Computational Complexity Theory

Lecture 23: Complexity of Counting

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Natural counting problems

- What is the complexity of the following problems?
- #SAT: Count the number of satisfying assignments of a given Boolean circuit/CNF.
- #HAMCYCLE: Count the number of Hamiltonian cycles in an undirected graph.
- Observation. The above problems are NP-hard.

Natural counting problems

- What is the complexity of the following problems?
- **#PerfectMatching:** Count the number of perfect matchings in a bipartite graph.
- **#CYCLE**: Count the number of simple cycles in a directed graph.
- Observation. The corresponding decision problems are in P.

Natural counting problems

- What is the complexity of the following problems?
- **#PATH:** Count the number of simple paths between two vertices in a connected graph.
- **#SPANTREE**: Count the number of spanning trees in a connected graph.
- Observation. The corresponding decision problems are trivial.

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- Proof sketch. Let G be an n-vertex connected graph without self loops. Label the vertices by {1,...,n}.
- Definition. The Laplacian matrix of G is an n x n matrix $L_{\rm G}$ defined as

$$\begin{split} L_G(i,j) &= deg(i) & \text{if } i = j, \\ &= -1 & \text{if there's an edge (i,j) in G,} \\ &= 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{split}$$

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- Proof sketch. Let G be an n-vertex connected graph without self loops. Label the vertices by {1,...,n}.
- Definition. The Laplacian matrix of G is an n x n matrix L_G defined as $L_G = D_G A_G$, where D_G is the degree matrix and A_G the adjacency matrix of G.
- Observation. It is easy to compute L_G from A_G .

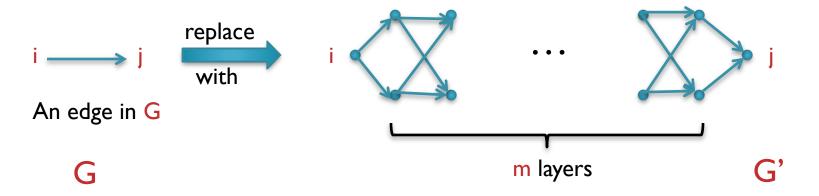
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- Proof sketch. Let G be an n-vertex connected graph without self loops. Label the vertices by {1,...,n}.
- <u>Kirchhoff's matrix-tree theorem</u> states that
 no. of spanning trees of G = any cofactor of L_G.
- (i,j) cofactor of $L = (-1)^{i+j}$. det(submatrix of L obtained by deleting the i-th row and the j-th column from L).

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- Corollary. As determinant computation is in (functional) NC, #SPANTREES is in (functional) NC.

- Theorem. #CYCLE is in NP-hard.
- Lesson. A counting problem can be hard even if the corresponding decision problem is in P.

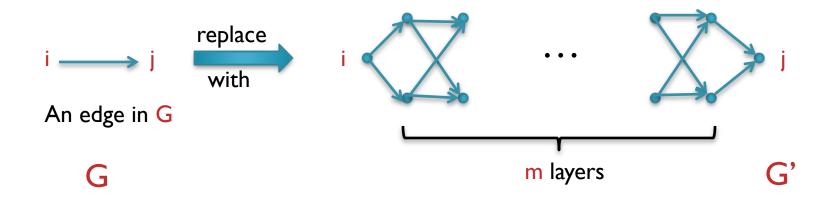
- Theorem. #CYCLE is in NP-hard.
- **Proof**. We will give a poly-time reduction from the Hamiltonian cycle problem to the **#CYCLE** problem.

- Theorem. #CYCLE is in NP-hard.
- Proof. Let G be an n-vertex digraph. We'll efficiently construct a new graph G' from G s.t. the presence of a Hamiltonian cycle in G can be readily derived from the number of cycles in G'. Construction of G' :

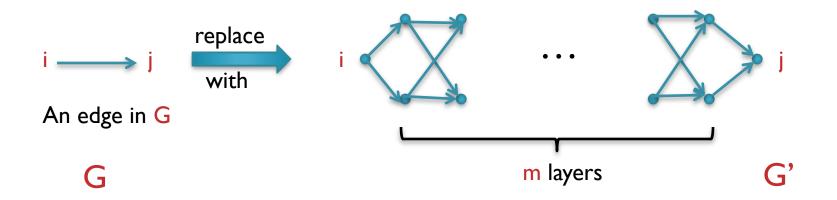


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- Case2: If G has no HC, then $\#cycle(G) \le n^{n-1}$ $\#cycle(G') \le n^{n-1}.2^{m(n-1)}$.
- If we choose m such that nⁿ⁻¹.2^{m(n-1)} < 2^{mn}, then we can find out if G has a HC from #cycle(G').
- Set $m = n^2$.

Class #P

Definition. We say a function f: {0,1}* → N is in #P if there's a poly-time TM M and a polynomial function p:
 N → N such that for every x ∈ {0,1}*,

 $f(x) = \left| \{ u \in \{0, I\}^{p(|x|)} : M(x, u) = I \} \right|.$

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- Observation. Problems #SAT, #HAMCYCLE, #PerfectMatching, #CYCLE, #PATH and #SPANTREE are in #P.
- In fact, with every language in NP we can associate a counting problem that is in #P.

#P-completeness

- Recall, to define completeness of a complexity class, we need an appropriate notion of a <u>reduction</u>.
- What kind of reductions will be suitable is guided by <u>a</u> <u>complexity question</u>, like a comparison between the complexity class under consideration & another class.
 Is #P = FP ?

