Tight Bounds for Monotone Minimal Perfect Hashing

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Abstract

The monotone minimal perfect hash function (MMPHF) problem is the following indexing problem. Given a set \( S = s_1, \ldots, s_n \) of \( n \) distinct keys from a universe \( U \) of size \( u \), create a data structure \( D \) that answers the following query:

\[
\text{Rank}(q) = \begin{cases} 
\text{rank of } q \text{ in } S & q \in S \\
\text{arbitrary answer} & \text{otherwise}.
\end{cases}
\]

Solutions to the MMPHF problem are in widespread use in both theory and practice.

In this paper, we show the latter: any data structure (deterministic or randomized) for monotone minimal perfect hashing of any collection of \( n \) elements from a universe of size \( u \) requires \( (n \log \log \log u) \) expected bits to answer every query correctly.

We achieve our lower bound by defining a graph \( G \) where the nodes are the possible \( u \) inputs and where two nodes are adjacent if they cannot share the same \( D \). The size of \( D \) is then lower bounded by the log of the chromatic number of \( G \). Finally, we show that the fractional chromatic number (and hence the chromatic number) of \( G \) is lower bounded by \( 2^{(n \log \log \log u)} \).

1 Introduction

The monotone minimal perfect hash function (MMPHF) problem is the following indexing problem. Given a set \( S = s_1, \ldots, s_n \) of \( n \) distinct keys from a universe \( U \) of size \( u \), create a data structure \( D \) that answers the following query:

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\text{rank of } q \text{ in } S & q \in S \\
\text{arbitrary answer} & \text{otherwise}.
\end{cases}
\]

The name MMPHF comes from interpreting the data structure \( D \) as a hash function: given a sorted array \( A = [a_1, \ldots, a_n] \), \( D \) is hashing each \( a_i \) to its position \( i \). The hash function is minimal, meaning it maps \( n \) items to \( n \) distinct positions, and monotone, meaning \( a_i < a_j \iff D(a_i) < D(a_j) \).

It may seem strange at rst glance that \( D \) is permitted to return arbitrary answers on negative queries. A key insight, however, is that this relaxation allows for asymptotic improvements in space eciency: whereas the set \( S \) would require \((n \log(u=n))\) bits to encode, Belazzougui, Boldi, Pagh and Vigna [BBPV09] show that it is possible to construct an MMPHF \( D \) using as few as \( O(n \log \log \log u) \) bits, while supporting \( O(\log u) \)-time queries.

The remarkable space eciency of MMPHF makes it useful for a variety of practical applications (e.g., in security [BCO11], key-value stores [LFAK11] and information retrieval [Nav14]). A high-performance implementation can be found in the Sux4J library [BV08, BBPV11]. MMPHF has also been widely used in

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*A full version of the paper is available at: https://arxiv.org/abs/2207.10556.*
the theory community for the design of space-efficient combinatorial pattern-matching algorithms (see, e.g., [BN14, GNP20, Bel14, BN15, CFP+15, BCKM20, BGMP16, GOR10]).

Despite the widespread use of MMPHF, it remains an open question [BBPV09, Bol15, D+18] to determine the optimal bounds for solving this problem. The best lower bound achieved so far [BBPV11, D+18] is \((n)\) bits (which follows immediately from the same lower bound for minimal perfect hashing [Meh82]). Even disregarding applications (and the running time to answer queries), the information-theoretic question as to how many bits a MMPHF requires has been posed as a problem of independent combinatorial interest [D+18].

Our result. We fully settle this question by establishing the following result:

**Theorem 1** (Formalized in Theorem 2). Any data structure (deterministic or randomized) for monotone minimal perfect hashing of any collection of \(n\) elements from a universe of size \(u\) requires \((n \log \log \log u)\) expected bits to answer every query correctly. The lower bound holds whenever \(u \geq n^{\log n}\) and at most \(\exp(\text{poly}(n))\).

Thus, surprisingly, the \(O(n \log \log \log u)\) bound achieved by [BBPV09] is asymptotically optimal. The boundary conditions on \(u\) in Theorem 1 are also natural in the following sense. There are two trivial solutions for MMPHF. One encodes the input set \(S\) in \(O(u)\) bits and the other builds a perfect hash table from elements of \(S\) to their rank in \(O(n \log n)\) space. When \(u\) is very small, say, \(u = O(n)\), the rst solution uses \(O(u) = o(n \log \log \log u)\) bits. And when \(u\) is very large, that is when \(u\) is even beyond \(\exp(\text{exp}(\text{poly}(n)))\), then the \(O(n \log n)\)-bit solution uses \(o(n \log \log \log u)\) bits. (See also the variable-size bucketing reduction of [BBPV11] which reduces the universe size from \(u\) to \(u = n\)). Our lower bound in Theorem 1 covers almost the entire range in between.

The lower bound achieved by Theorem 1 is remarkably general: it applies independently of the running time of the data structure; and it applies even to randomized data structures that are permitted to store their random bits for free.

Our techniques. The most intuitive approach toward proving a lower bound of \(d\) bits on the size of an MMPHF is to encode a \(d\)-bit string into the state of the data structure. This approach is already hindered by the fact that MMPHFs only support positive queries, however. If the user already knows which elements are in the input, then the MMPHF encodes no interesting information but if the user only has partial information about the input, then the user can only get useful information from a small portion of possible MMPHF queries. The previous \(n\) lower bound of [Meh82, BBPV11, D+18] addresses this as follows: consider any bit-string \(x\) \(f 0; 1g^d\) and dene:

\[
S(x) := \{3; 6; \ldots; 3d - 1\} \cup \{3i + 1 | i \in [d]; x_i = 1\} \cup \{3i - 1 | i \in [d]; x_i = 0\}.
\]

For every \(i \in [d]\), rstly, \(3i\) belongs to \(S(x)\) and thus is a positive query, and secondly, \(\text{Rank}(3i) = 2(i + 1) + x_i\). This allows us to recover \(x\) from any MMPHF for \(S(x)\), proving a lower bound of \(d = (n)\) bits for MMPHF on size-\(n\) subsets of universe \([3n + 1]\). This approach, however, seems to be stuck at proving any !(\(n\)) lower bound as these "direct encodings" ignore the delicate interaction between different elements in the input set.

To get around these obstacles, we take a dierent approach to proving Theorem 1. We construct a \(\text{\textbackslash conic graph}\) \(G\) whose vertices are the possible inputs to an MMPHF problem for a xed \(n\) and \(u\). Two vertices are adjacent in \(G\) if they cannot have the same MMPHF index, that is, if the vertices share an element but with a dierent rank. Any MMPHF induces a proper coloring of this graph, where the color of a vertex corresponds to its MMPHF representation. As a result, the chromatic number of the conic graph is a lower bound on how many dierent MMPHF representations we must have, implying that some input must have a representation of size at least \(\log(G)\) bits. This reduces our task to combinatorial problem of lower bounding \((G)\).\(^2\)

The problem of bounding chromatic numbers of graphs dened over these types of set-systems has a rich history in the discrete math literature; see, e.g. [EH66, FHRT92, DLR95, ST11]. For instance, Erdős and Hajnal [EH66]

\(\text{\textbackslash(footnote)}\)

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\(^4\)Any lower bound of \(d\) bits for a data structure immediately implies an encoding of \(d\)-bit strings in the state of the data structure by just assigning one bit-string to each state. This means that there is never a formal proof that one cannot encode a bit-string in a data structure and still prove a lower bound.

\(^2\)Slightly more care must be taken when bounding the expected size of a MMPHF that is permitted to take dierent sizes on dierent inputs.
study shift-graphs that have vertices corresponding to \( n \)-element subsets of \([u]\) and edges between vertices \((a_1; a_2; \ldots; a_n)\) and \((a_2; \ldots; a_n; a_{n+1})\) for all \( a_1 < a_2 < \cdots < a_{n+1} \). They prove that the chromatic number of the shift-graph is \((1 + o(1)) \log^{n-1}(u)\), namely, the \((n - 1)\)-th iterated logarithm of \( u \). The shift-graph is a subgraph of our conict graph. Thus, by taking \( u = 2 \) \((n)\), i.e., the tower of twos of height \( n \), we can have \((G) = 2^{l(n)}\), and thus prove an \( (n) \) lower bound for MMPHF on \( n \)-subsets of (extremely large) universes of size \( u = 2 \) \((n)\). This is the starting point of our approach. We now need to dramatically decrease the size of the universe, while also dramatically increasing the bound on the chromatic number by considering the conict graph itself, and not only its shift-subgraph.

To lower bound the chromatic number of the conict graph, we consider the relaxation of this problem via fractional colorings (see Section 2.2). Given that this latter problem can be formulated as a linear program \((LP)\), a natural way for proving a lower bound on its value is to exhibit a feasible dual solution instead\(^3\). This corresponds to the following problem: exhibit a distribution on vertices of the graph so that for any independent set, the probability that a vertex sampled from the distribution belongs to the independent set is bounded by \(p\); this then implies that the fractional chromatic number (and in turn the chromatic number) are lower bounded by \(1/p\). The main technical novelty of our work lies in the introduction of a highly non-trivial such distribution and the analysis of this probability bound for each independent set (we postpone the overview of this part to Section 4.1 after we setup the required background). This allows us to lower bound the (fractional) chromatic number of the conict-graph

\[
\text{by} \quad (n \log n) \text{ when the universe is of size } u = 2^{\log \log \log u} \text{ which gives an} \quad (n \log \log \log u) \text{ lower bound for MMPHF on such universes.}
\]

Working with fractional colorings, beside being an immensely helpful analytical tool, has several additional benets for us. Firstly, unlike standard (integral) colorings, fractional colorings admit a natural direct product property over a certain union of graphs; this allows us to extend the lower bound for MMPHF from universes of size doubly exponential in \( n \) (which are admittedly not the most interesting setting of parameters), all the way down to universes of size \( n^{1+o(1)} \). Secondly, unlike the (integral) chromatic number, which yields a lower bound only on the space of deterministic MMPHFs, we show that lower bounding the fractional chromatic number allows us to prove a lower bound even for randomized MMPHFs that have access to their randomness for free. We believe this technique, namely, dening a proper conict graph and bounding its fractional coloring by exhibiting a feasible dual solution, may be applicable to many other data structure problems and is therefore interesting in its own right.

