2 \leq w_j \leq id + 1 \), then by construction \( M_j \) has at least one
private set of size $i$. For the case $(i - 2)d + 2 \leq w_j \leq (i - 1)d + 1$, we claim that all the sets of positions of ones of size $i$ must be private for the column $M_j$. We can similarly show this by contradiction. Assume there exists a set of positions of ones of size $i$ such that it is not private for the column $M_j$. Then we can find a column that can cover these positions. Since by construction of set $N_i$, the column $M_j$ has no private set of size $i - 1$, one can find at most $((i - 1)d + 1 - i)/(i - 1) = d - 1$ columns that will cover the rest of the positions of ones. Hence we have at most $d$ columns covering the column $M_j$ which contradicts the $d$-disjunctiveness. Therefore, we obtain that all the columns in the set $N_i$ must have at least one private set of size $i$. Since the private sets cannot be shared among columns and we have at most $\binom{t}{i}$ private sets of size $i$, it yields $|N_i| \leq \binom{t}{i}$. For the last set $N_{t+1}$, similar arguments apply and for each column, it should be the case that all the set of positions of ones of size $l + 1$ must be private. Since $w_j \geq (l - 1)d + 2$ for $j \in N_{t+1}$, we have $|N_{t+1}|(\binom{t}{i}d^{l+2}) \leq \binom{t}{i+1}$. Therefore,

$$n = |N_1| + \ldots + |N_{t+1}|$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{t} \binom{t}{i} + \binom{t}{i+1} \left(\frac{1}{t+1}\right)$$

$$\leq \left(\frac{et}{t}\right)^t + \frac{t \ldots (t-l)}{t+1}$$

$$\leq e^{t^2} t^{l+1} + \frac{t \ldots (t-l)}{t+1}$$

$$\leq e^{t^2} \left(\frac{t}{l+1}\right)^{t+1}$$

$$= t^{l+1} \left(\frac{2e^{t}}{l+1}\right)^{l+1} + \frac{t \ldots (t-l)}{t+1}$$

$$= t^{l+1} \left(\frac{2e^{t}}{l+1}\right)^{l+1} + \frac{t \ldots (t-l)}{t+1}$$

where (i) is due to the inequality $\sum_{i=0}^{t} \binom{t}{i} \leq \left(\frac{et}{t}\right)^t$ for $t \geq 1$, (ii) is bounding all the terms in the numerator by $t$ and denominator by $(l - 1)(d - 1)$ and in (iii) we use (2.1) and $\binom{t+2}{i} \geq \frac{(d+1)^2}{2}$. This completes the lower bound.

For the achievability, we can use the Kautz and Singleton construction. Consider the case where all weights are equal to $ld + 1$ by choosing $w = t_q = ld + 1$ and $k_q = t + 1$. With this choice, since $n = qk_q$, we obtain $q = 1 + \sqrt{n}$ and therefore $t = (ld + 1)1 + \sqrt{n}$. Note that in order to satisfy the requirement $q \geq t_q$ where $q$ is any prime power, we must ensure that $ld + 1 \leq 1 + \sqrt{n}$ and $q = 1 + \sqrt{n}$ is any prime power. This completes the proof for the upper bound.

6. Proofs for Sparse Tests Setting.

6.1. Proof of Theorem 3.3. We start with the lower bound. Suppose we have a $t \times n$ matrix that is $d$-disjunct and all the rows are bounded with weight $\rho_{\text{max}}$. We consider the columns that have weight less than or equal to $d$. From the discussions before, all these columns must have a private row. Let us delete these columns and one private row for each column. Note that if a column has more than one private row, we can arbitrarily choose any one of them and delete it. We will be deleting one private row per such column and it is possible since they all have at least one private row and a private row cannot be shared by two different columns.

Let us denote $t_1$ by the number of columns whose weight is less than or equal to $d$. From the discussion of private rows, it follows that $0 \leq t_1 \leq t$. After the deletion operation, the dimension of the resulting matrix is $(t-t_1) \times (n-t_1)$ and the matrix is still $d$-disjunct since we are only deleting the zero-entries of the rest
of the columns, therefore, they must still satisfy the \(d\)-disjunctiveness. We also note that the rows are still bounded with weight \(\rho_{\text{max}}\).

