

### Algebraic Complexity Theory

Lecture I: Course overview;
Arithmetic Circuits

Department of Computer Science, Indian Institute of Science

### About the course

 The broad area of Algorithms & Complexity has two complementary facets: <u>designing efficient algorithms</u> for computational problems (<u>upper bounds</u>) and <u>proving hardness results</u> by studying suitable models of computation (<u>lower bounds</u>).

### About the course

- The broad area of Algorithms & Complexity has two complementary facets: designing efficient algorithms for computational problems (upper bounds) and proving hardness results by studying suitable models of computation (lower bounds).
- When computational problems have <u>algebraic</u>, <u>linear</u> <u>algebraic or number theoretic flavor</u>, the two facets are known as Computer Algebra and Algebraic Complexity Theory (ACT).

- Linear algebraic problems:
  - I. Computing determinant of a matrix
  - 2. Computing inverse of a matrix
  - 3. Solving a system of linear equations
  - 4. Computing characteristic polynomial
  - 5. Matrix multiplication

- Computation with polynomials:
  - I. Computing GCD of polynomials
  - 2. Polynomial interpolation & (multi-point) evaluation
  - 3. Polynomial factoring
  - 4. Polynomial multiplication
  - 5. Solving a polynomial system
  - 6. Computing Gröbner basis of a polynomial ideal

- Computation with numbers:
  - 1. Computing GCD of integers
  - Integer factoring
  - 3. Integer multiplication
  - 4. Testing primality
  - 5. Finding short vectors in an integer lattice

#### • References:

- Modern Computer Algebra by von zur Gathen & Gerhard (1999, 2003)
- 2. A Computational Introduction to Number Theory and Algebra by Victor Shoup (2005, 2008)
- 3. Algebra and Computation by Madhu Sudan (1999)
- 4. A Survey of Techniques used in Algebraic and Number Theoretic Algorithms by Manindra Agrawal (2005)
- 5. Topics in Algebra and Computation by me (2013)

### Towards Algebraic Complexity Theory

- To get a sense of what <u>model of computation</u> we should study in ACT for examining algebraic problems & algorithms, let us focus on <u>matrix multiplication</u>.
- Linear algebraic problems:
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Reduce to matrix multiplication

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Ref.: A survey on "Computation of the Inverse and Determinant of a Matrix" by Villard (2002). See also the wiki page on "Computational Complexity of Mathematical operations".

### Towards Algebraic Complexity Theory

- To get a sense of what model of computation we should study in ACT for examining algebraic problems & algorithms, let us focus on matrix multiplication.
- Linear algebraic problems:
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  - 3. Solving a system of linear equations
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Reference: "Fast algorithms for the characteristic polynomial" by Keller-Gehrig (1985)

- Input: Two matrices  $A = (x_{ij})_{i,j \in [n]}$  and  $B = (y_{kl})_{k,l \in [n]}$ .
- Output: The matrix  $C = AB = (z_{pq})_{p,q \in [n]}$ .
- Easy to see that  $O(n^3)$  additions and multiplications are sufficient to compute C.
- Is O(n³) <u>arithmetic operations</u> necessary?

- Input: Two matrices  $A = (x_{ij})_{i,j \in [n]}$  and  $B = (y_{kl})_{k,l \in [n]}$ .
- Output: The matrix  $C = AB = (z_{pq})_{p,q \in [n]}$ .
- Easy to see that  $O(n^3)$  additions and multiplications are sufficient to compute C.
- Is  $O(n^3)$  arithmetic operations necessary? No! (Strassen'69)
- Let's focus on the n = 2 case. A trivial algorithm uses
   8 multiplications and 4 additions.

• Let 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $B = \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} & y_{12} \\ y_{21} & y_{22} \end{bmatrix}$  and  $C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} z_{11} & z_{12} \\ z_{21} & z_{22} \end{bmatrix}$ 

• Strassen (1969). Using 7 multiplications and 18 additions/subtractions, we can compute C.