2 Preliminaries

Notation. For any integer \( t > s > 1 \), we let \([t] := f_1; \ldots; f_t\) and let \([s : t] := f_s; \ldots; f_t\). For a tuple \((X_1; \ldots; X_t)\), we further denote \(X_{<i} := (X_1; \ldots; X_{i-1})\) and \(X_{>i} := (X_{i+1}; \ldots; X_t)\).

2.1 Problem Denition and Model of Computation For any integer \( n; u > 1 \), we let \(D(n; u)\) be an MMPHF indexing algorithm for size-\(n\) subsets of \([u]\). That is, if \(S_{n;u} = fS \quad [u] \text{ s.t. } |S| = n\) then for all \( S \subseteq S_{n;u}\), \(D(S)\) is the MMPHF index for \( S \).

For any xed choice of random bits \( r \), we use \( D'\) to denote the resulting MMPHF with random bits \( r \). Note that for any xed choice of \( r \), \( D'\) is deterministic. For any \( S \subseteq S_{n;u}\) and randomness \( r \), denote \(d'(S)\) as the size in bits of the MMPHF index \( D'(S)\). Dene:

\[
d(n; u) := \max_{S \in S_{n;u}} E[d'(S)];
\]

When \( n \) and \( u \) are clear, we drop them and refer simply to \( D \) and \( d \).

In this denition of size, we are not charging the algorithm for storing its randomness. In other words, the algorithm has access to a tape of random bits chosen independent of the input that it can use for both creating the index as well as answering the queries. Furthermore, we also allow the algorithm unbounded computation time\(^4\). Thus, the only measure of interest for us is the size of the index. Finally, any deterministic MMPHF in this

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\(^3\)This is an inherently di erent technique than the one used in [EH66] for the shift-graph, as it is known that the fractional chromatic number of the shift-graph is \( O(1) \) (see, e.g., [ST11])

\(^4\)In this (non-uniform) information-theoretical setting, one can remove random bits entirely by increasing the space with \( O(\log n + \log \log u)\) bits (see, e.g., Newman’s Theorem in communication complexity [New92]), but this extra \( O(\log \log u)\) is in
model is simply a randomized MMPHF that ignores its random bits and thus we will only focus on randomized MMPHFs from now on.

2.2 Fractional Colorings A key tool that we use in establishing our lower bound is the notion of a fractional coloring of a graph. We now review the basics of fractional colorings, which we need in our proofs. The results mentioned in this subsection are all standard; see, e.g. [SU11] (we present self-contained proofs of these results in Appendix A for completeness).

Let $G = (V; E)$ be any undirected graph. A proper coloring of $G$ is any assignment of colors to vertices of $G$ so that no edge is monochromatic. The chromatic number $(G)$ is the minimum number of colors in any proper coloring of $G$.

Let $I(G) = 2^V$ denote the set of all independent sets in $G$, and for any vertex $v \in V$, define $I(G; v)$ as the set of all independent sets that contain the vertex $v$. A fractional coloring of $G$ is any assignment of $x \in [0; 1]^{I(G)}$ to the independent sets of $G$ satisfying the following constraint:

$$\text{for every vertex } v \in V: \quad \sum_{I \in I(G; v)} x_I > 1$$

The value $jx$ of a fractional coloring $x$ is given by $\sum_{I \in I(G; v)} x_I$. The fractional chromatic number $\chi_f(G)$ is the minimum value of any fractional coloring of $G$. This quantity can be formalized as a linear program (LP):

$$\chi_f(G) := \min_{x \in [0; 1]^{I(G)}} \sum_{v \in V} x_I \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{I \in I(G; v)} x_I > 1 \quad \forall v \in V$$

Any proper coloring of $G$ with $k$ colors induces a solution $x$ of value $k$ to this LP, where $x_I$ is set to 1 for the independent sets $I$ that correspond to (whole) color classes in the coloring. Thus the LP given by Eq (2.1) is indeed a relaxation of the original coloring problem.

Fact 2.1. For any graph $G$, $\chi_f(G) \geq (G)$.

It is worth mentioning that at the same time $(G) = O(\log jV(G))$ using the standard randomized rounding argument (we do not use this direction explicitly in our paper).

A primal-dual analysis of the fractional-chromatic-number LP implies the following results. These results are standard but we provide proofs in Appendix A for completeness.

Proposition 2.2. Let $G_1 = (V_1; E_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2; E_2)$ be arbitrary graphs. Dene $G_1 \_ G_2$ as a graph on vertices $V_1 \cup V_2$ and dene an edge between vertices $(v_1; v_2)$ and $(w_1; w_2)$ whenever $(v_1; w_1)$ is an edge in $G_1$ or $(v_2; w_2)$ is an edge in $G_2$. Then, $\chi_f(G_1 \_ G_2) = \chi_f(G_1) \cdot \chi_f(G_2)$.

Proposition 2.2 allows us to determine $\chi_f$ of a product of several graphs by focusing on each individual graph separately.

Proposition 2.3. For any graph $G = (V; E)$,

$$\chi_f(G) = \max_{\text{distribution on } V} \min_{I \in I(G)} \Pr\{v \in I\}$$

Proposition 2.3 provides us with a tool to lower bound $\chi_f$ by nding a suitable distribution on the vertices so that no independent set has a signiicant probability of containing a vertex sampled from this distribution.

3 A Lower Bound for MMPHF via Fractional Colorings

We can now formally state the main theorem of this paper.

\begin{quote}
\textit{general unavoidable (see, e.g. [HT01] and references therein), and can be prohibitive for us when } u \textit{ is suciently large. Hence, we still explicitly account for randomized data structures in our lower bound.}
\end{quote}
Theorem 2 (Formalization of Theorem 1). For any \( n; u \in \mathbb{N}^+ \) such that \( n \leq \frac{2^{u-6}}{u} \leq 2^{n^2 + n} \), and for any MMPHF algorithm \( D(n; u) \),

\[
d(n; u) = (n \log \log \log u);
\]

The rest of the paper presents the proof of Theorem 2. We spend the rest of the section reframing the theorem in terms of the fractional chromatic number of a certain graph associated with the MMPHF problem. We will then show how to lower bound the fractional chromatic number in the next section.

3.1 Conict Graph and its Fractional Chromatic Number Let \( m > 1 \) be an integer and denote \( M := 2m^2 + m \). Define the graph \( G(m) := (V(M); E(m)) \) as:

- The vertex set is \( V(M) = S_m \cup M \), that is, the size-\( m \) subsets of \([M]\). We denote each vertex \( v \in V(M) \) by the \( m \)-tuple \( v := (v_1; \ldots; v_m) \) where \( 0 < v_1 < v_2 < \ldots < v_m \in M \).

- The edge set \( E(m) \) is defined as follows. Let \( v = (v_1; \ldots; v_m) \) and \( w = (w_1; \ldots; w_m) \) be any two vertices in \( V(M) \). Then, there is an edge \((v; w) \in G(m)\) if there exists some pair of indexes \( i = j \in [m] \) such that \( v_i = w_j \).

We refer to \( G(m) \) as the conict graph of \( m \). The following lemma clarifies our interest in this graph by showing that fractional chromatic number of \( G(m) \) can be used to lower bound size of any MMPHF (for certain parameters of input).

Lemma 3.1. Let \( m > 1 \) be an integer and let \( M := 2m^2 + m \). For any MMPHF \( D(m; M) \),

\[
d(m; M) > (\log f(G(m)))^{2=2}:
\]

Proof. Consider any two vertices \( v; w \in G(m) \). If there is an edge between \( v \) and \( w \), then there exists an element \( z = v_i = w_j \); \( i = j \). Therefore for every choice of randomness \( r \), \( D'(v) = D'(w) \), because query \( z \) must return \( i \) on \( D'(v) \) and \( j \) on \( D'(w) \). This implies that for every \( r \), the set of vertices \( v \) with the same \( D'(v) \) form an independent set in \( G(m) \) (and the collection of these sets is a coloring of \( G(m) \)). We use \( \mathcal{I}^r \) to denote these independent sets in \( G(m) \) for this choice of \( r \).

On the other hand, by Proposition 2.3, there exists a distribution \( \xi \) on \( V(M) \) such that

\[
(3.2) \quad \{G(m)\} = \min_{1 \leq I \subseteq \mathcal{I}(G(m))} \Pr_{\xi}(v \in I) ;
\]

Let us x that distribution. Under this distribution, by the denition of \( d \),

\[
d = d(m; M) = \max_{v \in V(M)} \mathbb{E}_r \left[ d'(v) \right] > \mathbb{E}_r \left[ d'(v) \right] = \mathbb{E}_r \left[ d'(v) \right] ;
\]

An averaging argument now implies that there exists a choice \( r \) of random bits such that

\[
h \in \mathbb{E}_r \left[ d'(v) \right] \geq d;
\]

By Markov's inequality, with probability at least \( 1=2 \), for \( r \), we have that \( d'(v) \geq 2d \).