We observe that in the resulting matrix, all the columns will have at least weight of \(d + 1\) and therefore the total number of ones in the resulting matrix can be lower bounded by \((d + 1)(n - t_1)\) and upper bounded by \(\rho_{\text{max}}(t - t_1)\). Hence, \(\rho_{\text{max}}t \geq \rho_{\text{max}}(t - t_1) \geq (d + 1)(n - t_1) \geq (d + 1)(n - t)\) and it follows that

\[
t \geq \frac{(d + 1)n}{\rho_{\text{max}} + d + 1}.
\]

For the achievability, we can use the Kautz and Singleton construction. Choosing \(k_q = l + 1\) for an integer \(l \geq 1\) and \(t_q = ld + 1\), we get \(q = \frac{l + 1}{\sqrt{n}}\) with \(t = (ld + 1)\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\) where we have constant row weight of \(\rho = n^{\frac{l}{1+\alpha}}\). In order to satisfy the requirement \(q \geq t_q\) where \(q\) is any prime power, we must ensure that \(ld + 1 \leq \frac{l + 1}{\sqrt{n}}\) and \(q = \frac{l + 1}{\sqrt{n}}\) is any prime power. This completes the proof for the achievability.

6.2. Proof of Proposition 3.4. Proposition 3.4 follows immediately from the proof of Theorem 3.3, provided in Section 6.1. Indeed, from Equation (2), observe that if \(\rho = d + 1\), then we have \(t - t_1 \geq n - t_1\) which yields \(t \geq n\).

6.3. Proof of Theorem 3.5. Let us construct the matrix \(M\) randomly as follows. For a fixed \(\alpha \in (0, 1)\), we choose \(t = cn^{1-\alpha}d\) for some constant \(c\) such that \(c > \frac{5}{\alpha}\). We set the size of the matrix \(M\) as \(t \times n\) and choose the columns of this matrix uniformly at random among the codewords of size \(t\) with weight \(w\) where we set \(w = cd\).

We next calculate the probability of not having a \(d\)-disjunct matrix. Let us fix \(d + 1\) columns of the matrix \(M\) and denote them as \(M_1, \ldots, M_{d+1}\). Let us further fix a single column among them, say \(M_{d+1}\). The probability of \(M_{d+1}\) being covered by \(M_1, \ldots, M_d\) could be bounded as

\[
\Pr(M_1, \ldots, M_d \text{ covers } M_{d+1}) \leq \left(\frac{dw}{w}\right)^t,
\]

since \(M_1, \ldots, M_d\) can have at most \(dw\) non-intersecting number of ones. Using union bound, the probability that the matrix \(M\) does not satisfy the \(d\)-disjunctiveness property can be bounded as

\[
\Pr(M \text{ is not } d\text{-disjunct}) \leq (d + 1)\left(\frac{n}{d + 1}\right)^t \left(\frac{dw}{w}\right)^t.
\]

We can further bound this as

\[
\Pr(M \text{ is not } d\text{-disjunct}) \leq (d + 1)\left(\frac{ne}{d + 1}\right)^{d+1} \left(\frac{dwe}{t}\right)^w
\]

\[
\leq (d + 1)\left(\frac{ne}{d + 1}\right)^{d+1} \left(\frac{dwe}{t}\right)^w
\]

\[
= (d + 1)\left(\frac{ne}{d + 1}\right)^{d+1} \left(\frac{de}{t}\right)^w
\]

\[
= (d + 1)^d \left(\frac{de}{n^{1-\alpha}}\right)^{cd}
\]

\[
= (d + 1)^d \left(\frac{de}{n^{1-\alpha}}\right)^{cd},
\]

(3)
where (i) is due to the inequality \((\frac{n}{k})^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k\) and in (ii) we insert \(w = cd\) and \(t = cn^{1-\alpha}d\). Taking the logarithm of the last term in (3) gives us

\[
(d + 1)(\log n + 1) - d\log(d + 1) + cd(\log d + 1) - cd(1 - \alpha)\log n \leq 4d\log n + 3cd\log d - 5d\log n
\]

\[
= 3cd\log d - d\log n
\]

\[
\leq -0.5d\log n
\]

for sufficiently large \(n\) when \(d = O(\log n)\). Hence,

\[
(4) \quad \mathbb{P}(M \text{ is not } d\text{-disjunct}) \leq n^{-0.5d} \leq n^{-1}.
\]

