

# Counting Complexity

Examples: #SAT, #CLIQUEs, #PERFECT-MATCHINGS...

Definition:  $f: \Sigma^* \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is in  $\#P$  if there exists  $A \in P$  and a polynomial  $p$  such that:

$$\forall x \in \Sigma^m \quad f(x) = \#\left\{y \in \Sigma^{ \leq p(m)} ; \langle x, y \rangle \in A\right\}.$$

This is the counting analogue of NP (Valiant '79).

The permanent: If  $A$  is an  $m \times m$  matrix,

$$\text{perm}(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_m} a_{1\sigma(1)} a_{2\sigma(2)} \cdots a_{m\sigma(m)}.$$

perm is in  $\#P$  for matrices with entries in  $\mathbb{N}$ .

$$\text{perm}(A) = \# \left\{ (\sigma, y); 1 \leq y \leq a_{\sigma(1)} a_{\sigma(2)} \cdots a_{\sigma(m)} \right\} \quad (1')$$

{ can be checked in  
polynomial time

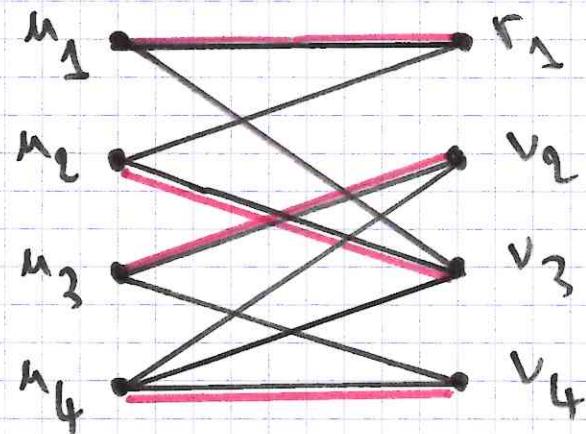
$$\text{perm}(A) = \# \left\{ (x, y); 1 \leq x, y \leq n, \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{j=1}^n y_j \right\}$$

(2)

can be checked in polynomial time

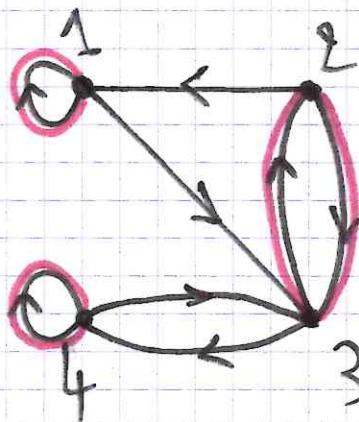
Combinatorial interpretation: Suppose  $A \in \{0,1\}^{n^2}$ .

Perfect matchings in bipartite graphs:



$$\sigma: 1 \mapsto 1, 2 \mapsto 3, 3 \mapsto 2, 4 \mapsto 4$$

Cycle covers in directed graphs:



Remark:  $\#P \subseteq \text{FSPACE}$ .  $\#P$  is harder than NP,  
and in fact harder than PH (Toda's theorem). ③

$\#P$ -completeness:  $f \in \#P$  is  $\#P$ -complete if for all  $g \in \#P$ ,  
there exists 2 polytime computable functions  $I, O$  such that:

$$g(x) = O(f(I(x)))$$

Sometimes: several calls to  $f$   
in the reduction

If  $O$  is the identity function, the reduction is parsimonious.

Most reductions between NP-complete problems are parsimonious  
(or can be made parsimonious)

$\Rightarrow \#SAT, \#HAMILTONIAN\_PATH, \dots$

are  $\#P$ -complete for parsimonious reductions.

# Is #PERFECT-MATCHINGS #P-Complete?

④

The reduction cannot be parsimonious.

Otherwise,  $\text{#SAT}(\varphi) = \text{#PERFECT-MATCHINGS}(I(\varphi))$

SAT instance

graph constructed from  $\varphi$ .

We can decide whether this is  $\geq 1$  in polynomial time!

Theorem: counting perfect matchings in bipartite graphs is #P-complete.

The proof involves the permanent of matrices with entries in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Let's take a look:

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## Modular Counting

In the reduction we construct a matrix  $A$  such that:

$$\text{perm}(A) = 4^m \circ$$

$\circ$  # of satisfiable assignments.

So  $\text{perm}(A) \bmod 3 = \circ \bmod 3$ :

permanent mod 3 is hard (at least as hard as Mod<sub>3</sub>P).

permanent mod 2 is easy.

at least as hard as NP  
 (Valiant - Vazirani)

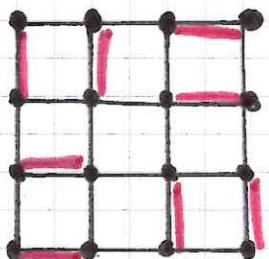
## Some efficient algorithms

The permanent is polytime computable for matrices:

- of bounded rank (Barvinok '96).
- of bounded treewidth (Cancille - Makowsky - Rotics '01):  
view  $A$  is the adjacency matrix of a graph.
- planar graphs (Fisher - Kastelein - Temperley, '560's):

$$\#\text{PERFECT-MATCHINGS}(G) = \sqrt{\det(A)} \quad \text{where } A \text{ is}$$

a "Pfaffian orientation" of  $G$ .



A "dinner covering"

FKT is the engine behind Valiant's « holographic algorithms » (2007)

what about  
other widths?

# Approximation algorithms for perm

For non negative matrices:

- Markov chains (Jerrum - Sinclair).
- matrix scaling (Liniai - Samorodnitsky - Wigderson, deterministic)

## Average-case complexity of the permanent

It is as hard as the worst case (Lipton'91)

in large enough finite fields (or bounded integer entries)

What about  $\mathbb{F}_3$ ?