Recall that \( D'(v) \) corresponds to an independent set in \( I_r \). Moreover, there can be at most \( 2^{2d+1} \) \( 2 \) independent sets \( I \) in \( I_r \) such that for all \( v \in I \), \( d'(v) \geq 2d \); this is because there are at most \( 2^{2d+1} \) \( 2 \) choices for \( D'(v) \) across all \( v \in V(M) \) that can use up to \( 2d \) bits in their index (as the number of non-empty binary strings of length at most \( 2d \) is \( 2^{2d+1} \) \( 2 \)). Since a random \( v \in I_r \) belongs to one of these \( 2^{2d+1} \) \( 2 \) independent sets with probability at least \( 1/2 \), we necessarily have some independent set \( I \subseteq \mathcal{I}_r \) where

\[
\Pr_{\eta}(v \in I) = \frac{1}{2} \geq \frac{1}{2^{2d+2} (2d+1)} \geq \frac{1}{2^{2d+2} (2d+1)} ;
\]

Plugging in this bound in Eq (3.2), we have,

\[
\{G(m)\} \geq 2^d + 2 ;
\]

which implies that \( d > (\log f(G(m))^{2=2}, \) concluding the proof. \( \blacksquare \)
Lemma 3.1 reduces our task of proving Theorem 2 to establishing a lower bound on \( (G(m)) \). This will be accomplished by the following lemma, which we prove in Section 4.

Lemma 3.2. There is an absolute constant \( A > 0 \) such that for every suciently large \( m > 1 \),

\[
A \log \log \log u.
\]

By plugging in the lower bound of \( A \log \log \log u \) from Lemma 3.2 inside Lemma 3.1, we get that for any suciently large \( n > 1 \) and universe size \( u = 2^{n^{2 + n}} \), the lower bound on the MMMPH problem is

\[
(n \log n) = (n \log \log \log u).
\]

Thus Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2 can be combined to prove Theorem 2 modulo a serious caveat: the lower bound only holds for instances of the problem wherein the universe size is larger than doubly exponential in \( n \), which is admittedly not the most interesting setting of the parameters. In the next subsection, we use a simple graph product argument (plus Proposition 2.2) to extend this lower bound to the whole range of parameters \( u \) considered by Theorem 2.

3.2 Extending the MMMPH Lower Bound to Small Universes. For every integers \( m; k > 1 \), define \( G(m; k) = (V(m; k); E(m; k)) \) as the \( k \)-set conict graph where the vertex set \( V(m; k) \) is the set of all size-\( m \) subsets of \( \{1, \ldots, m\} \) for \( m = 2^{n^{2 + n}} \) dened earlier, and the edge set \( E(m; k) \) is dened as in normal conict graphs. (Thus \( G(m; 0) = G(m) \).)

Furthermore, for every integer \( m; k > 1 \), we dene the \( k \)-fold conict graph, denoted by \( G^k(m) \), as the graph:

\[
G^k(m) = (V^k(m); E^k(m)) := G(m; 0)_1 G(m; M)_2 G(m; 2M)_3 \ldots G(m; (k - 1)M);
\]

where \( \cdot \) denotes the graph product in Proposition 2.2. The direct interpretation of the nodes of \( V^k(m) \) is a product of tuples from disjoint ranges, but we can also interpret it as a single tuple of length \( km \). This way, \( G^k(m) \) is a subset of the conict graph on \( km \)-size subsets of \( [km] \) and it makes sense to compute \( D(v) \) for any \( v \in V^k(m) \).

Therefore, by Lemma 3.1, we again have a lower bound of \( \log f(G^k(m)) \) for MMMPH on tuples of length \( n = km \) from a universe of size \( u = km \).

By Proposition 2.2, combined with Lemma 3.2, we have,

\[
\log f(G^k(m)) = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log f(G(m; i)) = k \log f(G(m)) > (n \log m) = (n \log \log \log u).
\]

where the second equality is because \( f(G(m; i)) = f(G(m)) \) for all \( i \in [k] \), as these graphs are all isomorphic to each other. Consider a choice of \( m = (n \log n)^{1+6} \) and \( k = n = (n \log n)^{1+6} \),

which in turn gives us

\[
u = k \cdot 2^{n^{2 + n}} \cdot k \cdot 2^{n^{2 + n}} = \frac{n \cdot 2^{n^{2 + n}}}{(n \log n)^{1+6}} \cdot n \cdot 2^{n^{2 + n}}.
\]

By the above equation, we have a lower bound of \( (n \log \log \log u) \) for MMMPH given that in this case, \( \log m = (n \log \log u) \). Thus, so far, we have proven Theorem 2 on both its boundary cases, namely, when \( u = n \cdot 2^{n^{2 + n}} \) and when \( u = 2^{n^{2 + n}} \). The proof can now be extended to the full range of the parameters in the middle by re-parameterizing \( k \) appropriately; see Appendix B for the complete argument.

We conclude that in order to nish the proof of Theorem 2, we need only establish Lemma 3.2.

4 Fractional Chromatic Number of Conict Graphs

In this section, we establish a lower bound on the fractional chromatic number of the conict graph \( G(m) \) for any (large enough) \( m > 1 \), and thereby prove Lemma 3.2.
Proposition 2.3 gives us a clear path for proving the lower bound on \(\ell(G(m))\) in Lemma 3.2: we can design a distribution on vertices of \(V(m)\) and then, for every independent set \(I \subseteq I(G(m))\), we can upper bound the probability that \(v\) sampled from \(\ell(G(m))\) belongs to \(I\). As \(\ell\) in Proposition 2.3 is maximum over all possible distributions, our distribution provides a lower bound for \(\ell(G(m))\).

To continue, we need the following interpretation of the (maximal) independent sets in \(G(m)\).

Observation 4.1. Any maximal independent set \(I\) in \(G(m)\) can be uniquely identified by a function \(f_I : [M] \to [m]\) such that for every vertex \(v = (v_1, \ldots, v_m) \in V(m)\), we have \(f_I(v_i) = i\).

Proof. Consider any two vertices \(v, w \in V\). Since there is no edge between \(v = (v_1, \ldots, v_m)\) and \(w = (w_1, \ldots, w_m)\) in \(G(m)\), whenever \(v_i = w_i\), we necessarily have that \(i = j\). Thus, any element of \(e \in [M]\) can only appear in a single index \(i \in [m]\) throughout all vertices \(v \in V\) (or does not appear at all in \(v\)). We can thus define \(f_I(e)\) to be \(i\), giving us a function \(f_I\) with the desired property.

We now show that \(f_I\) uniquely identifies \(I\). Dene \(I^0\) as set of vertices \(v = (v_1, \ldots, v_m) \in V(m)\) satisfying \(f_I(v_i) = i\) for all \(i \in [m]\). \(I^0\) is an independent set satisfying \(I = I^0\). Since \(I\) is assumed to be maximal, it follows that \(I = I^0\), meaning that we recover \(I\) from \(f_I\).

Observation 4.1 allows us to reduce Lemma 3.2 to the following lemma about \(m\)-tuples of increasing integers. Proving Lemma 4.2 is the main technical contribution of our work.

Lemma 4.2. There is an absolute constant \(\epsilon > 0\) such that for any sufficiently large \(m > 1\) and \(M = 2^{m^2+\epsilon}m\), the following is true. There exists a distribution on \(m\)-tuples of increasing integers \(X_1 < \cdots < X_m\) from \([M]\) such that for any function \(f : [M] \to [m]\),

\[
\Pr_{(X_1, \ldots, X_m)} (\forall i \in [m] : f(X_i) = i) \geq m^m.
\]

Before proving Lemma 4.2, we show how it implies Lemma 3.2.

Proof of Lemma 4.2 (assuming Lemma 4.2). Any choice of \((X_1, \ldots, X_m)\) in Lemma 4.2 can be mapped to a unique vertex \(v \in G(m)\) and vice versa. Thus, \((X_1, \ldots, X_m)\) induces a distribution on vertices \(V(m)\): sample \((X_1, \ldots, X_m)\) and return the vertex \(v = (v_1, \ldots, v_m)\) where \(v_i = X_i\) for all \(i \in [m]\). Moreover, for any maximal independent set \(I \subseteq I(G(m))\), by Observation 4.1, the vertex corresponding to \((X_1, \ldots, X_m)\) belongs to \(I\) if \(f_I(X_i) = i\) for all \(i \in [m]\). Thus,

\[
\Pr_v (v \in I) = \Pr_{(X_1, \ldots, X_m)} (\forall i \in [m] : f(X_i) = i) \geq m^m.
\]

As every independent set of \(G(m)\) is a subset of some maximal independent set, the upper bound continues to hold for every independent set in \(G(m)\).

By Proposition 2.3,

\[
\{G(m)\} > \min_{I \in I(G(m))} \Pr_v (v \in I)^{1/m} > m^m;
\]

concluding the proof.

The rest of the section proves Lemma 4.2. We start with a high-level overview in Section 4.1. We then define the distribution that we will use for the proof of Lemma 4.2 (Section 4) and analyze it to establish Lemma 4.2 (Section 4.3). The probability distribution that we construct in these sections should be viewed intuitively as a "hard" input distribution on inputs to the MMPHF problem (in the spirit of Yao’s minimax principle).

4.1 A High-Level Overview of the Proof
The proof of Lemma 4.2 is quite dense and requires both a highly delicate probability distribution and several intricate technical arguments. Thus, before getting into the details of this proof, we provide a (very) high-level overview of the logic behind it. In order to convey the intuition, we omit many details from this subsection, instead limiting ourselves to an informal discussion.