We next investigate the weights of the rows of the matrix \(M\). We consider the first row. Note that by our random construction, it follows that each entry in the first row is independent and identically distributed with Bernoulli distribution where the probability of having one is \(\binom{d-1}{e-1} = \frac{e}{t}\). Denoting \(\rho_1\) as the weight of the first row, we have \(\mathbb{E}[\rho_1] = \frac{e}{t}n = n^\alpha\). Using Hoeffding’s inequality along with union bound, we achieve the following upper bound on the probability that there exists a row with its weight deviating from \(n^\alpha\)

\[
\mathbb{P} \left( \exists i \in [t] \text{ s.t. } |\rho_i - n^\alpha| \geq \delta n^\alpha \right) \leq 2t e^{-2n^{\alpha} \delta^2}
\]

\[
= 2cn^{1-\alpha}de^{-2n^{\alpha}\delta^2}
\]

for some fixed constant \(0 < \delta < 1\). For sufficiently large \(n\), the right-hand side of (5) can be bounded as \(e^{-kn^\alpha}\) for some small constant \(k > 0\) when \(d = O(\log n)\).

Together with (4), using union bound, it follows that with probability approaching to 1, we get a \(d\)-disjunct matrix with row weight \(\Theta(n^\alpha)\) and \(t = \Theta(dn^{1-\alpha})\).

7. Related Work. Group testing algorithms can be broadly partitioned into adaptive or non-adaptive [26, 9]. In adaptive group testing, the tests are designed sequentially, meaning that the \(j^{th}\) test is a function of the outcomes of the \(j - 1\) previous tests. In non-adaptive group testing, the tests are designed and fixed a priori. Even though adaptive group testing offers more freedom in design, it is known that it does not improve upon non-adaptive group testing by more than a factor \(d\) in the number of required tests [26, 9]. In addition to adaptivity, group testing algorithms can be partitioned into combinatorial [26, 9] or probabilistic [3, 5, 32, 23]. Combinatorial group testing approaches recover the set of defective items with probability one. In contrast, the probabilistic approach allows for a small probability of making a mistake that asymptotically (in the number of items) goes to zero. Relative to combinatorial group testing, the probabilistic approach requires a factor of \(d\) less tests when an \(\varepsilon\) probability of error is tolerable [3].

A large body of work in group testing focuses on designing \(d\)-disjunct matrices with minimal \(t(d, n)\). When \(d \geq 2\) and \(\binom{d+1}{2} < n\), it is known that

\[
t(d, n) \geq \frac{(d + 1)^2}{12 \log d} \log n = \Omega \left( \frac{d^2}{\log d} \log n \right).
\]

One of the earliest constructions of explicit disjunct matrices due to Kautz and Singleton achieves \(t = O(d^2 \log_2 n)\) [22]. Their construction uses a Reed-Solomon code concatenated with a nonlinear identity code. A more recent construction by Porat and Rothschild achieves \(t = O(d^2 \log n)\) [29]. These are the best lower and upper bounds known on \(t(d, n)\), with a \(\log d\) gap to optimality.

Much of the recent research efforts have focused on designing testing strategies that can be decoded in \(\text{poly}(t)\)-time, while preserving the order of \(t\) as much as possible. [18] gives a result with an efficient decoding time, however, using \(O(d^3 \log n)\) tests. The first result that achieves an efficient decoding time while matching the \(O(d^2 \log n)\) bound on the number of tests was recently presented in [21].

To the best of our knowledge, our problem formulation is novel and has not been widely explored in the group testing literature. The only exception is a recent paper by Gandikota et al. [13]. However, Gandikota
et al. focus (for the most part) on statistical approaches that provide lower and upper bounds on the number of tests such that the testing achieves an \( \epsilon \)-error on decoding the defective set while our approach is purely combinatorial. They use information theoretic techniques based on Fano’s inequality to prove lower bounds for the \( \epsilon \)-error case and then specialize their bound for the 0-error case. For the construction of \( d \)-disjunct matrices with constraints on the column and row weights, they use randomized designs while we provide explicit constructions. For explicit constructions, they refer to [25], however, the construction in [25] is highly suboptimal as we discuss next.

In this paper, we departed from the classical combinatorial group testing setting, is order optimal in this setting. We also presented lower bounds on the testing framework and studied the fundamental trade-off between the number of participants in a test (sparse tests) or the number of tests per item (sparse codewords).