#P-completeness

- Definition. A function f: {0,1}* → N is in #P-complete if f is in #P and for every g ∈ #P, we have g ∈ FP^f i.e., g is poly-time Cook/Turing reducible to f.
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- In other words, for every x ∈ {0,1}*, we can compute g(x) in polynomial time using oracle access to f.
- Observation. If a #P-complete language is in FP then #P = FP.

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- Algorithm: On input x, convert M(x, ..) to a 3CNF ϕ_x using Cook-Levin theorem. Give ϕ_x as input to the #SAT oracle. Output whatever the oracle outputs.

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Note: Only one query to the oracle. Resembles a poly-time Karp reduction.

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- Correctness: Follows from the fact that the Cook-Levin reduction is <u>parsimonious</u>, i.e., $\{u \in \{0, I\}^{p(|x|)} : M(x, u) = I\} = \#\varphi_x$.

- Theorem. #HAMCYCLE is #P-complete.
- Most (all?) NP-complete problems known till date have defining verifiers such that the corresponding counting problems are #P-complete.
- Open. Does every NP-complete problem have a defining verifier such that the corresponding counting problem is #P-complete ?

Issue: The reduction that shows NP-completeness of a problem needn't have to be <u>parsimonious</u>.

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- Proof. We'll see a proof later.

Relation between #P and other classes

- Observation. $\#P \subseteq PSPACE$.
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- Observation. $\#P \subseteq PSPACE$.
- Also, $PH \subseteq PSPACE$. How does #P relate to PH ?
- Theorem. (Toda 1991) $PH \subseteq P^{\#SAT}$.
- Hence, **#P** is <u>harder</u> than PH.

- Observation. If #P = FP, then P = NP.
- Open. Does P = NP imply #P = FP ?
- But, we do know that P = NP implies every #P problem has a <u>randomized polynomial-time</u> <u>approximation algorithm</u>.

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Can be derandomized!

- Definition. A function f: $\{0,1\}^* \rightarrow N$ has a Fully Polynomial-time Randomized Approximation Scheme (FPRAS) if for every ε , $\delta > 0$, there's a PTM M such that for every $x \in \{0,1\}^*$,
 - > $(I-\epsilon).f(x) \le M(x) \le (I+\epsilon).f(x)$ with prob. $\ge I \delta$,
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- Theorem. If P = NP then every #P function has a FPRAS.
- Remark. In fact the above FPRAS can be replaced by a FPTAS (Fully Poly-Time Approximation Scheme).

- Some #P-complete problems do admit FPRAS <u>unconditionally</u>!
- Theorem. (Jerrum, Sinclair, Vigoda 2001) #PerfectMatching has a FPRAS.
- Remark. No derandomization of this algorithm is known!

- Some #P-complete problems do admit FPRAS <u>unconditionally</u>!
- Theorem. (Jerrum, Sinclair, Vigoda 2001) Permanent of a square matrix with non-negative entries has a FPRAS.
- If X = $(x_{ij})_{i,j\in n}$ then Perm(X) = $\sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \prod_{i \in [n]} x_{i \sigma(i)}$.

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- If X = $(x_{ij})_{i,j\in n}$ then Perm(X) = $\sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \prod_{i \in [n]} x_{i \sigma(i)}$.
- Note. If B_G is the biadjacency matrix of a bipartite graph G, then Perm(B_G) = #PerfectMatchings(G).
 0/1 matrix

0/1-Permanent is #P-complete

- Theorem. (Valiant 1979) 0/1-Perm is #P-complete.
- It implies that **#PerfectMatchings** is **#P-complete**.

0/1-Permanent is #P-complete

- Theorem. (Valiant 1979) 0/1-Perm is #P-complete.
- Proof. 0/I-Perm is in #P. (Why?)

0/1-Permanent is #P-complete

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- Proof. We'll show that $\#3SAT \in FP^{0/1-Perm}$.
- In fact, we'll give a poly-time "Karp-like" reduction from #3SAT to 0/1-Perm, i.e., we'll give a poly-time computable function that maps a 3CNF φ to a 0/1-matrix A_φ s.t. #φ is efficiently computable from Aφ.
- This means only <u>one query</u> to the 0/1-Perm oracle is required.

- Let $A = (a_{ij})_{i,j \in r}$, where $a_{ij} \in R$.
- Then, $Perm(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_r} \prod_{i \in [r]} a_{i \sigma(i)}$.
- Let G be the weighted digraph on r vertices with adjacency matrix A, i.e., the edge (i, j) in G has weight a_{ii}.

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- Then, $\operatorname{Perm}(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_r} \prod_{i \in [r]} a_{i \sigma(i)}$.
- Let G be the weighted digraph on r vertices with adjacency matrix A, i.e., the edge (i, j) in G has weight a_{ii}.
- Every permutation σ: [r] → [r] can be expressed (uniquely) as a product of disjoint cycles.



- Definition. A <u>cycle cover</u> of a digraph G is a subgraph of G having in-degree and out-degree of every vertex exactly I, i.e., the subgraph is a disjoint union of cycles covering all the vertices of G.
- <u>Weight</u> of a cycle cover C, denoted wt(C), is defined as the <u>product</u> of the weights of the edges in C.

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- <u>Weight</u> of a cycle cover C, denoted wt(C), is defined as the <u>product</u> of the weights of the edges in C.
- Observation. $Perm(A) = \sum_{\substack{C: C \text{ is Cycle}\\ cover of G}} wt(C)$.