The distribution in Lemma 4.2 is roughly as follows: we start with a "window" \(W_1\), which is the interval \([1 : M]\), and then sample \(X_1\) uniformly at random from \(W_1\). We then pick window \(W_2\) to be \([X_1 + 1 : X_1 + w_2]\)
for an integer \( w_2 > 1 \) chosen randomly from a carefully designed distribution. Similarly to before, \( X_2 \) will be chosen uniformly from \( \text{Win}_2 \). We continue like this by picking a new window \( \text{Win}_i = \{ X_i-1 + 1 : X_i-1 + w_i \} \) for each \( i \geq [m] \) by sampling each \( w_i \) from a distribution that is constructed based on \( \{ w_1, \ldots, w_i \} \), and then sampling \( X_i \) from \( \text{Win}_i \). Note that, by design, we will satisfy \( X_1 < X_2 < \ldots < X_m \).

The key property that this distribution achieves can be explained informally as follows. For any index \( i \in \mathbb{N} \), there is a recursive partitioning of the window \( \text{Win}_i \) into \"dense\" and \"sparse\" intervals, where an interval \( I \) \( \text{Win}_i \) is dense (with respect to the function \( f \) and the index \( i \)) if at least an \((1/m)\) fraction of entries \( j \) \( 2 \) \( I \) satisfy \( f(j) = i \), and otherwise \( I \) is sparse. The central property that our distribution ensures is that, if the random choice of \( X_i \) places it in a dense interval, then (with very high probability) the final window \( \text{Win}_m \) will itself end up being dense (i.e., for at least a \((2^{-m})\) fraction of \( j \in \text{Win}_m \), \( f(j) = i \)).

Establishing this property is quite challenging and involves dening the distribution of \( w_i \)'s in a highly non-uniform manner (in terms of their values); this is also the source of the doubly exponential dependence of range \( M \) on the number of indices \( m \). We postpone the details on how this property can be achieved to the actual proof and focus on why it is a useful property for us.

The analysis of the distribution now uses the property in a potential-function style argument. For each \( X_i \), it is either sampled from a sparse interval or a dense one. If \( X_i \) is sampled from a sparse interval \( I \), then no matter the past iterations, the probability that \( f(X_i) = i \) is at most \((2^{-m})\), since at most \((2^{-m})\) fraction of \( I \) can have value \( f(j) = i \) by the denition of it being sparse. On the other hand, if \( X_i \) is chosen from a dense interval, then at least a \((2^{-m})\) fraction of entries of \( \text{Win}_m \) should be mapped to \( i \) by \( f \) as well (by our property). Seeing \( \text{Win}_m \) as a potential function now, we have that this latter step can only happen for \((m=2)\) iterations \( i \leq [m] \). Indeed, each time that this happens for some \( i \), we commit some \((2^{-m})\) fraction of indices \( j \) \( 2 \) \( \text{Win}_m \) to having \( f(j) = i \), and these sets indices must be disjoint. As a result, we have that at least \((m=2)\) iterations \( i \leq [m] \) sample \( X_i \) from a sparse interval. Thus,

\[
\Pr(f(X_1) = 1; \ldots; f(X_m) = m) \leq \Pr(f(X_1) = i | f(X_1) = 1; \ldots; f(X_{i-1}) = (i-1))
\]

as desired for the proof of Lemma 4.2.

The main challenge in formalizing the above argument is the design and analysis of the distribution so that the property discussed above holds. Note also that the property cannot hold deterministically|another challenge is to show that it holds with such high probability that the risk of the property ever failing (across the entire construction) can be ignored.

4.2 The Hard Input Distribution in Lemma 4.2 The distribution is dened as follows.

(i) Let \( k = m^m, S_0 = k^{m+1}, \) and \( X_0 = 0 \).

(ii) For \( i = 1 \) to \( m \):

   (a) Sample two random numbers \( Y_i \) from \([2^S - 1]\) and \( Z_i \) from \([k-1]\) uniformly at random.

   (b) Den the random variables of iteration \( i \) as:

   \[
   X_i = X_{i-1} + Y_i \quad \text{and} \quad S_i = S_{i-1} + k^{m+1} Z_i.
   \]

(iii) Return \( (X_1; \ldots; X_m) \) as the resulting random variables.

To avoid ambiguity, we use lower case letters \( (s_i; x_i; y_i; z_i) \) to denote realizations of random variables \( (S_i; X_i; Y_i; Z_i) \) for \( i \leq [m] \).

We have the following basic observation on the range of numbers created in this distribution.
Observation 4.3. Every choice of \((X_1; \ldots; X_m)\) and \((S_1; \ldots; S_m)\) satisfy the following properties:

(i) 'Monotonicity': for all \(i \in [m]\), \(X_i > X_{i+1}\) and \(S_i > S_{i+1}\). (\(S_i; X_i\) are integers).

(ii) 'Boundedness': for every \(i \in [m]\), \(X_m - X_i + (m - i) 2 S_i\) and \(S_m > S_i\).

Proof. Monotonicity of \(X_i\)'s holds as \(Y_i\)'s are positive. Monotonicity for \(S_i\)'s holds because \(Z_i\)'s are positive and \(k^m i+1 > k^m m+1 > k = m^m\), meaning that we always have \(S_i > S_{i+1}\).

For part (ii), we have,

\[
X_m = X_i + \sum_{j=i+1}^{m} Y_j 6 X_i + \sum_{j=i+1}^{m} 2 S_i 6 X_i + (m - i) 2 S_i;
\]

which proves the boundedness of \(X_i\)'s. For \(S_i\),

\[
S_m = S_i 6 k^{m+1} Z_i > S_i 6 k^1 \quad \text{for all} \quad j = i + 1
\]

Finally, by this bound, we have \(S_m > S_0\) and \(k^{m+1} > 0\) as \(S_0 = k^{m+1}\).

When discussing \((X_1; \ldots; X_m)\), we will also need some further denitions:

• For any realization \((s < i; x < i)\), we define the window of iteration \(i \in [m]\), \(\text{Win}_i := \text{Win}_i(s < i; x < i)\), as the support of the random variable \(X_i\) conditioned on \((s < i; x < i)\), i.e.,

\[
\text{Win}_i := \text{Win}_i(s < i; x < i) = [x_i 1 + 1 : x_i 1 + 2 S_i 1].
\]

Notice that \(j \text{Win}_i(s < i; x < i) = 2 S_i 1\) and \(\text{Win}_i\) is determined by \((s < i; x < i)\).

• Similarly, for any \(x\) of \((s < i; x < i)\), consider the following numbers:

\[
(4.3) w_{ij} := 2 S_i 1 j k^{m+1} \quad \text{for all} \quad j \in [1, m]
\]

This way, \(j \text{Win}_{i+1}(s < i; x < i)\) is chosen uniformly at random from \(w_{ij}; 1 \cdots; w_{ik} 1\) (depending solely on the choice of \(Z_i 2 [k 1]\) which also determines \(S_i\)). Moreover, the ratio of \(w_{ij}\) and \(w_{ij+1}\) is xed for any \(j \in [1, m]\) and we denote this quantity as

\[
(4.4) r_i := 2 k^{m+1} = \frac{w_{ij}}{w_{i,j+1}} \quad \text{for any} \quad j \in [1, m].
\]

Observation 4.4. For any \(x\) of \((s < i; x < i)\), the supports of random variables \(j \text{Win}_{i+1}; \cdots; j \text{Win}_m\) are subsets of the interval \([2 S_i 1 w_{i,j+1} : w_{i,j}].\)

Proof. By denition,

\[
j \text{Win}_{i+1} = 2 S_i 1 k^{m+1} w_{i,j} : w_{i,j+1}
\]

Moreover, by Observation 4.3, for any \(j \in [1, m]\), we have \(j \text{Win}_j 6 j \text{Win}_{i+1}.\) Thus each of these windows can have length at most \(w_{i,j}\), proving the upper bound side.

For the lower bound, for any \(j \in [1, m]\), we have,

\[
(\text{by parts (i); (iii) of Observation 4.3}) \quad j \text{Win}_j > j \text{Win}_m = 2 S_i 1 k^{m+1 + m^m} = 2 m 2 S_i 1 k^{m+1} = 2 m^m w_{i,j} r_i 1 = 2 m^m w_{i,j+1}.
\]

This concludes the proof.
We need one nal denition for now:

- For the function \( f : [M] \rightarrow [m] \), we dene the density of index \( i \) \([m] \) in \( f \) over a window \( \text{Win} \), denoted by \( \text{density}_f(\text{Win}; i) \), as
  \[
  \text{density}_f(\text{Win}; i) := \frac{j \in \text{Win} : f(j) = ig_j}{j \in \text{Win}},
  \]
  namely, the fraction of entries of the window that are equal to \( i \).

**Observation 4.5.** For any choice of \((s < i; x < i)\), we have,

\[
\Pr(f(X_i) = i \mid s < i; x < i) = \text{density}_f(\text{Win}_i(s < i; x < i); i).
\]

**Proof.** Conditioned on \((s < i; x < i)\), \( X_i \) is chosen uniformly at random from \( \text{Win}_i(s < i; x < i) \). The observation therefore follows from the denition of \( \text{density}_f(\text{Win}_i(s < i; x < i); i) \).

**4.3 Analysis of the Hard Distribution**

**Proof of Lemma 4.2** We prove Lemma 4.2 by individually considering each iteration in the distribution.

**Lemma 4.6.** For any iteration \( i \in [m - 1] \) and conditioned on any choice of \((s < i; x < i)\), at least one of the following two conditions is true:

(i) \( \Pr(f(X_i) = i \mid s < i; x < i) \geq \frac{101}{m} \)

(ii) \( \Pr(\text{density}_f(\text{Win}_m; i) < \frac{2}{m} \mid s < i; x < i) < k^{1.3} \frac{1}{m} \)

The guarantee in Lemma 4.6 does not apply to the last iteration (omitted for technical reasons).

