#### Complexity of Log-concave Inequalities for Matroids

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#### What is log-concavity?

A sequence  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  is log-concave if

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

Log-concavity (and positivity) implies unimodality:

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



#### Example 1: binomial coefficients

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

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: permutations with  $k$  inversions

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

This sequence is log-concave because

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

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).





Which log-concave inequality is more "difficult"?





### We aim to differentiate simple log-concave inequalities from complex log-concave inequalities using Complexity Theory.

#### Matroids

Object: matroids

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

#### Graphic matroids

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

#### Realizable matroids

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

Matroids: conditions



A basis is a maximal independent set. Rank r of matroid is the size of the bases.

For matroid 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,  ${\rm I}(k)^2 \ \geq \ {\rm I}(k+1){\rm I}(k-1) \qquad (k\in {\mathbb N}),$  Mason conjecture (continued)

# Conjecture (Mason '72)  $I(k)^2 \geq I(k+1)I(k-1)$   $(k \in \mathbb{N}).$

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

Both proofs used combinatorial Hodge theory.

#### Stanley–Yan inequality (simple)

Fix a disjoint subset  $S$  of  $X$ .

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

Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23) The sequence  $B(1), B(2), \ldots$  is log-concave,  $B(k)^2 \ge B(k+1)B(k-1)$  (k ∈ N). Stanley–Yan inequality (simple)

Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23)  $B(k)^2 \ge B(k+1)B(k-1)$  (k ∈ 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 conjecture

#### Let

 $\mathcal{M}'$  := direct sum of M with the free matroid of  $r$  elements;  $S = X$ 

#### Then

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

Thus Stanley–Yan inequality for M′ implies Mason conjecture for M.

#### Stanley–Yan inequality (true)

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

 $\mathrm{B}_d(k) := \begin{array}{c} \text{number of bases } B \text{ of } \mathbb{M} \text{ such that} \ \mathrm{B}_d(k) := \begin{array}{c} |E| \geq 0 \end{array}$  $|B \cap S| = k$ ,  $|B \cap S_i| = \ell_i$  for  $i \in [d]$ ,

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

Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23) The sequence  $B_d(1), B_d(2), \ldots$  is log-concave,  $\mathrm{B}_d(k)^2 \ \geq \ \mathrm{B}_d(k+1) \mathrm{B}_d(k-1) \qquad (k\in \mathbb{N}).$  When is equality achieved?

#### Quote (Gardner '02)

If inequalities are silver currency in mathematics, those that come along with precise equality conditions are gold.

Example (AM–GM inequality) For non-negative  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ ,  $rac{x_1+\cdots+x_n}{n} \geq \sqrt[n]{x_1\cdots x_n},$ with equality if and only if  $x_1 = \cdots = x_n$ .

#### Main result

Consider the decision problem for checking equality in Stanley–Yan inequality:  $B_d(k)^2 = \n\begin{cases}\nB_d(k+1) & B_d(k-1).\n\end{cases}$ Theorem  $(C.-Pak '24+)$ For  $d > 1$ , problem cannot be decided in polynomial time, unless  $NP = coNP$ .

#### Main result

Consider the decision problem for checking equality in Stanley–Yan inequality:

$$
B_d(k)^2 =
$$
<sup>7</sup>  $B_d(k+1) B_d(k-1)$ .

Theorem  $(C.-Pak '24+)$ For  $d > 1$ , problem cannot be decided in polynomial time, unless  $NP = coNP$ .

Theorem 1  $(C.-Pak '24+)$ For  $d \geq 1$ , problem is not part of **polynomial** hierarchy, unless polynomial hierarchy collapses.

#### Polynomial hierarchy

#### Decision vs counting

Decision problem: answer is either 'Yes' or 'No'. Counting problem: answer is a nonnegative integer.

Example (3-colorings of graph G) • Decision problem: Check if there exists a proper 3-coloring of G.

• Counting problem: Find the number of proper 3-colorings of G.

Polynomial hierarchy is a subclass of decision problems.

#### Complexity class P

 $P := \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Decision problems solvable by deterministic} \ \text{Turing machine in polynomial time} \end{array} \right\}$ 

#### Example

Check if a given 3-coloring of a graph G is proper.

This can be solved in  $O(n^2)$  time by checking the color of endpoints of every edge.



#### Complexity class NP

 $NP := \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{Decision problems solvable by nondetermin} \ \text{noise} \ \text{noise} \ \text{noise} \ \text{function} \ \text{probability} \ \text{model} \ \text{time} \end{array} \right\}.$ 

.

- Can split into many parallel branches;
- Output 'YES' if one of the branches said 'YES';
- Output 'NO' if all branches said 'NO'.



#### Complexity class NP

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- Can split into many parallel branches;
- Output 'YES' if one of the branches said 'YES';
- Output 'NO' if all branches said 'NO'.







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Complexity class NP: example

Problem: Check if graph G has a proper 3-coloring.



Each branch corresponds to checking if a particular 3-coloring of G is proper.



Output to this example is 'YES'.

#### Turing machine with an oracle

At each step, this machine can either:

- **•** Perform usual nondeterministic Turing machine operation; or
- **•** Ask an oracle that is able to answer one fixed type of problems.



