# Complexity of Log-concave Inequalities for Matroids

**Swee Hong Chan** 

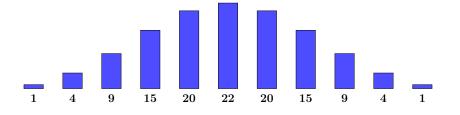
joint with Igor Pak

#### What is log-concavity?

A sequence  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$  is log-concave if  $a_k^2 \geq a_{k+1} a_{k-1}$  (1 < k < n).

Log-concavity (and positivity) implies unimodality:

$$a_1 \leq \cdots \leq a_m \geq \cdots \geq a_n$$
 for some  $1 \leq m \leq n$ .



### Log-concave shaped objects in real life



Cheonmachong (천마총) burial mound, Gyeongju, South Korea.

#### Example 1: Binomial coefficients

$$a_k = \binom{n}{k}$$
  $k = 0, 1, \ldots, n$ .

This sequence is log-concave because

$$\frac{a_k^2}{a_{k+1} a_{k-1}} = \frac{\binom{n}{k}^2}{\binom{n}{k+1} \binom{n}{k-1}} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{n-k}\right),$$

which is greater than 1.

#### Example 2: Permutation inversion sequence

Let

 $a_k := \text{number of } \pi \in S_n \text{ with } k \text{ inversions},$  where inversion of  $\pi$  is pair i < j s.t.  $\pi_i > \pi_j$ .

This sequence is log-concave because

$$\sum_{0 \le k \le \binom{n}{2}} a_k \, q^k = [n]_q! = \prod_{i=1}^{m-1} (1 + q + q^2 + \ldots + q^i)$$

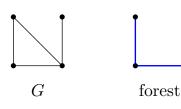
is a product of log-concave polynomials.

#### Example 3: Forests of a graph

 $a_k$  = number of forests with k edges of graph G.

Forest is a subset of edges of G that has no cycles.

Log-concavity was conjectured for all matroids (Mason '72), and was proved through combinatorial Hodge theory (Huh '15).







#### Example 3: Forests of a graph

 $a_k$  = number of forests with k edges of graph G.

Forest is a subset of edges of *G* that has no cycles.

Log-concavity was conjectured for all matroids (Mason '72), and was proved through combinatorial Hodge theory (Huh '15).



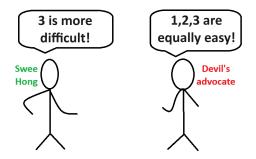
June Huh



Fields Medal

#### Motivation

Which log-concave inequality is more "difficult"?



#### Motivation

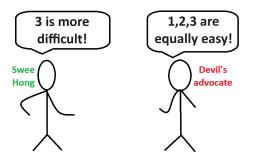
Which log-concave inequality is more "difficult"?



We will show that (3) is **strictly more** difficult than the rest, using **Complexity Theory**.

#### Motivation

Which log-concave inequality is more "difficult"?



We will show that a generalization of (3) is **strictly more** difficult than the rest, using **Complexity Theory**.



#### Object: Matroids

Matroid  $\mathcal{M} = (X, \mathcal{I})$  is ground set X with collection of independent sets  $\mathcal{I} \subseteq 2^X$ .

#### Graphic matroids

- X = edges of a graph G,
- $\mathcal{I}$  = forests in G.

#### Binary matroids

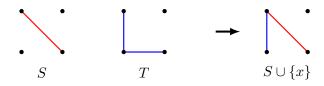
- $X = \text{set of vectors over finite field } \mathbb{F}_2$ ,
- $\bullet$   $\mathcal{I}$  = sets of linearly independent vectors.

#### Matroids: Axioms

• (Hereditary) If  $S \subseteq T$  and  $T \in \mathcal{I}$ , then  $S \in \mathcal{I}$ .



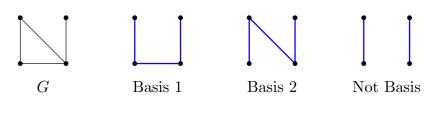
• (Exchange) If  $S, T \in \mathcal{I}$  and |S| < |T|, then there is  $x \in T \setminus S$  such that  $S \cup \{x\} \in \mathcal{I}$ .



#### Matroid: Bases and ranks

A basis of M is a maximal independent set.