The main bulk of this section is to prove Lemma 4.6. We then show at the end of the section that this lemma easily implies Lemma 4.2. To continue, we need some denitions.

**Denition 4.7.** The window-tree of iteration \( i \in [m - 1] \) for \((s < i; x < i)\), denoted by \( \text{T}_i := \text{T}(s < i; x < i) \), is the following rooted tree with \( k + 1 \) levels (the root is at level 0):

(i) Every non-leaf node of the tree has \( r_i \) many child-nodes.

(ii) Every node at a level > 0 is associated with a window \( \text{Win}() \) of length \( w_i > \).

(iii) The root \( r \) is associated with the window \( \text{Win}(r) := \text{Win}_i(s < i; x < i) \). The windows associated with child-nodes of a node at level \( > 0 \) partition \( \text{Win}() \) of length \( w_i > \) into equal-size windows of length \( w_i > + 1 \) (recall that \( w_i > = w_i > + 1 \) child-nodes). Moreover, the left most child-node receives the window in the partition with the smallest starting point, the next child-node on the right receives the next window with smallest part, and so on.

(iv) The density of a node with respect to any function \( f : [M] \rightarrow [m] \) is dened as

\[
\text{density}_f() := \text{density}_f(\text{Win}(); i);
\]

One way we use the window-tree in our analysis is to consider the process of sampling \( X_i \) (which is uniform over \( \text{Win}_i(s < i; x < i) \) at this stage) as traversing the window-tree via a root-to-leaf path. This is formalized in the following observation.

**Observation 4.8.** The distribution of \( X_i \) conditioned on \((s < i; x < i)\) can be alternatively seen as: (i) Sample a root-to-leaf path \( o; 1; \cdots; k \) where \( o \) is the root of \( \text{T}_i \) and where each \( > + 1 \) is a child-node of \( \) chosen uniformly at random; then, (ii) sample \( X_i \) uniformly at random from \( \text{Win}(k) \). We refer to \( o; 1; \cdots; k \) as the sampling path of \( X_i \).

**Proof.** \( X_i \) is distributed uniformly over \( \text{Win}_i \) and leaf-nodes of \( \text{T}_i \) form an equipartition of \( \text{Win}_i \).
In addition, we define a pruning procedure for any window-tree $T$ as follows.

**Definition 4.9.** Fix a function $f : [M] \rightarrow [m]$ and a window-tree $T_i$ for some $i \in [m]$. We say that a node $2T_i$ is sparse if

$$\text{density}_f(i) \geq \frac{100}{m}.$$  

Consider the following procedure for pruning $T_i$: Start from the root down to the leaf-nodes and prune any sparse node, as well as the whole subtree rooted at that node. We refer to a sparse node that was pruned on its own (i.e., any node that is sparse and has no sparse ancestors) as a directly pruned node and to other pruned nodes as indirectly pruned.

Finally, for $2 f_0; \ldots; kg$, denote $p_i$ as the fraction of directly pruned nodes at level $i$ of the tree over all level-$i$ nodes that are not indirectly pruned.

It is worth noting that pruning is deterministic conditioned on $(s < i; x < i)$.

With these definitions, we can now start proving Lemma 4.6. This will be done by considering some different cases handled by the following claims. The rst (and easiest) case is when most nodes of the window-tree are pruned, in which case we achieve property (i) of Lemma 4.6.

**Claim 4.10 (Case I: \text{Many Directly Pruned Nodes}).** Suppose

$$\gamma \left( \frac{1}{p} \right) \leq \frac{101}{m}.$$  

Then, for any choice of $(s < i; x < i)$,

$$\Pr(f(X_i) = i \mid s < i; x < i) = \frac{101}{m};$$

Proof. Let $W_{\text{rem}}$ denote the subset of $W_i$ that remains after removing windows of all pruned leaf-nodes from $W_i$. We have that

$$jW_{\text{rem}}j = \frac{\# \text{leaf-nodes of } T_i \text{ that are not pruned}}{\# \text{leaf-nodes of } T_i} jW_{\text{i}}j = \gamma \left( \frac{1}{p} \right) jW_{\text{i}}j \leq \frac{101}{m};$$

where the second equality is because at each level $i$ of the tree, the number of not pruned nodes drops by a factor of $(1 - p)$ by the denition of $p$.

Let $DP$ denote the set of all nodes in the tree $T_i$ that were directly pruned. Note that the windows $W_i$ for $2 DP$ partition $W_i \cap W_{\text{rem}}$. This implies that

(by the denition of $\text{density}_f(\cdot)$ function)

$$\text{density}_f(W_i; i) = \frac{1}{jW_{\text{i}}j} jW_{\text{rem}}j \text{density}_f(W_{\text{rem}}; i) + \frac{X}{2 \text{DP}} \text{density}_f(\cdot) jW_{\text{i}}j (\text{as } \text{density}_f(\cdot) \leq 100 = m \text{ by the denition of sparsity, and } \text{density}_f(W_{\text{rem}}; i) \leq 1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{jW_{\text{i}}j} jW_{\text{rem}}j + \frac{1}{jW_{\text{i}}j} + \frac{100}{2 \text{DP}} \frac{101}{m};$$

(as $jW_{\text{rem}}j = jW_{\text{i}}j \leq m$ as established above, and $jW_{\text{i}}j = jW_{\text{i}}j \leq m$)

By Observation 4.5, we have,

$$\Pr(f(X_i) = i \mid s < i; x < i) = \text{density}_f(W_i; i) \leq \frac{101}{m};$$

concluding the proof.
We now consider the complementary case, while also taking the randomness of \(Z_i\) into account. Recall that \(Z_i\) is uniform over \([k+1]\) and that \(j\text{Win}_{m+1} = \text{Win}_{i; z_i}\). For any \(x_1\) realization \(z_i\) of \(Z_i\), recall the sampling-path-based process of sampling \(X_i\) outlined in Observation 4.8. Consider the rst \(z_i\) vertices in this path, namely, \(0; : : : ; z_i; 1\) that start from the root and end at a level \(z_i; 1\) node of \(T_i\).

Denote \(E(\{s < i; x < i; z_i; X_i\})\) to be the event that none of the nodes in \(0; : : : ; z_i; 1\) are pruned. Event \(E(\{s < i; x < i; z_i; X_i\})\) depends only on the choice of \(X_i\) (to traverse the root-to-leaf path), and is conditioned on \(s < i; x < i\) (which determine the window-tree \(T_i\)) and \(z_i\) (which determines the level of the tree that we focus on). To avoid clutter, when it is clear from the context, we refer to this event simply by \(E_i\).

We partition the remaining cases based on whether or not the event \(E_i\) happens.

Claim 4.11 (Case II: \("A Pruned Node on the Sampling Path\")). Fix any choice of \(z_i\) and \((s < i; x < i)\). In the case that the event \(E_i\) does not happen, we have,

\[
\Pr(f(X_i) = i \mid s < i; x < i; z_i; E_i) \leq \frac{100}{m}.
\]

Proof. After conditioning on \((s < i; x < i; z_i)\), the event \(E_i\) is only a function of the sampling process of \(X_i\) outlined in Observation 4.8.

Assuming \(E_i\) does not happen, we know that there exists a unique node \(j\) on the path \(0; : : : ; z_i; 1\) such that \(j\) is sparse and is directly pruned. By additionally conditioning on the subpath \(0; : : : ; j\), we have that \(X_i\) is chosen uniformly at random from \(\text{Win}(j)\) at this point. Thus,

\[
\Pr(f(X_i) = i \mid j < i; x < i; z_i; E_i)
\]

(as these subpaths partition all possible choices for \(E_i\) to not happen)

\[
= \sum_{\{s < i; x < i; z_i; E_i\}} \Pr(f(X_i) = i \mid \text{is on the sampling path } j < i; x < i; z_i; E_i) \quad \\
\text{directly pruned}
\]

(as \(X_i\) is chosen uniformly from \(\text{Win}(j)\) under these conditions)

\[
= \sum_{\{s < i; x < i; z_i; E_i\}} \Pr((0; : : : ; j)\text{ is on the sampling path } j < i; x < i; z_i; E_i) \quad \\
\text{directly pruned}
\]

(by the denition of density\(_f\))

\[
= \sum_{\{s < i; x < i; z_i; E_i\}} \Pr((0; : : : ; j)\text{ is on the sampling path } j < i; x < i; z_i; E_i) \quad \\
\text{density(\(\text{Win}(j); i\))}
\]

(as \(j\) needs to be sparse to be directly pruned)

\[
= \sum_{\{s < i; x < i; z_i; E_i\}} \Pr((0; : : : ; j)\text{ is on the sampling path } j < i; x < i; z_i; E_i) \quad \\
\text{directly pruned}
\]

This can now be further upper bounded by \(100=m\) as the probability terms are summing over all disjoint events that can lead to \(E_i\) (conditioned on this event) and thus add up to one.

Finally, we have the following case which handles the situation when \(E_i\) happens. The following claim is the heart of the proof.