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#### Suppose,

• 
$$m_1 = x_{11} \cdot (y_{12} - y_{22})$$

• 
$$m_2 = (x_{11} + x_{12}) \cdot y_{22}$$

• 
$$m_3 = (x_{21} + x_{22}) \cdot y_{11}$$

• 
$$m_4 = x_{22} \cdot (y_{21} - y_{11})$$

• 
$$m_5 = (x_{11} + x_{22}) \cdot (y_{11} + y_{22})$$

• 
$$m_6 = (x_{12} - x_{22}) \cdot (y_{21} + y_{22})$$

• 
$$m_7 = (x_{11} - x_{21}) \cdot (y_{11} + y_{12})$$

#### Then,

• 
$$z_{11} = -m_2 + m_4 + m_5 + m_6$$

• 
$$z_{12} = m_1 + m_2$$

• 
$$z_{21} = m_3 + m_4$$

• 
$$z_{22} = m_1 - m_3 + m_5 - m_7$$

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• Why does this help? Because, the above identities hold even if  $x_{ij}$ ,  $y_{kl}$  and  $z_{pq}$  are matrices!

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• So we can apply recursion to multiply two  $2^k \times 2^k$  matrices, where  $x_{ii}$ ,  $y_{kl}$  and  $z_{pq}$  are  $2^{k-1} \times 2^{k-1}$  matrices.

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• Solving the recursion  $M(2^k) = 18 \cdot 2^{2(k-1)} + 7 \cdot M(2^{k-1})$ , we get  $M(2^k) = O(7^k)$ . Hence,  $M(n) = O(n^{\lg 7}) = O(n^{2.807..})$ .

- Open question: How many arithmetic operations (multiplications, divisions, additions, subtractions) are necessary & sufficient to multiply two n x n matrices?
- Winograd (1971) showed that 7 multiplications are required for multiplying two  $2 \times 2$  matrices.

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References	M(n)
Strassen (1969)	O(n <sup>2.81</sup> )
Schönhage (1981)	$O(n^{2.55})$
Coppersmith & Winograd (1987)	O(n <sup>2.376</sup> )
Optimized CW (Stothers, Vassilevska Williams, Le Gall)	:
Alman, Duan, Vassilevska Williams, Xu, Xu, Zhou (2024)	O(n <sup>2.37134</sup> )

Ref. "Algebraic Complexity Theory and Matrix Multiplication" by Le Gall (a tutorial)

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Ref. See also Lec 3 of "Topics in Complexity Theory" course (2015)

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 Questions and results of the above kind are studied in Algebraic Complexity Theory using a model a computation known as <u>arithmetic circuits</u>.

Given the nature of the aforementioned problems, the basic operations involved in algorithms for these problems are arithmetic operations such as addition (+), subtraction (-), multiplication (x), division (÷), kth root finding, and comparison.

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  - a) real RAM model

Ref. "Computational Geometry" by Shamos (1978)

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  - a) real RAM model
  - b) BSS model

Ref. "On a theory of Computation and Complexity over the real numbers: NP-completeness, recursive functions, and Universal Machines" by Blum, Shub, Smale (1989)

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  - b) BSS model
  - c) Arithmetic Circuits
  - "Simplest" non-uniform version of the first two models

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root finding and comparison **not** allowed

- b) BSS model
- c) Arithmetic Circuits

"Simplest" non-uniform version of the first two models

- Arith. circuits are algebraic analogs of Bool. circuits.
- Definition. An <u>arithmetic circuit</u> over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is a directed acyclic graph with nodes labelled by arithmetic operations  $(+,\times,\div)$  or input variables  $\times_1,\ldots,\times_n$  or field constants.

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The <u>input nodes</u> labelled by  $x_1, ..., x_n$  have in-degree 0.

Nodes labelled by  $\mathbb{F}$  elements also have in-degree 0.

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Nodes labelled by + have fan-in two.

Edges are labelled by F elements.

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A node labelled by  $x_i$  (similarly,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ ) <u>computes</u>  $x_i$  (respectively,  $\alpha$ ). A node labelled by an operation \* with inputs from nodes computing  $f_1, \ldots, f_m$  <u>computes</u>

$$\alpha_1 f_1^* \dots * \alpha_m f_m$$

where  $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_m \in \mathbb{F}$  are the corresponding edge labels.

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where  $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_m \in \mathbb{F}$  are the corresponding edge labels. Division by 0 is forbidden.

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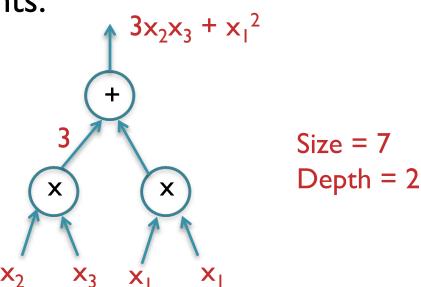
Naturally, an arithmetic circuit computes a set of <u>rational functions</u> over  $\mathbb{F}$ . A rational function is a ratio of two polynomials.