Rank r of M is the size of the bases.



Matroid generalizes the notion of vector spaces.

Mason's conjecture

### First Mason's conjecture

For matroid  $\mathcal{M}$ , let

I(k) := no. of independents sets with k elements.

For graphic matroid, I(k) is no. of forest with k edges.

## Conjecture (Mason '72)

The sequence  $I(1), I(2), \ldots$  is log-concave,

$$I(k)^2 \geq I(k+1)I(k-1) \qquad (k \in \mathbb{N}),$$

#### First Mason's conjecture (continued)

Conjecture (Mason '72)

$$I(k)^2 \geq I(k+1)I(k-1) \qquad (k \in \mathbb{N}).$$

Conjecture was proved for graphic matroids by (Huh '15), and for all matroids by (Adiprasito–Huh–Katz '18).

Both proofs used combinatorial Hodge theory.

#### First Mason's conjecture (continued)

Conjecture (Mason '72)

$$I(k)^2 \geq I(k+1)I(k-1) \qquad (k \in \mathbb{N}).$$

Conjecture was proved for graphic matroids by (Huh '15), and for all matroids by (Adiprasito-Huh-Katz '18).

Both proofs used combinatorial Hodge theory.

We will show that Mason's conjecture is consequence of a stronger inequality.

## Stanley-Yan inequality

## Stanley-Yan inequality (simple case)

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a matroid with ground set X and rank r.

Fix a subset S of X. Let

$$\mathrm{B}(k) := \text{ no. of bases } B \text{ such that } |B \cap S| = k,$$
 multiplied by  $r! \times \binom{r}{k}^{-1}$ .

## Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23)

The sequence  $B(1), B(2), \ldots$  is log-concave,

$$B(k)^2 \geq B(k+1)B(k-1) \qquad (k \in \mathbb{N}).$$

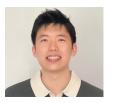
### Stanley-Yan inequality (simple)

Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23)

$$B(k)^2 \geq B(k+1)B(k-1) \qquad (k \in \mathbb{N}).$$



Richard Stanley



Alan Yan

## Stanley-Yan inequality (simple)

Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23)

$$B(k)^2 \geq B(k+1)B(k-1) \qquad (k \in \mathbb{N}).$$

Proved for regular matroids by (Stanley '81) using Alexandrov–Fenchel inequality for mixed volumes.

Proved for all matroids by (Yan '23) using theory of Lorentzian polynomials.

# Proof of Mason's conjecture using Stanley-Yan inequality

#### Direct sum of matroids

Direct sum of 
$$\mathcal{M}_1=(X_1,\mathcal{I}_1)$$
 and  $\mathcal{M}_2=(X_2,\mathcal{I}_2)$  is the matroid  $\mathcal{M}'=(X',\mathcal{I}')$  given by 
$$X':=X_1\sqcup X_2\quad \text{(disjoint union)}$$
 
$$\mathcal{I}':=\{S_1\cup S_2:S_1\in\mathcal{I}_1,S_2\in\mathcal{I}_2\}.$$

This generalizes the notion of direct sum for vector spaces.

#### Proof of Mason's conjecture using SY inequality

Let

```
\mathcal{M}:= original matroid in Mason's conjecture; \mathcal{F}:= \begin{array}{l} \text{matroid with } r \text{ elements and with every} \\ \text{subset being independent;} \\ \mathcal{M}':= \text{direct sum of } \mathcal{M} \text{ and } \mathcal{F}; \\ \mathcal{S}:= \text{ground set of } \mathcal{M}. \end{array}
```

Then

$$I(k)$$
 for  $\mathfrak{M} = \frac{1}{r!} \times B(k)$  for  $\mathfrak{M}'$ .

#### Proof of Mason's conjecture using SY inequality

Since

$$I(k)$$
 for  $\mathfrak{M} = \frac{1}{r!} \times B(k)$  for  $\mathfrak{M}'$ ,

we then conclude that

Stanley–Yan inequality for M' implies Mason's conjecture for M.