#### Turing machine with an oracle: example

- Problem: Check if there is an induced subgraph of G of size  $\lceil n/2 \rceil$  that is not 3-colorable.
- Oracle: Can check if a graph is 3-colorable.

#### Turing machine with an oracle: example

Problem: Check if there is an induced subgraph of G of size  $\lceil n/2 \rceil$  that is not 3-colorable. Oracle: Can check if a graph is 3-colorable.

Each branch of the machine corresponds to an induced subgraph of G of size  $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ .







For every branch, oracle checks if subgraph is 3-colorable.

# Complexity class  $\Sigma_i^{\mathsf{P}}$

The first two classes are

 $Σ_0^P$  $P_0^P := P; \quad \Sigma_1^P := NP.$ For  $i \geq 1$ , the class  $\Sigma_i^{\mathsf{P}} := \mathsf{NP}^{\Sigma_{i-1}^{\mathsf{P}}}$  is  $\sqrt{ }$  $\int$  $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$ Decision problems solvable by nondeterministic Turing machine in polynomial time with an oracle for problem from  $\Sigma_{i-1}^{\mathsf{P}}$ .  $\mathcal{L}$  $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$  $\int$ 

.

Note that

$$
\Sigma^P_0 \ \subseteq \ \Sigma^P_1 \ \subseteq \ \Sigma^P_2 \ \subseteq \ \Sigma^P_3 \ \subseteq \ \cdots
$$

#### Polynomial hierarchy (PH)

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

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

#### **Conjecture**

Polynomial hierarchy does not collapse,

$$
\Sigma^P_0 \; \subsetneq \; \Sigma^P_1 \; \subsetneq \; \Sigma^P_2 \; \subsetneq \; \Sigma^P_3 \; \subsetneq \; \cdots
$$

• 
$$
\Sigma_0^P = \Sigma_1^P
$$
 is equivalent to  $P = NP$ .

 $\Sigma_1^{\mathsf{P}} = \Sigma_2^{\mathsf{P}}$  is equivalent to  $\mathsf{NP} = \mathsf{coNP}$ .

#### Back to main result

Consider the decision problem for checking equality in Stanley–Yan inequality:  $B_d(k)^2 =$ <sup>2</sup>  $B_d(k+1) B_d(k-1)$ .

Theorem (C.–Pak '24+) For  $d > 1$ , decision problem is not in PH, unless PH collapses.



### We aim to differentiate simple log-concave inequalities from complex log-concave inequalities using **Complexity Theory**.

#### Complexity class #P

Complexity class  $\#P$ 

#### $\mathsf{\#P} \coloneqq$  $\sqrt{ }$  $\int$  $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$ Counting problems realizable as number of 'YES' branches in some nondeterministic Turing machine.  $\mathcal{L}$  $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$  $\int$

.

#### Example

Count number of proper 3-colorings of graph G.

**Not** to be confused with FP, which is counting problems solvable in deterministic polynomial time.

#### Main result

Theorem 2 (C.-Pak '24+)  
For 
$$
d \ge 1
$$
, the defect of Stanley–Yan inequality  

$$
B_d(k)^2 - B_d(k+1) B_d(k-1)
$$
is not in #P, unless PH collapses.

Note:  $B_d(k)^2$  and  $B_d(k+1) B_d(k-1)$  are in  $\#P$ .

Example 1: binomial inequality

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

This inequality has a lattice path interpretation:

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

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



#### Example 1: binomial inequality Let

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



Example 1: binomial inequality

Note  $K(a \to c, b \to d) \geq K(a \to d, b \to c)$  by path-swapping injections.



 $K(a \to c, b \to d) - K(a \to d, b \to c)$  is number of pairs of north-east lattice paths from  $a$  to  $c, b$  to  $d$ , that do not intersect. Thus this number is in  $\#P$ .

#### Example 2: permutations with  $k$  inversions

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

Then 
$$
\sum_{0\leq k\leq {n\choose 2}}a_kq^k = \prod_{i=1}^{n-1}(1+q+\ldots+q^i)
$$

is computable in  $poly(n)$  time.

Thus  $a_k^2 - a_{k+1}a_{k-1}$  is computable in  $\text{poly}(n)$  time, and so is in  $\#P$ .

#### Back to our goal

We compare three log-concave inequalities:

Binomial inequality: in  $\#P$ ;

Permutation inversion inequality: in  $\#P$ ;

Stanley–Yan inequality: not in  $\#P$ , unless PH collapses.

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

#### What is next?

# **Conjecture** Defect of Mason conjecture  $I(k)^2 - I(k+1)I(k-1) \notin \#P$ .

# THANK YOU!

Preprint: <www.arxiv.org/abs/2309.05764> Webpage: <www.math.rutgers.edu/~sc2518/> Email: sweehong.chan@rutgers.edu

# Complexity class  $\Sigma_i^{\mathsf{P}}$ : example

Problem A: Check if a 3-coloring of G is proper. Problem A is in  $\Sigma_0^P = P$ .

Problem B: Check if G has a proper 3-coloring. Problem B is in  $\Sigma_1^P = NP$ .

Problem C: Check if there is an induced subgraph of G of size  $\lceil n/2 \rceil$  that is not 3-colorable. Problem C is in  $\Sigma_2^P = NP^{NP}$ .