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Size of a circuit is the number of edges in it.

<u>Depth</u> of a circuit is the length of the longest path from an input to an output node (gate).

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The number of  $\times$ ,  $\div$  gates with at least two children not labelled by field constants is called the <u>non-scalar complexity</u> of the circuit.

When there are no ÷ gates, non-scalar complexity is also called *multiplicative complexity*.

- Reason I. For several of the aforementioned problems, the output is a rational function (often a polynomial) in the input variables.
- Example I. (Determinant computation)

Let 
$$X = (x_{ij})_{i,j \in [n]}$$
. Then, 
$$\det(X) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} (-1)^{sign(\sigma)} \prod_{i \in [n]} x_{i \sigma(i)},$$

which is a degree-n polynomial in  $n^2$  variables with  $\pm 1$  nonzero coefficients.

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- Example 2. (Matrix multiplication)

Let 
$$A = (x_{ij})_{i,j \in [n]}$$
,  $B = (y_{kl})_{k,l \in [n]}$ ,  $C = AB = (z_{pq})_{p,q \in [n]}$ .

Then, each  $z_{pq} = \sum_{k \in [n]} x_{pk} \cdot y_{kq}$  is a quadratic form in the x and y variables. All nonzero coefficients are 1.

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- Example 3. (Solving a linear system)

$$x_{11}y_1 + x_{12}y_2 + \dots + x_{1n}y_n = z_1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_{n1}y_1 + x_{n2}y_2 + \dots + x_{nn}y_n = z_n$$
a linear system in  $y$  variables

Here the inputs are  $\{x_{ij}: i,j \in [n]\}$  and  $z_1, ..., z_n$ .

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a linear system in  $y$  variables

Let  $X = (x_{ij})_{i,j \in [n]}$  and  $Z_{\ell}$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix whose  $\ell^{th}$  column is  $(z_1 \dots z_n)^T$  and any other (i,j)-th entry is  $x_{ij}$ . Then, by Cramer's rule,  $y_{\ell} = \det(Z_{\ell})/\det(X)$ .

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- Example 4. (Polynomial interpolation)

Input. Points 
$$(x_1,z_1),...,(x_n,z_n) \in \mathbb{F}^2$$
.

Output.  $f(y) \in \mathbb{F}[y]$  s.t.  $f(x_i) = z_i$  for all  $i \in [n]$ .

Lagrange interpolation.
$$f(y) = \sum_{i \in [n]} z_i \cdot \frac{\sum_{j \in [n] \setminus \{i\}} (y - x_j)}{\prod_{j \in [n] \setminus \{i\}} (x_i - x_j)}$$

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$$f(y) = \sum_{i \in [n]} z_i \cdot \prod_{\substack{j \in [n] \setminus \{i\} \\ j \in [n] \setminus \{i\}}} (x_i - x_j)$$

Obs. The coefficients of f are rational functions in x and z variables of degree  $O(n^2)$ .

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Define the <u>elementary symmetric polynomial</u> as

$$ESym_{n,d}(\mathbf{x}) := \sum_{S \in \binom{[n]}{d}} \prod_{i \in S} x_i$$

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Obs. 
$$(y - x_1) \cdot ... \cdot (y - x_n) = \sum_{d \in [0,n]} (-1)^d \cdot \mathsf{ESym}_{n,d}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot y^{n-d}$$

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More on ESym in later lectures...

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- Example 5. (Polynomial multiplication)

Input. 
$$f = x_n y^n + ... + x_0$$
 and  $g = z_n y^n + ... + z_0 \in \mathbb{F}[y]$   
Output.  $h = f \cdot g = \sum_{i \in [0,2n]} \left( \sum_{j \in [0,i]} x_j z_{i-j} \right) y^i$ 

Obs. The coefficients of h are polynomials in x and z variables of degree 2.

- Reason I. For several of the aforementioned problems, the output is a rational function (often a polynomial) in the input variables.
- Example 6. (Checking coprimality of polynomials)

```
Input. f = x_n y^n + ... + x_0 and g = z_m y^m + ... + z_0 \in \mathbb{F}[y]; the leading coefficients x_n, z_m \neq 0.
```

Output. I if  $gcd_y(f, g) = I$ , else o/p 0.

