

Introduction to algebraic complexity theory and how geometry enters

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Algebraic Complexity Theory Workshop at ICALP 2023

Agenda

- 1 Algebraic complexity theory
- 2 Geometry

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1 Algebraic complexity theory

2 Geometry

Algebraic algorithms

- Fast Fourier transform, fast matrix multiplication, ...
- Solving systems of linear equations
- Solving systems of polynomial equations: Gröbner bases
- Coding Theory: Reed-Muller codes, ...
- Number theory: Euclidean algorithm, Chinese Remainder Theorem, ...

Analyzing running time of algebraic algorithms:

- Number of arithmetic operations
- Size/growth/precision of the numbers

Arithmetization

Computation modulo 2: The field \mathbb{F}_2

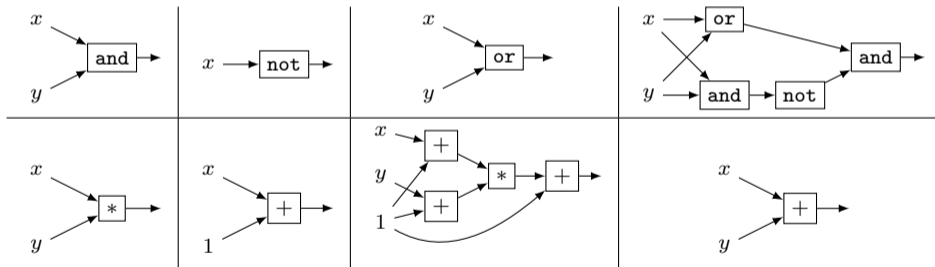
*	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

Boolean "and"

+	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

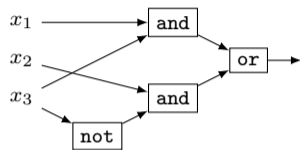
Boolean "xor"

Translate Boolean circuit using {and, or, not} \iff algebraic circuit using {+, *}:

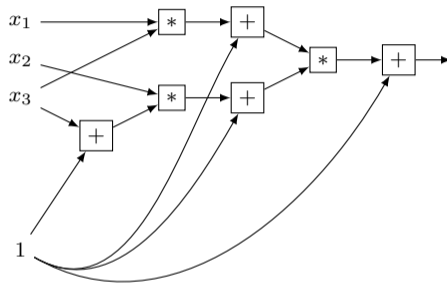


During the translation the circuit only grows in size by at most a factor of 4.

Example



$(x_1 \text{ and } x_3) \text{ or } (x_2 \text{ and } \text{not}(x_3))$



$x_1x_2x_3^2 + x_1x_2x_3 + x_1x_3 + x_2x_3 + x_2$

Infinite fields

- Algebraic circuits naturally compute a polynomial
- Problem: Different polynomials can give the same function:

$$x^2y + x = xy + x^2 \quad \text{for all } x, y \in \mathbb{F}_2,$$

but $\text{coeff}_{xy}(x^2y + x) = 0 \neq 1 = \text{coeff}_{xy}(xy + x^2)$.

- The situation is better over infinite fields (for example \mathbb{C}):

Lemma

Over an infinite field, two polynomials compute the same function iff they have the same coefficient list.

Proof: Simple induction and polynomial division.

“Algebraic P vs NP”

The determinant polynomial:

$$\det_m = \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_m} \operatorname{sgn}(\pi) \prod_{i=1}^m x_{i, \pi(i)}$$

The permanent polynomial:

$$\operatorname{per}_m = \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_m} \prod_{i=1}^m x_{i, \pi(i)}$$

Assume from now on $\operatorname{char} \mathbb{F} \neq 2$, because otherwise $\det_m = \operatorname{per}_m$.

Def.: The **algebraic circuit size** $a(\operatorname{per}_m)$ is the smallest size of an algebraic circuit computing per_m .

Algebraic P vs NP conjecture (**VP** \neq **VNP**, Valiant 1979)

$a(\operatorname{per}_m)$ is not polynomially bounded.

Determinants instead of circuits

Theorem (Valiant 1979)

Every multivariate polynomial f can be written as the determinant of a matrix whose entries are polynomials of degree ≤ 1 .