Claim 4.12 (Case III: \("No Pruned Nodes on the Sampling Path\")). Fix any choice of \(z_i\) and \((s < i; x < i)\). In the case that the event \(E_i\) happens, we have,

\[
\text{density}_{f}(\text{Win}_{m}; i) < \frac{2}{m} j_{S_{m}; x < i; z_i; E_i} < p_{z_i} + p_{z_i+1} + \frac{m}{r_i}.
\]
Proof. Throughout this proof, we always condition on \( s_{<i}; X_{<i}; z_i \) and \( E_i = E(s_{<i}; X_{<i}; z_i; X_i) \) and so may not mention this explicitly in the probability terms. This is the information we have so far:

- None of the nodes \( o_1; \ldots; z_i \) on the sampling path are pruned as we conditioned on the event \( E_i \) (although \( z_i \) is still a random variable and is not xed yet just by these conditions).
- Window \( W_{inm} \) is going to have size at least \( 2^{m^*} w_{i,z_i+1} \) and at most \( w_{i,z_i} \) by Observation 4.4.
- By Observation 4.3,
  \[
  (by the definition of \( w_{i,z_i} = 2^{z_i} \)) \quad X_{m} 6 X_{i} + (m - i) 2^{z_i} = X_{i} + (m - i) w_{i,z_i}:
  \]
- \( W_{inm} \) starts at \( X_{m} \) and ends at \( X_{m} + j W_{inm,j} \). We can think of the process of sampling \( W_{inm} \) as rst sampling \( j W_{inm,j} \), then sampling the set \( O_{i;m} := X_{m} \) \( X_{i} = \prod_{j=i+1}^{m} Y_j \) conditioned on \( j W_{inm,j} \), and then sampling \( X_{i} \) conditioned on \( O_{i;m} \) and \( j W_{inm,j} \).
- We further have that \( X_{i} \) conditioned on \( O_{i;m} \) and \( j W_{inm,j} \) is still uniform over \( W_{inm}(z_i) \). This is because \( j W_{inm,j} \) is only a function of \( Z_{i+1}; \ldots; Z_m \), and \( X_{m} \) \( X_{i} \) is only a function of \( Y_{i+1}; \ldots; Y_m \), while \( X_{i} \) is only a function of \( Y_{i} \); namely, \( Y_{i} \) is independent of \( Y_{i+1}; \ldots; Y_m \) and \( Z_{i+1}; \ldots; Z_m \) and is chosen uniformly from \([2^{x_i}]/2 \) (recall that \( i < m \) in this lemma).

In the following, we condition on any xed choice of set \( o_{i;m} \) for \( O_{i;m} \) and on \( j W_{inm,j} \). We have already established that

\[
(4.5) \quad 2^{m^*} w_{i,z_i+1} 6 j W_{inm,j} 6 w_{i,z_i} \quad \text{and} \quad o_{i;m} 6 (m - i) w_{i,z_i}:
\]

Moreover, the distribution of \( W_{inm} \) conditioned on \( o_{i;m}; j W_{inm,j} \) (and \( s_{<i}; X_{<i}; z_i; E_i \); that we always condition on in this proof), is \( X_{i} + o_{i;m} \) for \( X_{i} \) chosen randomly from \( W_{inm}(z_i) \). Also, given that \( o_{i;m} 6 (m - i) w_{i,z_i} \) while \( j W_{inm,j} \) \( w_{i,z_i+1} = r_{i} w_{i,z_i} \) and \( r_{i} = 2^{k^*} - 1 > 2^k \) as \( i \) \( 6 \), the distribution of \( X_{i} \) and \( X_{i} + o_{i;m} \) are quite close to each other modulo a negligible factor. Thus, for intuition, we can think of \( X_{i} \) itself as the distribution of the starting point for \( W_{inm} \) in this context (although we will of course take this dierence into account explicitly in the proof). We now use this information to prove the claim. To simplify the exposition, we are going to separate the analysis based on level \( z_i \) and level \( z_i+1 \) of the window-tree.

Analysis on level \( z_i \) of the window-tree. Firstly, since \( j W_{inm,j} \) \( w_{i,z_i} \), and each node at level \( z_i \) of the window-tree \( T_i \) has a window of length \( w_{i,z_i} \), we get that \( W_{inm} \) intersects with windows of at most two consecutive nodes at level \( z_i \) of \( T_i \), which are solely determined by the choice of \( X_{i} \). We use \( 1(X_{i}) \) and \( 2(X_{i}) \) to denote these two nodes with \( 1 \) being the one where the starting point of \( W_{inm} \), namely, \( X_{i} + o_{i;m} \), lies in, and \( 2(X_{i}) \) being the one containing the endpoint \( X_{i} + o_{i;m} + j W_{inm,j} \) (note that it is possible that \( 2 = 1 \)).

We prove that with high probability, neither of these nodes are pruned. Let us focus on \( 1(X_{i}) \) rst (the analysis is almost identical for \( 2(X_{i}) \) and we can then apply a union bound). For any \( ' 2 f0; \ldots; k 1g \), let \( P(\cdot) \) (resp. \( DP(\cdot) \)) denote the set of pruned (resp. directly pruned) nodes at level \( ' \) of \( T_i \); similarly, for a node \( 2 T_i \), let \( P(\cdot) \) (resp. \( DP(\cdot) \)) denote the set of child-nodes of \( 2 T_i \) that are pruned (resp. directly pruned). For any xed choice of \( z_i \) on the sampling path of \( X_{i} \),

\[
(4.6) \quad 6 j P(z_i;j) r_{i}^{1/(m-i)} r_{i}^{1/(m-i)}:
\]
where the last inequality holds because of the following reasoning. Firstly, the probability that $j(X_i)$ is equal to any xed node at level $z_i$ is at most $1 = r_i$. This is because

$$\Pr \left( j(X_i) = j_{z_i+1} \right) = \Pr \left( X_i + o_{i:m} \not\in \text{Win}(z_i + 1) \right) \Pr(j_{z_i+1}) \leq \frac{1}{j_{z_i+1}}$$

because $X_i$ is chosen uniformly from $\text{Win}(z_i + 1)$, and $\Pr(j_{z_i+1}) = \frac{1}{j_{z_i+1}}$ as is at level $z_i$. This immediately implies the rst term in the RHS of Eq (4.6). For the second term, for $j(X_i)$ to intersect with a node not in the subtree of $z_i$, we need to have $X_i + o_{i:m} \not\in \text{Win}(z_i + 1)$, while we know $X_i \in \text{Win}(z_i + 1)$. As $o_{i:m} \geq \text{wi}_{1,2}$ by Eq (4.5), and any node at level $z_i$ has a window of length $\text{wi}_{1,2}$, we get that there are at most $(m - i)$ choices of outside child-nodes of $z_i$ that can also become $j(X_i)$. The second part of RHS in Eq (4.6) now follows from this and the upper bound of $1 = r_i$ on the probability of each node.

Finally, by taking the expectation over the choice of $z_i$, 1,

(by the law of total probability, over the choice of $z_i$ in the sampling path)

$$\Pr(1(X_i) \text{ is pruned}) = \sum_{z_i \in \text{Win}} \Pr(1(X_i) \text{ is pruned} | j_{z_i+1})$$

(by Eq (4.6))

$$= \sum_{z_i \in \text{Win}} \frac{j \cdot \Pr(j_{z_i+1}) \cdot (m - i)}{r_i} = \frac{(m - i)}{r_i}$$

where in the nal equality, we used the fact that $z_i$ is chosen from non-pruned nodes (by conditioning on $E_i$), and thus $j \cdot \Pr(j_{z_i+1}) \cdot \frac{1}{r_i}$ is the fraction of pruned nodes over all not indirectly pruned nodes at level $z_i$, which by denition is $p_{z_i}$.

Doing the same exact analysis, we can bound the probability that $2(X_i)$ is pruned also as

$$\Pr(X_i \text{ is pruned}) = \sum_{X_i \in \text{Win}} \Pr(X_i \text{ is pruned} | j_{z_i+1})$$

(by Eq (4.6))

$$= \sum_{z_i \in \text{Win}} \frac{(m - i) + 1}{r_i} \cdot \frac{1}{r_i}$$

where the +1 term in the RHS compared to the one for 1 comes from the fact that $2(X_i)$ can have $(m - i + 1)$ choices outside subtree of $z_i, 1$ (because we are now considering $X_i + o_{i:m} \not\in \text{Win}(z_i + 1)$, instead). By the union bound on the probabilities for $1(X_i)$ and $2(X_i)$,

$$\Pr(\text{either of } 1(X_i) \text{ or } 2(X_i) \text{ is pruned}) = \sum_{X_i \in \text{Win}} \Pr(1(X_i) \text{ or } 2(X_i) \text{ is pruned}) = \sum_{z_i \in \text{Win}} \left( \frac{(m - i)}{r_i} + \frac{(m - i) + 1}{r_i} \right)$$

(4.7)

$$\Pr(\text{either of } 1(X_i) \text{ or } 2(X_i) \text{ is pruned}) = \sum_{z_i \in \text{Win}} \left( \frac{(m - i)}{r_i} + \frac{(m - i) + 1}{r_i} \right)$$

Analysis on level $z_i + 1$ of the window-tree. For the next step, let $1(X_i); \cdots; t(X_i)$ denote the child-nodes of $1(X_i)$ and $2(X_i)$ such that $\text{Win}(j(X_i))$ is entirely contained in $\text{Win}(m)$. Again, the choice of $1; \cdots; t$ is only a function of $X_i$. Moreover, since $\text{jWin}(m) \geq 2^m \cdot \text{wi}_{i+1}$ by Eq (4.5), while the window of each node at level $z_i + 1$ is of size $\text{wi}_{i+1}$, we have that $t > 2^m$ always. We now bound the probability that each $j$ is (directly) pruned, for $j \geq 2$.[t]. This part of the analysis is quite similar to that of level $z_i$ with only minor changes.