Lemma. The  $gcd_y(f, g) \neq I$  iff the <u>resultant</u> of f and g is 0. (see Lec 6 of "Topics in Algebra & Computation" (2013))

# Sylvester Matrix and the Resultant

- $f = x_n y^n + ... + x_0$ ,  $g = z_m y^m + ... + z_0 \in \mathbb{F}[y]$ ;  $x_n, z_m \neq 0$ .
- Definition. The Sylvester matrix  $S_y(f, g)$  is as follows:

$S_{y}(f, g)$	:=
---------------	----

$\mathbf{x}_{n}$	0		0	<b>Z</b> <sub>m</sub>	0		0
X <sub>n-I</sub>	x <sub>n</sub>		•••	z <sub>m-1</sub>	<b>z</b> <sub>m</sub>		•••
•	X <sub>n-I</sub>		•••	•••	Z <sub>m-I</sub>		•••
× <sub>0</sub>	:		0	$z_0$	:		0
0	× <sub>0</sub>	••	X <sub>n</sub>	0	$\mathbf{z}_0$	··	<b>Z</b> <sub>m</sub>
:	0		X <sub>n-I</sub>	:	0		<b>Z</b> <sub>m-1</sub>
:	:		:	:	:		:
0	0		X <sub>0</sub>	0	0		$z_0$

 $(m+n) \times (m+n)$ 

m

n

# Sylvester Matrix and the Resultant

- $f = x_n y^n + ... + x_0$ ,  $g = z_m y^m + ... + z_0 \in \mathbb{F}[y]$ ;  $x_n, z_m \neq 0$ .
- Definition. The Sylvester matrix  $S_y(f, g)$  is as follows:

m

$$S_y(f, g) :=$$

Defn. The <u>resultant</u> Res<sub>y</sub>(f, g) :=  $det(S_y(f, g))$  $\in \mathbb{F}[x, z]$ 

 $deg(Res_y(f, g)) \le m+n$ 

<b>x</b> <sub>n</sub>	0		0	<b>z</b> <sub>m</sub>	0		0
X <sub>n-I</sub>	× <sub>n</sub>		:	Z <sub>m-1</sub>	<b>z</b> <sub>m</sub>		:
:	X <sub>n-1</sub>		:	:	Z <sub>m-I</sub>		:
× <sub>0</sub>	:		0	z <sub>0</sub>	:		0
0	x <sub>0</sub>	٠.	X <sub>n</sub>	0	$z_0$	••	<b>z</b> <sub>m</sub>
:	0		X <sub>n-I</sub>	:	0		<b>Z</b> <sub>m-1</sub>
:	:		:	:	:		:
0	0		<b>x</b> <sub>0</sub>	0	0		$z_0$
1				k			

 $(m+n) \times (m+n)$ 

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- Obs. For every Boolean function  $f: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ , there is a unique multilinear polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{F}[x_1,...,x_n]$  s.t. f(a) = f(a) for all  $a \in \{0,1\}^n$ .

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- Proof sketch. Let  $f = T_1 \vee ... \vee T_m$  be a DNF representation of f, where each term  $T_i$  has <u>n literals</u>. With every  $T_i$  associate a multilinear polynomial in a natural way; e.g., if  $T_i = x_1 \wedge \neg x_2 \wedge \neg x_3$ , then  $T_i = x_1 (1 x_2)(1 x_3)$ . Finally,  $f = \sum_i T_i$ .

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- Proof sketch. Uniqueness of f can be shown using induction. It also follows from <u>Combinatorial</u> Nullstellensatz.

#### Combinatorial Nullstellensatz

• Theorem (Alon '99). Let  $f \in \mathbb{F}[x_1, ..., x_n]$  and  $deg(f) = t_1 + ... + t_n$ , where  $t_i \ge 0$ . Suppose the coefficient of the monomial  $x_1^{t_1} \cdot ... \cdot x_n^{t_i}$  in f is nonzero.

Then, if  $S_1, ..., S_n$  are subsets of  $\mathbb{F}$  with  $|S_i| > t_i$ , there is a point  $\mathbf{a} \in S_1 \times ... \times S_n$  s.t.  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}) \neq 0$ .

• That is,  $S_1 \times ... \times S_n$  is a <u>hitting-set</u> for f. More on hitting-sets and Polynomial Identity Testing (PIT) later.

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- Obs. If f is computable by a size-s arithmetic circuit over any fixed finite field, or over  $\mathbb{Z}$  with poly(s) bit integers as edge labels, then f is computable by a Boolean circuit of size poly(s).
- Assume that the arithmetic circuit has no ÷ gates.