Example: $f := y + 2x + xz + 2xy - x^2z = \det \begin{pmatrix} x & y & 0 \\ -1 & z + y + 2 & x \\ 1 & z & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Def.: Required size of the matrix is called the **determinantal complexity** $dc(f)$.

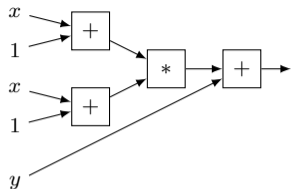
In the example we have $dc(f) \leq 3$.

Valiant's determinant vs permanent conjecture

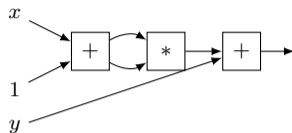
$dc(\text{per}_m)$ is not polynomially bounded.

This is implied by **VP** \neq **VNP**.

Resources in algebraic computation



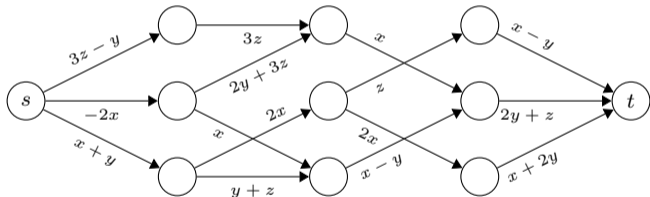
$$\det \begin{pmatrix} x+1 & y \\ -1 & x+1 \end{pmatrix}$$



formula size

determinantal complexity dc

circuit size



- Computes $\sum_{s-t\text{-path } p} \prod_{\text{edge } e \in p} \text{label}(e)$
- $w(p) :=$ the smallest width of an ABP computing p .

Theorem (Toda 1991)

$dc(p)$ and $w(p)$ are polynomially related.

Definition p-family

A **p-family** is a sequence $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of polynomials such that:

- The number of variables is polynomially bounded
- The degree is polynomially bounded
- **VF** := { p-family whose formula size is polynomially bounded }
- **VBP** := { p-family whose dc (or w) is polynomially bounded }
- **VP** := { p-family whose circuit size is polynomially bounded }

$$\mathbf{VF} \subseteq \mathbf{VBP} \subseteq \mathbf{VP}$$

$(f_n) \in C$ is complete for C if $\forall (g_m) \in C$ there exists a polynomially bounded s and linear polynomials ℓ_i such that

$$\forall m : g_m = f_{s(m)}(\ell_1, \ell_2, \dots).$$

For example, (\det_n) is **VBP**-complete.

Example: $(x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n) \in \mathbf{VBP}$, because $\det(\text{diag}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)) = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$.

$$\text{IMM}_r^{(d)} := (x_{1,1,1} \ x_{1,2,1} \ \cdots \ x_{1,r,1}) \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1,2} & \cdots & x_{1,r,2} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{r,1,2} & \cdots & x_{r,r,2} \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1,d-1} & \cdots & x_{1,r,d-1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{r,1,d-1} & \cdots & x_{r,r,d-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1,d} \\ \vdots \\ x_{1,r,d} \end{pmatrix}$$

- $\text{IMM}_3^{(n)}$ is **VF**-complete [Ben-Or, Cleve 1988].
- $\text{IMM}_n^{(n)}$ is **VBP**-complete.
- There is no equally nice **VP**-complete p-family known.

Definition **VNP**

A p-family (f_n) is in **VNP** if there exists a p-family $(g_n) \in \mathbf{VP}$ and polynomially bounded functions r, s, t such that

$$\forall n : f_n = \sum_{b \in \{0,1\}^{r(n)}} g_{t(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_{s(n)}, b_1, \dots, b_{r(n)})$$

For example,

$$\text{per}_n = \sum_{b \in \{0,1\}^{n^2}} C(b) \prod_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} (b_{i,j}(x_{i,j} - 1) + 1),$$

where C is the arithmetization of a Boolean circuit checking if b is a permutation matrix.