| Setting                  | This paper                      | Gandikota et al. [13]                 |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
|                          | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Sparse Codewords          | \( \Omega \left( d^{\frac{2}{l+1}} \sqrt{n} \right) \) | \( O \left( d^{\frac{1}{l+1}} \sqrt{n} \right) \) & \( \Omega \left( d^2 \left( \frac{n}{d} \right)^{\frac{1}{l+1}} \right) \) | \( O \left( d^2 \left( \frac{n}{d} \right)^{\frac{1}{l+1}} \right) \) |
| with \( w = ld + 1 \)    | (Explicit)                          | (Randomized)                         |
| Sparse Tests with \( \rho = \frac{n}{d+1} \) | \( \Omega \left( d^{\frac{1}{l+1}} \sqrt{n} \right) \) | \( O \left( d^{\frac{1}{l+1}} \sqrt{n} \right) \) & \( \Omega \left( \frac{\sqrt{n} \log(n/d)}{\log(\sqrt{n}/d)} \right) \) | \( O \left( \frac{\sqrt{n} \log(n/d)}{\log(\sqrt{n}/d)} \right) \) |

Table 1 compares the results provided in this paper with the ones presented in [13]. When the weights of the columns are constrained with \( w = ld + 1 \), the term that depends on \( n \) in our lower bound is \( \frac{1}{l+1} \sqrt{n} \) whereas [13] provides \( \frac{1}{l+1} \sqrt{n} \) which is significantly weaker. In terms of upper bound, we provide an explicit construction achieving \( O \left( d^{\frac{1}{l+1}} \sqrt{n} \right) \) which is better than the randomized construction in [13]. Note for example that when \( l = 1 \) our upper bound gives \( d \sqrt{n} \) while their upper bound gives \( d^{1+ \frac{2}{l+1}} n \). The explicit construction [25] referred in [13] provides an upper bound of \( O \left( \sqrt{n} (d+1)^{\frac{1}{d}} \right) \) which is substantially weaker than the results in this paper.

When the weights of the rows are constrained to be less than or equal to \( \rho_{max} = \frac{n}{d+1} \), one can observe that the lower bound presented in this paper achieves \( \Omega \left( d^{\frac{1}{l+1}} \sqrt{n} \right) \), which is better by a factor of \( d \) when compared to the \( \Omega \left( \frac{1}{l+1} \sqrt{n} \right) \) lower bound provided in [13]. In terms of the upper bound, we provide an explicit construction that achieves \( O \left( d^{\frac{1}{l+1}} \sqrt{n} \right) \) which matches our lower bound. On the other hand, the randomized construction in [13] is off by a factor of \( \log(n/d) \). The explicit construction [25] referred in [13] provides an upper bound of \( O \left( \sqrt{n} (d+1)^{\frac{1}{d}} \right) \) which has an exponential term in \( d \).

8. Conclusion & Discussion. In this paper, we departed from the classical combinatorial group testing framework and studied the fundamental trade-off between \( t \) and \((d,n)\) in a setting where there is a constraint on either the number of items participating in a test (sparse tests) or the number of tests per item (sparse codewords).

In the sparse codewords setting, we proved that by allowing the number of tests per item to be \( d + 1 \) instead of \( d \), one can achieve \( t = \Theta(d \sqrt{n}) \) (instead of \( t = n \)), establishing a sharp transition in \( t \). We then demonstrated that Kautz and Singleton’s construction, which is known to be strictly sub-optimal in the classical group testing setting, is order optimal in this setting. We also presented lower bounds on the number of tests with nearly matching constructions when the number of tests per item increases linearly with \( d \).

In the sparse tests setting, we showed that when the rows are constrained with weight \( d + 1 \), one cannot do better than the identity matrix, i.e., \( t = n \). We also demonstrated that Kautz and Singleton’s construction achieves \( t = O(d^{\frac{1}{l+1}} \sqrt{n}) \), and that it is order optimal when the number of participants in a test is constrained
to be less than $n^{d/\alpha}$. More generally, we proved that $t = \Theta(dn^{1-\alpha})$ when the number of participants per tests is bounded by $n^\alpha$ for any $\alpha \in (0, 1)$.

There are a number of nontrivial extensions to our work. Firstly, as the number of tests per item increases linearly with $d$ (i.e., $w = ld + 1$), the gap between our lower bounds on $t$ and the nearly matching upper bounds increases as a function of $d$. It would be interesting if one can come up with sharper lower bounds or improved constructions that could achieve better performance. Secondly, Kautz and Singleton’s construction provides $d$-disjunct matrices with row weight $\rho = n^{d/\alpha}$. Kautz and Singleton’s construction, however, cannot achieve a row weight of $n$ for some $\alpha < 1/2$. Nevertheless, as proven in Theorem 3.5, $d$-disjunct matrices with $\rho = n^\alpha$ for some real number $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ do exist. It would be interesting to know if there are optimal explicit constructions that can achieve $\rho = n^\alpha$ for some $\alpha < 1/2$, and what structures they would have.

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