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- Proof sketch. Over finite fields, replace every field operation by a constant sized Boolean circuit. Over  $\mathbb{Z}$ , reduce the integers labelling the edges modulo 2, replace a + gate by a  $\oplus$  gate, and a  $\times$  gate by a  $\wedge$  gate.

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- Obs. If f is computable by a size-s arithmetic circuit over any fixed finite field, or over  $\mathbb{Z}$  with poly(s) bit integers as edge labels, then f is computable by a Boolean circuit of size poly(s).
- Corollary. A super-polynomial (i.e.,  $n^{\omega(1)}$ ) lower bound for Boolean circuits computing f implies a super-polynomial lower bound for arithmetic circuits computing f.

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- Obs. If f is computable by a size-s arithmetic circuit over any fixed finite field, or over  $\mathbb{Z}$  with poly(s) bit integers as edge labels, then f is computable by a Boolean circuit of size poly(s).
- In this sense, proving arithmetic circuit lower bound is a stepping-stone to proving Boolean circuit lower bound.

- Reason 2. Boolean circuit lower bounds imply arithmetic circuit lower bounds. So, it is <u>necessary</u> to prove arithmetic circuit lower bounds first!
- Open question. (converse) Does arithmetic circuit lower bound imply Boolean circuit lower bound?
- We don't know!
- Caution. Do not interpret this as "arithmetic circuits cannot simulate Boolean circuits."

- Obs. If  $f: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$  is computable by a Boolean circuit of size s, then there's an arithmetic circuit (over any field) of size O(s) computing a polynomial h s.t. f(a) = h(a) for all  $a \in \{0,1\}^n$ .
- Proof sketch. Replace  $x_1 \wedge x_2$  by  $x_1 x_2$ ,  $x_1 \vee x_2$  by I-(I- $x_1$ )(I- $x_2$ ), and  $x_1$  by I- $x_1$ .

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- Note. Polynomial h needn't be f (the unique multilinear polynomial for f). In particular, deg(h) can be exponential in s, whereas deg(f) is O(n).

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- Note. Polynomial h needn't be f (the unique multilinear polynomial for f). In particular, deg(h) can be exponential in s, whereas deg(f) is O(n).
- The absence of poly-size circuits for f doesn't necessarily rule out poly-size circuits for a polynomial h satisfying f(a) = h(a) = f(a) for all  $a \in \{0,1\}^n$ .

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- Note. Polynomial h needn't be f (the unique multilinear polynomial for f). In particular, deg(h) can be exponential in s, whereas deg(f) is O(n).
- So, we're unable to conclude that a super-poly lower bound for arithmetic circuits computing f implies super-polynomial lower bound for Boolean circuits computing f.

# Why prove arithmetic circuit LB?

 As mentioned before, it is a necessary step for Boolean circuit lower bounds.

 Moreover, proving arithmetic circuit size upper and lower bounds is an important goal in its own right from the viewpoint of understanding the complexity of algebraic problems.

- Matrix multiplication
  - Fast Matrix Multiplication (survey) by Bläser (2013)
- Matrix multiplication & models of computations
  - Algebraic Complexity Theory (book) by Bürgisser, Clausen, and Shokrollahi (1997)
  - Algebraic Complexity Theory (survey) by von zur Gathen (1988)
  - ➤ <u>Algebraic Complexity Theory</u> (survey) by Pippenger (1981)

- Algebraic Complexity Classes
  - Completeness and Reductions in Algebraic Complexity
    Theory (habilitation) by Bürgisser (2000)
  - ➤ Algebraic Complexity Classes by Mahajan (2013)
  - ➤ <u>Completeness Classes in Algebraic Complexity Theory</u> by Bürgisser (2024)

- Lower bounds and algorithms for arithmetic circuits
  - ➤ Partial Derivatives in Arithmetic Complexity and beyond (survey) by Chen, Kayal, and Wigderson (2010)
  - Arithmetic Circuits: A survey of recent results and Open Questions by Shpilka and Yehudayoff (2009)

- Lower bounds for arithmetic circuits
  - A survey of lower bounds in Arithmetic Circuit Complexity by Saptharishi (and other contributors) (2021)
- Polynomial Identity Testing
  - Progress on Polynomial Identity Testing: Part 1 and 2 by Saxena (2009, 2014)
  - Recent advances in Polynomial Identity Testing by Dutta and Ghosh (2024)