- One can also take $(g_n) \in \mathbf{VF}$ and it gives the same class: **VNP** = **VNF**.
- One can also take (g_n) to be just a polynomially long product of linear polynomials (Bringmann-I-Zuiddam 2018)

Valiant 1979:

- The permanent p-family (per_n) is **VNP**-complete.

Efficient computation:

- $\mathbf{VF} \subseteq \mathbf{VBP} \subseteq \mathbf{VP}$
- “ $\mathbf{VBP} = \text{linear algebra}$ ” (determinant, iterated matrix multiplication)

Efficiently definable (“explicit polynomials”):

- \mathbf{VNP}
- “ $\mathbf{VNP} = \text{combinatorics/counting}$ ” (Cycle covers, permanent)

Valiant's conjectures

$\mathbf{VF} \neq \mathbf{VNP}$

$\mathbf{VBP} \neq \mathbf{VNP}$, determinant vs permanent, linear algebra vs counting

$\mathbf{VP} \neq \mathbf{VNP}$

Valiant's conjectures

VF \neq VNP

VBP \neq VNP, determinant vs permanent, linear algebra vs counting

VP \neq VNP

These algebraic conjectures are “easier” than the Boolean ones:

$$\text{PH} \neq \Sigma_2 \xrightarrow{\text{Karp-Lipton 1982}} \text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly} \xrightarrow{\text{Bürgisser 2000}} \text{VP} \neq \text{VNP} \implies \text{VBP} \neq \text{VNP} \implies \text{VF} \neq \text{VNP}$$

Bürgisser's result works

- over finite fields, and
- over \mathbb{C} (if the generalized Riemann hypothesis is true).

Agenda

- 1 Algebraic complexity theory
- 2 **Geometry**

We work with homogenized algebraic branching programs!

In fact, inhomogeneous set-ups can lead to weird behavior in the representation theory (Landsberg-Kadish 2012, I-Panova 2015, Bürgisser-I-Panova 2015)

For a fixed degree d and number of variables n and a complexity bound r , study the set

$$X_r := \{f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]_d \mid w(f) \leq r\}.$$

$$X_1 \subseteq X_2 \subseteq X_3 \subseteq \dots \subseteq X_{\max} = \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]_d$$

$$\text{IMM}_r^{(d)} := \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1,1} & x_{1,2,1} & \dots & x_{1,r,1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1,2} & \dots & x_{1,r,2} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{r,1,2} & \dots & x_{r,r,2} \end{pmatrix} \dots \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1,d-1} & \dots & x_{1,r,d-1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{r,1,d-1} & \dots & x_{r,r,d-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1,d} \\ \vdots \\ x_{1,r,d} \end{pmatrix}$$

VBP completeness with homogenization gives:

- If $f \in X_r$, then $f(A\vec{x}) \in X_r$ for any linear map A .
- Every $f \in X_r$ can be obtained via a linear map A as $f = \text{IMM}_r^{(d)}(A\vec{x})$

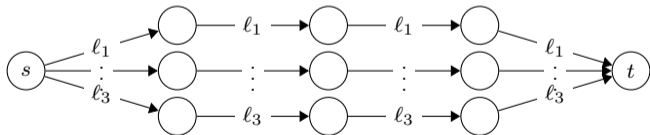
For example, if $f = x_1^3 + x_1x_2x_3$, and $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, then $f(A\vec{x}) = f(x_2, x_1, x_1 + x_2) = x_2^3 + x_1^2x_2 + x_1x_2^2$.

$$X_r := \{f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]_d \mid w(f) \leq r\}.$$

- Goal: find more useful mathematical structure on X_r .
- X_r is closed under base changes: Changing input variables to linear combination comes at no extra cost.
- But X_r is lacking a crucial property: It is not topologically closed.

Example from now on via Waring rank WR instead of w .

For a homogeneous degree d polynomial f the **Waring rank** $\text{WR}(f)$ is defined as the smallest r such that there exist homogeneous linear l_i such that $f = \sum_{i=1}^r (l_i)^d$.