## Stanley-Yan inequality (full version)

Fix  $d \geq 0$ , disjoint subsets  $S, S_1, \ldots, S_d$  of X, and  $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_d \in \mathbb{N}$ .

$$\mathrm{B}_d(k) := egin{array}{l} \mathsf{number of bases} \ B \ \mathsf{of} \ \mathfrak{M} \ \mathsf{such that} \ |B \cap S| = k, \ |B \cap S_i| = \ell_i \ \mathsf{for} \ i \in [d], \end{array}$$

multiplied by  $r! \times {r \choose k,\ell_1,...,\ell_d}^{-1}$ .

#### Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23)

The sequence  $B_d(1), B_d(2), \ldots$  is log-concave,

$$B_d(k)^2 \geq B_d(k+1)B_d(k-1) \qquad (k \in \mathbb{N}).$$

#### What we want to do

Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23)

The sequence 
$$B_d(1), B_d(2), \ldots$$
 is log-concave,
$$B_d(k)^2 > B_d(k+1)B_d(k-1) \qquad (k \in \mathbb{N}).$$

Both LHS and RHS of this inequality has combinatorial interpretations.

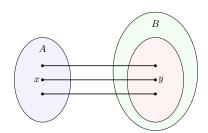
But we will show that this inequality has no combinatorial injective proof.

## Combinatorial injective proof

#### Combinatorial injection

An injection  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is combinatorial if

- Given  $x \in A$ , the image f(x) is computable in poly(|x|) steps;
- Given  $y \in B$ , it takes poly(|y|) steps to decide if y is in image of f; and if so, the pre-image  $f^{-1}(y)$  is computable in poly(|y|) steps.



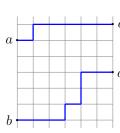
## Example: Injective proof of binomial inequality

$$\binom{n}{k}^2 \geq \binom{n}{k+1} \binom{n}{k-1} \qquad (1 < k < n).$$

This inequality has a lattice path interpretation:

$$K(a \rightarrow c, b \rightarrow d) :=$$
no. of pairs of north-east lattice paths from  $a$  to  $c$  and  $b$  to  $d$ ,

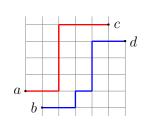
for  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ .

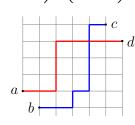


## Example: Injective proof of binomial inequality Let

$$a = (0,1),$$
  $c = (k, n-k+1),$   
 $b = (1,0),$   $d = (k+1, n-k).$ 

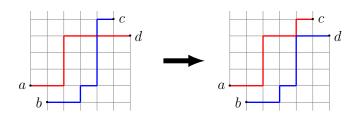
Then  $K(a o c, b o d) = \binom{n}{k}^2,$   $K(a o d, b o c) = \binom{n}{k-1} \binom{n}{k+1}.$ 





### Example: Injective proof of binomial inequality

 $f: K(a \rightarrow d, b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow K(a \rightarrow c, b \rightarrow d)$  is defined by path-swapping injections.



Images of f are pairs of lattice paths that intersects.

#### First main result

Theorem 1 (C.-Pak '24+)

There is **no combinatorial injective proof** for the Stanley–Yan inequality, assuming polynomial hierarchy does not collapse.

# Polynomial hierarchy

### Level 0: Complexity class P

 $\mathsf{P} \ := \ \frac{\mathsf{Decision} \ \mathsf{problems} \ \mathsf{that}, \ \mathsf{given} \ \mathsf{input} \ x,}{\mathsf{can} \ \mathsf{be} \ \mathsf{solved} \ \mathsf{in} \ \mathsf{poly}(|x|) \ \mathsf{time}.}$ 

## Example (Problem in P)

Does a graph G contain a triangle?



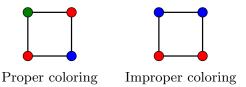
This complexity class is denoted by  $\Sigma_0^P$ .

#### Level 1: Complexity class NP

Problems asking about existence of NP := a solution S for input x, where validity of S can be verified in poly(|x|) time.

# Example (Problem in NP)

Does a graph G have a proper 3-coloring?



This complexity class is denoted by  $\Sigma_1^P$ .

#### Oracle machine

An oracle machine is a black box capable of solving problems from a given class in a single operation.



#### Level i of polynomial hierarchy

The class  $\Sigma_i^{\mathsf{P}} := \mathsf{NP}^{\Sigma_{i-1}^{\mathsf{P}}}$  is

Problems asking about existence of a solution S for input x, where validity of S can be verified in poly(|x|) time, augmented by  $\sum_{i=1}^{P}$ -oracle.

