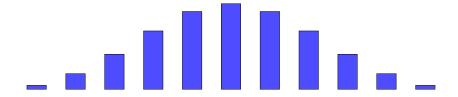
Complexity of Log-concave Inequalities for Matroids

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joint with Igor Pak



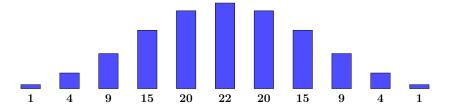
What is log-concavity?

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:

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



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: permutations with k inversions

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

This sequence is log-concave because

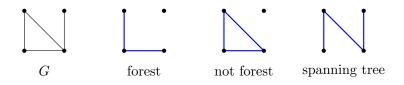
$$\sum_{0 \le k \le \binom{n}{2}} a_k q^k \; = \; [n]_q! \; = \; \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (1+q+q^2+\ldots+q^i)$$

is a product of log-concave polynomials.

Example 3: forests of a graph

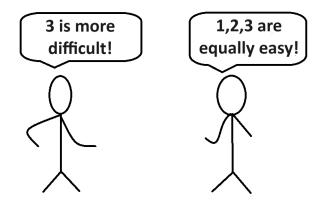
 a_k = number of forests with k edges of graph G. Forest is a subset of edges of G that has no cycles.

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 $\mathcal{I} \subseteq 2^X$.

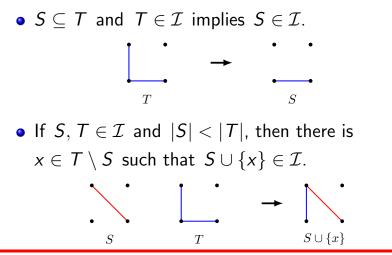
Graphic matroids

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

Realizable matroids

- X = finite set of vectors over field \mathbb{F} ,
- \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 \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),... is log-concave, $I(k)^2 \ge I(k+1)I(k-1)$ $(k \in \mathbb{N})$, Mason conjecture (continued)

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

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 $r! \times {r \choose k}^{-1}$.

Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23) The sequence $B(1), B(2), \dots$ is log-concave, $B(k)^2 \ge B(k+1)B(k-1) \quad (k \in \mathbb{N}).$ Stanley–Yan inequality (simple)

Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23) $B(k)^2 \ge B(k+1)B(k-1) \qquad (k \in \mathbb{N}).$

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 conjecture

Let

 $\mathcal{M}' := \begin{array}{l} \operatorname{direct\ sum\ of\ } \mathcal{M} \ \text{with\ the} \\ \operatorname{free\ matroid\ of\ } r \ \text{elements;} \end{array}$ S := X.

Then

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

Thus Stanley–Yan inequality for \mathcal{M}' implies Mason conjecture for \mathcal{M} .

Stanley–Yan inequality (true)

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

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

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

Theorem (Stanley '81, Yan '23) The sequence $B_d(1), B_d(2), \ldots$ is log-concave, $B_d(k)^2 \ge B_d(k+1)B_d(k-1) \quad (k \in \mathbb{N}).$ 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 $x_1, ..., x_n$, $\frac{x_1+\dots+x_n}{n} \ge \sqrt[n]{x_1\cdots x_n}$, with equality if and only if $x_1 = \dots = x_n$.

Main result

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

Main result

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

Theorem 1 (C.–Pak '24+) For $d \ge 1$, 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.

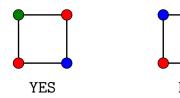
Complexity class P

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

Example

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

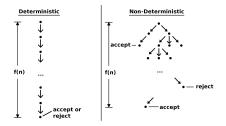
This can be solved in $O(n^2)$ time by checking the color of endpoints of every edge.



Complexity class NP

 $\mathsf{NP} := \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathsf{Decision \ problems \ solvable \ by \ nondetermi-} \\ \mathsf{nistic \ Turing \ machine \ in \ polynomial \ time} \end{array} \right\}.$

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



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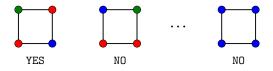


Complexity class NP: example

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 Σ_i^{P}

The first two classes are

$$\begin{split} \Sigma_0^{\mathsf{P}} &:= \mathsf{P}; \qquad \Sigma_1^{\mathsf{P}} := \mathsf{N}\mathsf{P}. \\ \text{For } i \geq 1 \text{, the class } \Sigma_i^{\mathsf{P}} &:= \mathsf{N}\mathsf{P}^{\Sigma_{i-1}^{\mathsf{P}}} \text{ is} \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Decision problems solvable by nondetermininstic Turing machine in polynomial time} \\ \text{with an oracle for problem from } \Sigma_{i-1}^{\mathsf{P}}. \end{array} \right\}. \end{split}$$

Note that

$$\Sigma_0^\mathsf{P} \ \subseteq \ \Sigma_1^\mathsf{P} \ \subseteq \ \Sigma_2^\mathsf{P} \ \subseteq \ \Sigma_3^\mathsf{P} \ \subseteq \ \cdots$$

Polynomial hierarchy (PH)

Polynomial hierarchy is the union of all Σ_i^{P} 's,

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

Conjecture

Polynomial hierarchy does not collapse,

$$\Sigma_0^\mathsf{P} \ \subsetneq \ \Sigma_1^\mathsf{P} \ \subsetneq \ \Sigma_2^\mathsf{P} \ \subsetneq \ \Sigma_3^\mathsf{P} \ \subsetneq \ \cdots$$

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

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

Back to main result

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

Theorem (C.–Pak '24+) For $d \ge 1$, 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

$\#\mathsf{P} := \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Counting problems realizable as number} \\ \text{of 'YES' branches in some nondetermining machine.} \end{array} \right\}.$

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.

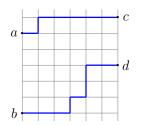
Example 1: binomial inequality

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

This inequality has a lattice path interpretation:

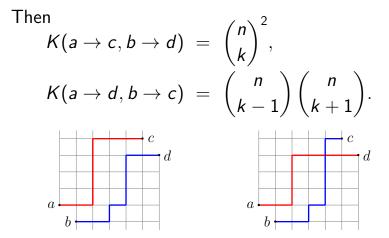
$$K(a \rightarrow c, b \rightarrow d) :=$$
 no. of pairs of north-east lattice paths from a to c and b to d,

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



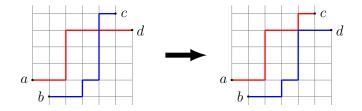
Example 1: binomial inequality

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



Example 1: binomial inequality

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



 $K(a \rightarrow c, b \rightarrow d) - K(a \rightarrow d, b \rightarrow c)$ 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
$$\sum_{0\leq k\leq \binom{n}{2}}a_k\,q^k\ =\ \prod_{i=1}^{n-1}(1+q+\ldots+q^i)$$

is computable in poly(n) time.

Thus $a_k^2 - a_{k+1}a_{k-1}$ is computable in 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.



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 $\Sigma_i^{\rm P}$: 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 $\Sigma_2^{P} = NP^{NP}$.