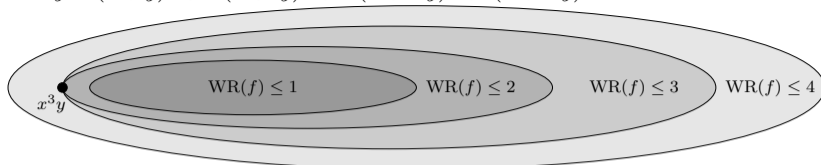


Not entirely obvious at first: $\text{WR}(f)$ is always finite.

For example:

$12x^3y = (x+y)^4 + i^3(x+iy)^4 + i^2(x+i^2y)^4 + i(x+i^3y)^4$, hence $\text{WR}(x^3y) \leq 4$. In fact, $\text{WR}(x^{d-1}y) = d$.

$$12x^3y = (x+y)^4 + i^3(x+iy)^4 + i^2(x+i^2y)^4 + i(x+i^3y)^4.$$



$$\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left((x + \varepsilon y)^4 - x^4 \right) = 4x^3y + \varepsilon(6x^2y^2 + 4\varepsilon xy^3 + \varepsilon^2 y^4) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} 4x^3y$$

The **border Waring rank** $\underline{\text{WR}}(f)$ is defined as the smallest r such that f can be approximated arbitrarily closely by polynomials of Waring rank $\leq r$. For example, $\underline{\text{WR}}(x^3y) \leq 2$.

For a space of polynomials $V = \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]_d$, the elements of $\mathbb{C}[V]$ are called **meta-polynomials**.

Example: For $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$, the discriminant $b^2 - 4ac$ is a meta-polynomial.

Theorem (algebraic geometry)

The set $\overline{W}_r = \{f \mid \underline{\text{WR}}(f) \leq r\}$ is an algebraic variety, i.e., there exist finitely many meta-polynomials $\Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_N$ with

$$f \in \overline{W}_r \Leftrightarrow \Delta_1(f) = \Delta_2(f) = \dots = \Delta_N(f) = 0$$

We conclude that we know how complexity lower bounds must look like:

Theorem: If $f \notin \overline{W}_r$, then there exists a meta-polynomial Δ with $\bullet \Delta(\overline{W}_r) = \{0\}$ and $\bullet \Delta(f) \neq 0$

$\mathbb{A} := \mathbb{C}[x, y]_2 = \langle x^2, xy, y^2 \rangle$.

Every element in \mathbb{A} can be represented as $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$.

- $X := \{f \in \mathbb{A} \mid \exists \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C} : f = (\alpha x + \beta y)^2\}$ set of Waring rank 1 polynomials
- $f \in X$ iff $\Delta(f) = b^2 - 4ac = 0$.
- To prove $\text{WR}(f) \geq 2$ we compute $\Delta(f) \neq 0$

Topological closures of algebraic complexity classes

$WR \rightarrow \underline{WR}$

Analogously, we can allow such approximations

- for formulas,
- for algebraic branching programs,
- for circuits,
- or for hypercube summations of circuits.

The corresponding complexity classes are

- $\mathbf{VF} \subseteq \overline{\mathbf{VF}}$,
- $\mathbf{VBP} \subseteq \overline{\mathbf{VBP}}$,
- $\mathbf{VP} \subseteq \overline{\mathbf{VP}}$,
- $\mathbf{VNP} \subseteq \overline{\mathbf{VNP}}$.

Wide open question: Is $\overline{\mathbf{VF}} \subseteq \mathbf{VNP}$?

Let $X_r := \{f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]_d \mid w(f) \leq r\}$.

- To find meta-polynomials Δ for $\overline{X_r}$, instead of studying $\overline{X_r}$ directly, one can study its **coordinate ring**, i.e., ring of polynomial functions restricted to $\overline{X_r}$.
- Representation theory helps to study the coordinate ring using the weights of the GL_n : a finer variant of a degree for meta-polynomials
- Connections to invariant theory and algebraic combinatorics, established by Mulmuley and Sohoni 2001, 2008.

Conclusion

- We do not know how powerful approximations in algebraic complexity theory are, but
- if we allow approximations, then all complexity lower bounds come from meta-polynomials, and this opens a wide array of tools from algebraic geometry and representation theory.

Thank you very much for your attention!