Note that

$$\Sigma_0^P \ \subseteq \ \Sigma_1^P \ \subseteq \ \Sigma_2^P \ \subseteq \ \Sigma_3^P \ \subseteq \ \cdots \ .$$

# Polynomial hierarchy (PH)

Polynomial hierarchy is the union of all  $\Sigma_i^{P}$ 's,

$$\mathsf{PH} \ := \ \bigcup_{i=0}^{\mathsf{SS}} \Sigma_i^\mathsf{P}.$$

#### Conjecture

Polynomial hierarchy does not collapse,

$$\Sigma_0^P \; \subsetneq \; \Sigma_1^P \; \subsetneq \; \Sigma_2^P \; \subsetneq \; \Sigma_3^P \; \subsetneq \; \cdots$$

- $\Sigma_0^P \neq \Sigma_1^P$  is equivalent to  $P \neq NP$ .
- $\Sigma_1^P \neq \Sigma_2^P$  is equivalent to  $NP \neq coNP$ .

#### Back to the main result

Theorem (C.–Pak '24+)

There is no combinatorial injective proof for the Stanley–Yan inequality, assuming  $\Sigma_2^P \neq \Sigma_3^P$ .

# Proof ideas

## Ingredient 1: Study equality conditions

Let SY-Equal be the decision problem:

**Input**: Binary matroid  $\mathcal{M}$ , subsets  $S, S_1, \ldots, S_d$ , integers  $k, \ell_1, \ldots, \ell_d$ .

**Output**: YES if 
$$B_d(k)^2 = B_d(k+1) B_d(k-1)$$
.  
NO if  $B_d(k)^2 > B_d(k+1) B_d(k-1)$ .

Understanding complexity of equality conditions is key to showing combinatorial injections do not exist.

# Equality conditions vs combinatorial injections

Suppose that combinatorial injection existed:

$$f: B_d(k+1) B_d(k-1) \longrightarrow B_d(k)^2.$$

Then, given  $y \in RHS$ , it would take poly(|y|) time to **verify** if y belongs to image of f.

This would imply SY-Equal  $\in coNP$ .

Problem reduces to showing SY-Equal  $\notin$  coNP.

# Ingredient 2: Reduce problem to counting bases

Let #Bases be the counting problem:

**Input**: Binary matroid  $\mathcal{M}$ .

**Output**: Number of bases of  $\mathfrak{M}$ .

# Lemma (C.–Pak 24+)

There exists a nondeterministic polynomial-time Turing reduction from #Bases to SY-Equal.

Strategy: show that #Bases is 'difficult', then use Lemma to imply SY-Equal is also "difficult".

#### Complexity class #P

Problems asking about **existence** of NP := a solution S for input x, where validity of S can be verified in polynomial time.

Problems asking for **number** of solutions  $\sharp P := S$  for input x, where validity of S can be verified in polynomial time.

Example (Problem in #P)

Count the number of proper 3-colorings of graph G.

## Complexity class #P: Equivalent definition

A problem is in #P if, for any input x,

Output 
$$= \sum_{S \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}} V(x,S)$$
 where

$$V(x,S) \in \{0,1\}$$
 can be evaluated in  $poly(|x|)$  time.

Maria dhar dha a' a a' Guba a a La Liba a a

Note that the size of the **output** is at most exponential relative to the input *x*.

## Ingredient 3: Complexity of #Bases

```
Theorem (Knapp-Noble '24+)

#Bases is #P-complete for binary matroids.
```

We would like to use the complexity of #Bases to determine the complexity of SY-Equal.

#### Ingredient 4: Toda's Theorem

# Theorem (Toda '91)

Every problem in PH has a polynomial-time Turing reduction to a problem in #P, i.e.

$$PH \subseteq P^{#P}$$
.

Theorem allows us to connect complexity of decision problems to complexity of counting problems.

#### Combine all the ingredients

Start with Toda's Theorem:

$$PH \subseteq P^{\#P}$$
.

Since **#Bases** is **#P-complete**:

$$PH \subseteq P^{\#Bases}$$
.

Now reduce #Bases to SY-Equal:

$$PH \subseteq NP^{SY-Equal}$$

#### Combine all the ingredients

Now suppose that combinatorial injection existed.