What about 0/1 entries?

Open problem in « Counting, sampling  
and integrating: algorithms and complexity »  
(2003) by Mark Jerrum

The hardness proof breaks because it relies on polynomial interpolation:  
to evaluate  $\text{per}(A)$ , interpolate  $f(x) = \text{per}(A+xR)$  where  $R$  is a random matrix.

More on the permanent polynomial in the next slides!

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## Algebraic Complexity

$\text{perm}$  is a degree  $m$  polynomial in  $m^2$  variables.

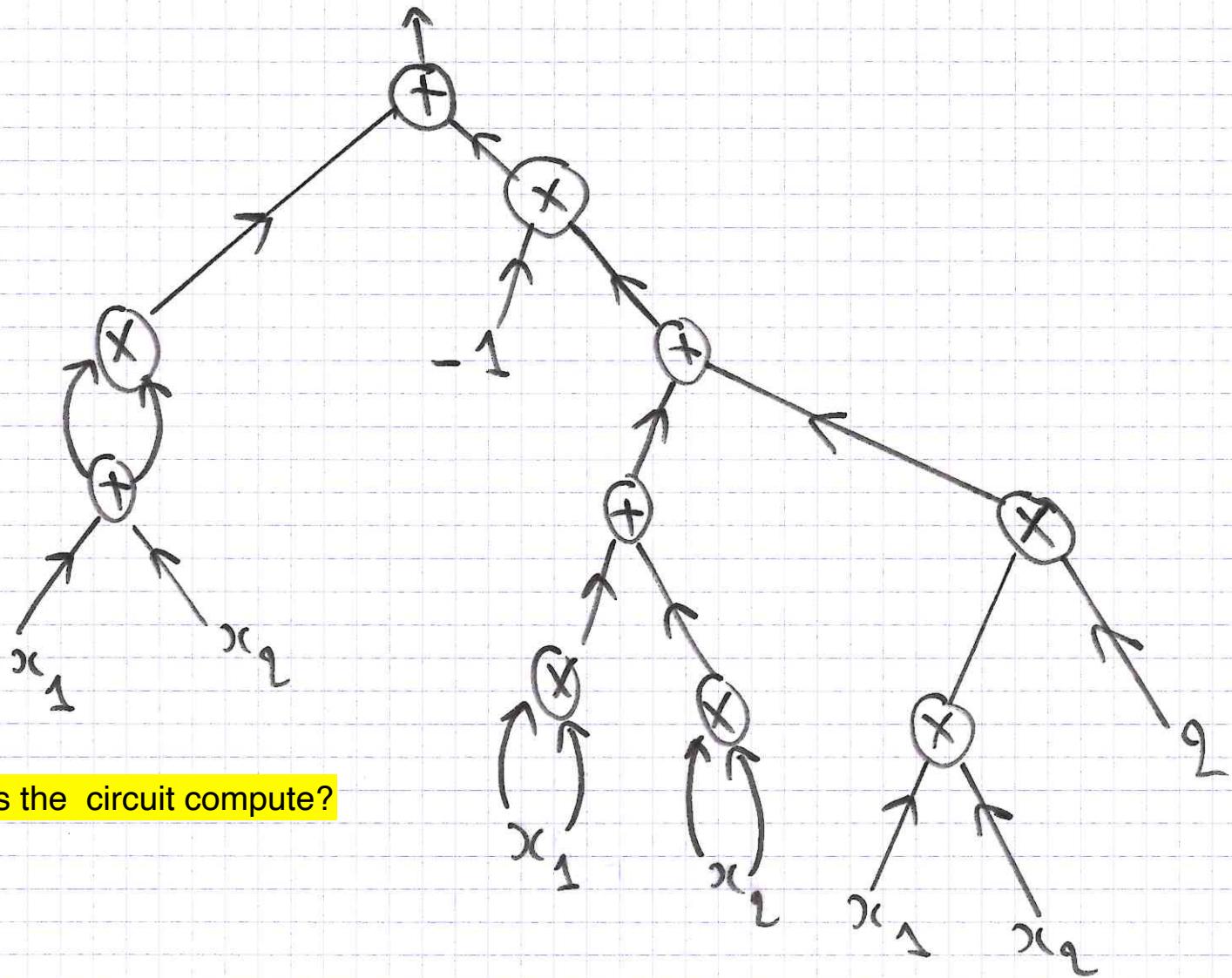
Can we compute it in  $\text{poly}(m)$  arithmetic ops ( $+, \times$ )?

Can we prove it?

For this we need a computation model.

## Arithmetic Circuits

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## What does the circuit compute?

VP

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A polynomial family  $(f_m)$  is in VP if:

1.  $f_m$  has  $\text{poly}(m)$  variables.

2.  $\deg(f_m) \leq \text{poly}(m)$ .

3.  $f_m$  can be computed by an arithmetic circuit  $C_m$  of polynomial size.

Example: The determinant (not quite obvious).

VNP

An algebraic analogue of #P !

$(f_m)$  is in VNP if  $f_m(\bar{x}) = \sum_{\bar{y} \in \{0,1\}^{r(m)}} g_m(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$

for some family  $(g_m)$  in VP.

Example: The permanent.

Theorem: perm is VNP-complete in any field  $K$  with  $\text{char}(K) \neq 2$ .

If  $(f_m)$  is in VNP,  $f_m$  can be written as a poly( $n$ ) size

permanent.

The entries are variables and constants ( $1/2$  is used).

Example: perm  $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 0 & x_2 \\ 1/2 & x_1 & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_2 \end{pmatrix}$

Limaye - Srinivasan - Tavenas'22:  
superpolynomial lower bound for  
constant-depth arithmetic circuits.