For any choice of $1(X_i)$ and $2(X_i)$,

(because $\text{Win}(m) \subseteq \text{Win}(1(X_i))$ and such $j$ has no choice outside child-nodes of $1$ or $2$)

$$\Pr(1(X_i) \text{ is directly pruned } j_{1:2}) = \sum_{X_i \in \text{Win}} \Pr(1(X_i) = j_{1:2})$$

$$= \sum_{X_i \in \text{Win}} \frac{\text{DP}(1) \cdot \text{DP}(2)}{r_i} \cdot \frac{1}{r_i}$$

(4.8)

where we are again going to argue that the probability that $j(X_i)$ is equal to any xed node is at most $1 = r_i$ conditioned on the choice of $1$ and $2$. For $j(X_i)$ to be equal to a node we need to have that $X_i + o_{i:m} + \text{wi}_{i+1} \not\in \text{Win}(t)$; this is because $j(X_i)$ appears after $(j - 1)$ nodes of level $z_i + 1$ that

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are fully inside \( \text{Win}_m \) and each such window has length \( w_{i; z+1} \) (note that this is a necessary but not a sufficient condition). Thus,

\[
\Pr\left( Y_{j}(X_i) = j_{i;2} \right) 6 \Pr\left( X_i + \alpha_{i;m} + (j_{i;1} - 1) w_{i; z+1} 2 \text{Win}(j_{i;2}) \right) 6 \frac{j_{\text{Win}(j)}}{w_i} \frac{1}{r_i}
\]

where the last inequality is because conditioned on \( \text{Win}_m \) intersecting with \( j_{i;1} \), \( X_i \) is chosen uniformly at random from a window of length \( w_{i; z} \) (equal to length of \( \text{Win}(1) \) and \( \text{Win}(2) \)); the last equality also uses that \( j_{\text{Win}(j)} = w_{i; z+1} = w_{i; z} = r_i \). Hence, we get Eq (4.8).

We can now deduce that

\[
E \left[ \# \text{ of } 1(X_i) ; \ldots ; t(X_i) \text{ that are directly pruned} \right] = \sum_{i;2} E \left[ \# \text{ of } 1(X_i) ; \ldots ; t(X_i) \text{ that are directly pruned} j_{i;1} \right] \]

(4.9)

\[
= \sum_{i;2} \left[ j_{\text{DP}(1)} j + j_{\text{DP}(2)} j \right] ; \frac{t}{r_i}
\]

where the last inequality is by Eq (4.8).

Let \( \mathcal{P}(z) \) denote the set of not pruned nodes in level \( z \) and let \( \mathcal{P}(z) \) denote the set of nodes in level \( z \) whose parents are not pruned. Since we are conditioning on \( E_i \), we know that \( X_i \) is uniformly random from the interval \( [2 P(z), \text{Win}(i)] \). It follows that \( X_{m-1} = X_i + \alpha_{i;m} \) is uniformly random in a range whose size is also \( P \cdot 2 P(z) \text{Win}(i) \). Thus, for any level-\( z \) node, we have that

\[
\Pr[1 = ] = \Pr[X_m + 1 \text{ Win}(i)] 6 \frac{j_{\text{Win}(j)}}{w_{i; z+1}} \frac{1}{j\mathcal{P}(1)} j \mathcal{P}(z)
\]

Summing over the level-\( (z+1) \) nodes that are directly pruned, we have that

\[
E j_{\text{DP}(1)} j = \sum_{i} \Pr[i \text{ is the parent of }] 6 \frac{j_{\text{DP}(1)} j}{j\mathcal{P}(1) j} \frac{j}{j\mathcal{P}(z) j}
\]

using the upper bound established above on the probability that \( i \) is any xed node. Note that

\[
p_{z+1} = \frac{j_{\text{DP}(z) j}}{j\mathcal{P}(z) j}
\]

i.e., the number of directly pruned nodes in level \( z+1 \) divided by the number of nodes with not pruned parents. Therefore, \( E j_{\text{DP}(1)} j = r_i p_{z+1} \). By the same reasoning (but applied to \( 2 \), which contains the endpoint of \( X_m \)), we have that \( E j_{\text{DP}(2)} j = r_i p_{z+1} \).

Thus, we can use Eq (4.9) to conclude that

\[
E \left[ \# \text{ of } 1(X_i) ; \ldots ; t(X_i) \text{ that are directly pruned} \right] 6 \frac{2 p_{z+1}}{6}
\]

By Markov’s inequality,

\[
\Pr(\text{more than } t=2 \text{ of } 1(X_i) ; \ldots ; t(X_i) \text{ are directly pruned}) 6 \frac{4 p_{z+1}}{6}
\]

Finally, by considering the possibility that at least one of 1 or 2 could be pruned also we have,

\[
6 \Pr(\text{more than } t=2 \text{ of } 1(X_i) ; \ldots ; t(X_i) \text{ are directly pruned}) + \Pr(\text{either of 1 or 2 are pruned}) 6
\]

\[
4 p_{z+1} + 2 p_{z+1} \frac{2m}{r_i}
\]

(4.11)

by Eq (4.7) and Eq (4.10).
Concluding the proof. Let us now condition on the event that at least \( t = 2 \) of nodes 1; : : : ; \( t \) are not pruned, namely, the complement of the event in Eq (4.11). Given that \( \text{Win}_m \) can have non-empty intersection with at most two other level-(\( z_i + 1 \)) nodes beside 1; : : : ; \( t \), and that non-pruned nodes are all dense, conditioned on the above event, we have,

\[
\text{density}_f (\text{Win}_m; i) \geq \frac{(t=2) \cdot 100-m}{t + 2} \geq \frac{100}{3m} > \frac{2}{m}
\]

as \( t > 2^m \). Thus, by Eq (4.11), we have,

\[
\text{Pr} \text{ density} (\text{Win}_m; i) \geq \frac{2}{m} \cdot 2p_{z_i} + 4p_{z_i+1} + \frac{2m}{r_i} \geq 4p_{z_i} + p_{z_i+1} + \frac{m}{r_i}
\]

concluding the proof.

Claims 4.10 to 4.12 now cover all possible cases and allow us to prove Lemma 4.6.

Proof of Lemma 4.6. Fix the tree \( T_i \) and consider its pruning process. If \( Q_k \cdot p \cdot m \geq 1 = m \), we achieve the rst condition of the lemma by Claim 4.10 and are thus done. Now consider the complement case. In this case, we have,

\[
\frac{1}{m} \leq (1 - p) \cdot \exp \frac{m}{r_i} \cdot \frac{1}{r_i}
\]

which implies that \( \text{Pr} (z_i) \geq p \cdot m \ln m \). Recall that the choice of \( Z_i \), in the distribution is uniform over \([k, 1]\) regardless of conditioning on \((s < i; x < i)\). Since \( Z_i \) is chosen uniformly from \([k, 1]\), we have,

\[
E \cdot p_{z_i} + p_{z_i+1} \geq \frac{1}{k} \ln m \quad \text{by Markov bound, we have,}
\]

\[
\text{Pr} (p_{z_i} + p_{z_i+1} > \frac{4}{1} \ln m \cdot \frac{1}{k^{1.3}} : 1)
\]

We can now condition on any choice \( z_i \) of \( Z_i \) such that \( p_{z_i} + p_{z_i+1} \geq (4 \ln m) = k^{1.2} \). At this point, either event \( E_i \) does not happen, in which case, by Claim 4.11, we again obtain condition (i) of the lemma; or the event \( E_i \) happens, which by Claim 4.12 and the choice of \( r_i \) in Eq (4.4) implies

\[
\text{Pr} \text{ density}_f (\text{Win}_m; i) \geq \frac{2}{m} \cdot j < i; x < i \cdot 6 \cdot 4 \ln m + \frac{m}{k^{1.3}} \geq \frac{1}{k^{1.3}}
\]

as \( i \leq m \) and thus \( m = 2k^{1.3} \cdot 6 \). This is because for any iteration \( i \leq m \) of \( \text{Win}_m \) and any choice of \((s < i; x < i)\) of prior iterations, by Lemma 4.6,

\[
\text{Pr} \text{ density}_f (\text{Win}_m; i) \geq \frac{2}{m} \cdot j < i; x < i \cdot k^{1.3} \cdot 1
\]

A union bound on at most \( m \) choices for indices on \( T_2 \) then implies that with probability at least \( 1 - m = k^{1.3} \), we have \( \text{density}_f (\text{Win}_m; i) > \alpha \) for all \( i \leq m \). But then conditioned on this event, the size of \( T_2 \) cannot be \( m = 2 \) or
larger as otherwise \( \text{Win}_m \) contains \( m=2 \) disjoint sets each of which contains than a \( 2=m \) fraction of the window, which is a contradiction. Thus,

\[
\Pr(jT_2 > m=2) \leq \sum_{k=3}^m \frac{1}{k^{1/4}}
\]

We condition on the complement of this event in the following, namely, that \( jT_2 < m=2 \). Let \( i_1; \ldots; i_{m=2} \) denote the rst \( m=2 \) indices of \( T_1 \) which by the conditioning on the size of \( T_2 \) is well dened. We have,

\[
\Pr(\text{for all } j \leq m=2): f(X_{i_1}) = i_1, \ldots, f(X_{i_{m-2}}) = i_{m-2}
\]

(since these are type (i) iterations and we can apply condition (i) of Lemma 4.6)

Putting these two together, combined with the value of \( k = m^m \), implies that,

\[
\Pr(\text{for all } j \leq m=2): f(X_{i_1}) = i_1, \ldots, f(X_{i_{m-2}}) = i_{m-2}
\]

for some constant \( > 0 \) (taking \( = 1=100 \) certainly suces). This concludes the proof.