Then SY-Equal belongs to coNP:

$$\mathsf{PH} \subseteq \mathsf{NP}^{\mathsf{SY-Equal}} \subseteq \mathsf{NP}^{\Sigma_1^\mathsf{P}} = \Sigma_2^\mathsf{P}$$
.

Thus PH would collapse to the second level.



#### Combine all the ingredients

Now suppose that combinatorial injection existed.

Then SY-Equal belongs to coNP:

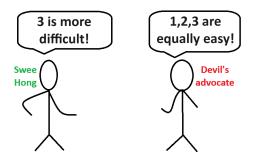
$$\mathsf{PH} \subseteq \mathsf{NP}^{\mathsf{SY-Equal}} \subseteq \mathsf{NP}^{\Sigma_1^\mathsf{P}} = \Sigma_2^\mathsf{P}$$
.

Thus PH would collapse to the second level.

Theorem (C.–Pak '24+)

No combinatorial injective proof for Stanley–Yan inequality for binary matroids, assuming  $\Sigma_2^P \neq \Sigma_3^P$ .

#### Recall our goal



We will now show that Stanley-Yan inequality is strictly more difficult than the binomial inequality and permutation inversion inequality.

#### Second main result

Consider the following computational problem:

**Input**: Binary matroid  $\mathcal{M}$ , subsets  $S, S_1, \ldots, S_d$ , integers  $k, \ell_1, \ldots, \ell_d$ .

**Output**:  $B_d(k)^2 - B_d(k+1) B_d(k-1)$ .

Theorem 2 (C.–Pak '24+)

The problem above does not belong to #P, assuming  $\Sigma_2^P \neq \Sigma_3^P$ .

#### Second main result

#### Theorem (C.–Pak $^{\prime}24+$ )

The problem of computing

$$B_d(k)^2 - B_d(k+1) B_d(k-1)$$

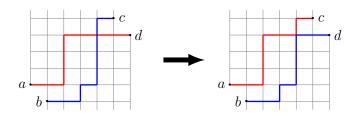
is **not in** #P, assuming  $\Sigma_2^P \neq \Sigma_3^P$ .

Both LHS and RHS of Stanley–Yan inequality belongs to #P, but their difference does not.

#### Example 1: Binomial inequality

It follows from path-swapping injections that

$$\binom{n}{k}^2 - \binom{n}{k+1}\binom{n}{k-1} = \text{number of non-intersecting}$$
  
lattice paths from  $a$  to  $c$  and  $b$  to  $d$ .



Thus the defect of this inequality belongs to #P.

#### Example 2: Permutation inversion inequality

Let  $a_k = \text{number of } \pi \in S_n \text{ with } k \text{ inversions.}$ 

Then 
$$\sum_{0 \le k \le {n \choose 2}} a_k \, q^k = \prod_{i=1}^{m-1} (1+q+\ldots+q^i)$$
 is computable in poly(n) time.

Thus  $a_k^2 - a_{k+1}a_{k-1}$  is computable in poly(n) time; and thus belongs to #P.

#### Conclusion

We compare three log-concave inequalities:

Binomial inequality: in #P;

Permutation inversion inequality: in #P;

Stanley–Yan inequality: **not in** #P.

This differentiates **Stanley–Yan inequality** from binomial inequality and permutation inversion inequality.

#### Open Problem

#### Conjecture

Defect of Mason's conjecture

$$I(k)^2 - I(k+1)I(k-1) \notin \#P.$$

We have shown defect of Stanley-Yan inequality does not belong to #P, but not Mason's conjecture.

# THANK YOU!

Preprint: www.arxiv.org/abs/2407.19608

Webpage: www.math.rutgers.edu/~sc2518/

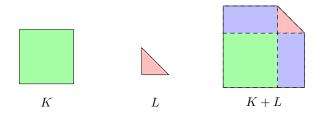
Email: sweehong.chan@rutgers.edu

#### Mixed volumes: dimension 2

For convex bodies  $K, L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ ,

$$Vol(aK+bL) = V(K,K)a^2 + V(L,L)b^2 + 2V(K,L)ab$$

is a quadratic polynomial in  $a, b \ge 0$ .



Coefficients V(K, K), V(L, L), V(K, L) are mixed volumes.