Acknowledgements We are thankful to the anonymous reviewers of SODA 2023 for many helpful comments on the presentation of the paper.

William Kuszmaul was partially sponsored by the United States Air Force Research Laboratory and the United States Air Force Articial Intelligence Accelerator under Cooperative Agreement Number FA8750-19-2-1000. The views and conclusions contained in this document are those of the authors and should not be interpreted as representing the ofcial policies, either expressed or implied, of the United States Air Force or the U.S. Government. The U.S. Government is authorized to reproduce and distribute reprints for Government purposes notwithstanding any copyright notation herein.

Additionally, Sephehr Assadi was supported in part by a NSF CAREER grant CCF-2047061, a Google Research gift, and a Fulcrum award from Rutgers Research Council. Martin Farach-Colton was supported by NSF grants CCF-2118620 and CCF-2106999. William Kuszmaul was supported by an NSF GRFP fellowship and a Hertz fellowship.

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Appendix

A Proofs of Standard Results in Fractional Coloring

We prove Propositions 2.2 and 2.3 here for completeness. These proofs are standard; see, e.g., [SU11]. We start by presenting the dual view of fractional colorings that is the key to these proofs.

The dual view of fractional colorings. Given that \( f(G) \) is defined as a solution to an LP, we can use duality to also express \( f(G) \) via the following LP:

\[
(A.1) \quad \tilde{f}(G) := \max_{y \in [0,1]^I} \sum_{u \in V} y_u \quad \text{subject to} \quad \begin{align*}
  \sum_{u \in I(v)} y_u & \leq 1 & & \forall v \in V, \\
  y_u & \geq 0 & & \forall u \in V.
\end{align*}
\]

This LP is a fractional relaxation of the clique number of \( G \), namely, the size of the largest clique in \( G \) (since, in any integral solution to this LP, the \( y \)-values that are 1 must be on the vertices of a clique). Interestingly, although the chromatic number and clique size are not duals, their relaxations are.

Proposition (Restatement of Proposition 2.2). Let \( G_1 = (V_1; E_1) \) and \( G_2 = (V_2; E_2) \) be arbitrary graphs. Define \( G_1 \cap G_2 \) as a graph on vertices \( V_1 V_2 \) and define an edge between vertices \( (v_1; v_2) \) and \( (w_1; w_2) \) whenever \( (v_1; w_1) \) is an edge in \( G_1 \) or \( (v_2; w_2) \) is an edge in \( G_2 \). Then, \( f(G_1 \cap G_2) = f(G_1) f(G_2) \).

Proof of Proposition 2.2. We rst prove that

\[(A.2) \quad f(G_1 \cap G_2) > f(G_1) f(G_2)\]

Let \( y^1 \) and \( y^2 \) be optimal solutions to the dual LP given by Eq (A.1) for \( G_1 \) and \( G_2 \) respectively. Consider the assignment \( y \) where \( y_{u;v} = y^1_u y^2_v \). We clearly have that

\[
\sum_{(u;v) \in V_1 V_2} y_{u;v} = \sum_{u \in V_1} y^1_u \sum_{v \in V_2} y^2_v = f(G_1) f(G_2);
\]

We now argue that \( y \) is also a valid solution to the dual LP given by Eq (A.1) for \( G_1 \cap G_2 \). Fix any independent set \( I \) in \( G_1 \cap G_2 \). By the denition of the product, we know that \( I \) can be written as a product set, namely, \( I = I_1 \times I_2 \) for \( I_1 \subseteq I(G_1) \) and \( I_2 \subseteq I(G_2) \). Thus,

\[
\sum_{(u;v) \in I} y_{u;v} = \sum_{u \in I_1} \sum_{v \in I_2} y^1_u y^2_v = f(G_1) f(G_2);
\]

where the inequality is by the constraint of dual LP for \( y^1 \) and \( y^2 \) each. Thus, \( y \) is a solution to the dual LP for \( G_1 \cap G_2 \), proving Eq (A.2).

We now prove that

\[(A.3) \quad f(G_1 \cap G_2) \leq f(G_1) f(G_2)\]

using the primal LP instead. Let \( x^1 \) and \( x^2 \) be optimal solutions to primal LP from Eq (2.1) for \( G_1 \) and \( G_2 \), respectively. Consider the assignment \( x \) where \( x_{u;v} = x^1_u x^2_v \). Using the fact from the previous part that \( I = I_1 \times I_2 \) for \( I_1 \subseteq I(G_1) \) and \( I_2 \subseteq I(G_2) \).

We again clearly have that

\[
\sum_{(u;v) \in I} x_{u;v} = \sum_{u \in I_1} \sum_{v \in I_2} x^1_u x^2_v = f(G_1) f(G_2);
\]

where the inequality is by the constraint of primal LP for \( x^1 \) and \( x^2 \) each. Thus, \( x \) is a solution to the primal LP for \( G_1 \cap G_2 \), proving Eq (A.3).
so it remains to prove that $x$ is a valid solution to the primal LP from Eq (2.1) for $G_1 \_ G_2$. Fix any vertex $(u_1; u_2) \in V_1 \ V_2$ and consider all independent sets $I_1 \ V_1$ that contain $u_1$ and $I_2 \ V_2$ that contain $u_2$. Then, $I_1 \ I_2$ is also an independent set in $G_1 \_ G_2$ that contains $(u_1; u_2)$. Thus,

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
I_2 \ (G_1 \_ G_2); (u_1; u_2) & I_1 \ (G_1; u_1) & I_2 \ (G_2; u_2)
\end{array}
$$

where the inequality is by the constraint of primal LP from Eq (2.1) for $x^1$ and $x^2$ each. Thus, $x$ is a solution to the primal LP from Eq (2.1) for $G_1 \_ G_2$, proving Eq (A.3).

**Proposition (Restatement of Proposition 2.3).** For any graph $G = (V; E)$,

$$
\rho(G) = \max_{\text{distribution on } V} \min_{I \subseteq V} \Pr(v \in I) ^ I_2
$$

**Proof of Proposition 2.3.** Let $b$ be any distribution on $V(G)$ and define $b := \max_{I \subseteq V} \Pr(v \in I) ^ I_2$. Create a distribution $R^v(m)$ such that $y_v = b(v)$ for every vertex $v \in V(m)$ where $v$ is the probability of vertex $v$ under the distribution. We claim that $y$ is a feasible dual solution in Eq (A.1).

For every independent set $I \subseteq V(G)$,

$$
\begin{array}{c}
\sum_{v \in I_1} y_v = b(v) = \Pr(v \in I) = 1
\end{array}
$$

by the definition of $b$. Thus $y$ is a feasible dual solution. Moreover,

$$
\begin{array}{c}

\sum_{v \in V(G)} y_v = b = \Pr(v \in I)
\end{array}
$$

As the dual LP in Eq (A.1) is a maximization LP, we have that $\rho(G) > b = \max_{I \subseteq V} \Pr(v \in I) ^ I_2$, for any distribution on the vertices.

Conversely, let $y$ be any optimal solution to the dual LP and let $c := \sum_{v \in V} y_v$. Define a distribution on the vertices $V$ by setting $y_v = c$. For any independent set $I \subseteq V(G)$, we have,

$$
\Pr(v \in I) = \sum_{v \in I} y_v = c \cdot 1 = c
$$

where the final inequality is because $y$ is a feasible dual solution. Thus, there exists a distribution such that $\rho(G) = c^6 \max_{I \subseteq V} \Pr(v \in I) ^ I_2$.

Combining these two parts concludes the proof.

**B Covering The Full Range of the Universe Size**

We now generalize the proof of Theorem 2 to the full parameter range specified in the theorem. Consider $u$ and $n$ satisfying

$$
n2^{n^{\log \log n}} u \geq 2^n = n^6
$$

Notice that, on the lower-bound side, we are actually covering a slightly larger range (and therefore proving a slightly stronger result) than required to establish Theorem 2.

Set $m = (\log \log u)^{1=6}$ and $k = n^6 = n(\log \log u)^{1=6}$. Note that the setting of $k$ implicitly requires that $(\log \log u)^{1=6} \leq n$, which follows from the fact that $(\log \log u)^{1=6} (n^2 + n)^{1=6}$.
The $k$-fold conic graph $G_k(m)$ has $\log (G_k(m)) = (n \log m) = (n \log \log \log u)$ as already argued in Section 3.2. To complete the proof, we must establish that the graph $G_k(m)$ has vertices that are subsets of a universe whose size $u_0$ satisfies $u_0 = u$. Solving for $u_0$, we have that

$$u_0 = kM = \frac{n}{(\log \log u)^{1/6}} 2^{m n^2 + m} n 2^{m^3 + 2} n 2^{2^{n \log \log u}}.$$ 

On the other hand, $u = 2^{n \log \log u}$. It follows that

$$\frac{u_0}{u} = 2^{2^{n \log \log u}} 1;$$

which completes the proof of Theorem 2 for any choice of $u$ between $n 2^{n \log \log n}$ and $2^{n^{2/3}}$.

Finally, we remark that the term $2^{n^{2/3}}$ in the upper bound is not tight and can be replaced by any other $2^{n^{\alpha(n)}}$ term; this is simply because for any $u = 2^{n^{\alpha(n)}}$, $\log \log \log u = (\log n)$ and thus for any larger universe size $u$ also, we can simply focus on the smallest $2^{n^{2/3}}$ numbers in the universe and still obtain the same asymptotic lower bound. The lower bound term is also not tight and can be replaced with $n 2^{(\log \log n)^2}$ for any constant $\alpha(0; 1=2)$ by the same argument.