# Aspects of Descriptive Complexity 

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## Descriptive Complexity

Descriptive Complexity is an attempt to study the complexity of problems and classify them, not on the basis of how difficult it is to compute solutions, but on the basis of how difficult it is to describe the problem.

This gives an alternative way to study complexity, independent of particular machine models.

Based on definability in logic.

## Graph Properties

As an example, consider the following three decision problems on graphs.

1. Given a graph $G=(V, E)$ does it contain a triangle?
2. Given a directed graph $G=(V, E)$ and two of its vertices $a, b \in V$, does $G$ contain a path from $a$ to $b$ ?
3. Given a graph $G=(V, E)$ is it 3-colourable? That is, is there a function $\chi: V \rightarrow\{1,2,3\}$ so that whenever $(u, v) \in E$, $\chi(u) \neq \chi(v)$.

## Graph Properties

1. Checking if $G$ contains a triangle can be solved in polynomial time and logarithmic space.
2. Checking if $G$ contains a path from $a$ to $b$ can be done in polynomial time.
Can it be done in logarithmic space?
Unlikely. It is NL-complete.
3. Checking if $G$ is 3 -colourable can be done in exponential time and polynomial space.
Can it be done in polynomial time?
Unlikely. It is NP-complete.

## Logical Definability

In what kind of formal language can these decision problems be specified or defined?

The graph $G=(V, E)$ contains a triangle.

$$
\exists x, y, z \in V(x \neq y \wedge y \neq z \wedge x \neq z \wedge E(x, y) \wedge E(x, z) \wedge E(y, z))
$$

The other two properties are provably not definable with only first-order quantification over vertices.

## First-Order Logic

Consider first-order predicate logic.
A collection of variables $x, y, \ldots$, and formulas:

$$
x=y|E(x, y)| \varphi \wedge \psi|\varphi \vee \psi| \neg \varphi|\exists x \varphi| \forall x \varphi
$$

Any property of graphs that is expressible in first-order logic is in L.
The problem of deciding whether $G \models \varphi$ for a first-order $\varphi$ is in time $O\left(l n^{m}\right)$ and $O(m \log n)$ space.
where, $l$ is the length of $\varphi$ and $n$ the order of $G$ and $m$ is the nesting depth of quantifiers in $\varphi$.

## Second-Order Quantifiers

3-Colourability and Reachability can be defined with quantification over sets of vertices.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \exists R \subseteq V \exists B \subseteq V \exists G \subseteq V \\
& \forall x(R x \vee B x \vee G x) \wedge \\
& \forall x(\neg(R x \wedge B x) \wedge \neg(B x \wedge G x) \wedge \neg(R x \wedge G x)) \wedge \\
& \forall x \forall y(E x y \rightarrow(\neg(R x \wedge R y) \wedge \\
& \neg(B x \wedge B y) \wedge \\
&\neg(G x \wedge G y))) \\
& \forall S \subseteq V(a \in S \wedge \forall x \forall y((x \in S \wedge E(x, y)) \rightarrow y \in S) \rightarrow b \in S)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Existential Second-Order Logic

Second-order logic is obtained by adding to the defining rules of first-order logic two further clauses:
atomic formulae $-X\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{a}\right)$, where $X$ is a second-order variable

$$
\text { second-order quantifiers }-\exists X \varphi, \forall X \varphi
$$

Existential Second-Order Logic (ESO) consists of formulas of the form

$$
\exists X_{1} \cdots \exists X_{k} \varphi
$$

where $\varphi$ is first-order

## Fagin's Theorem

## Theorem (Fagin 1974)

A class of graphs is definable by a formula of existential second-order logic if, and only if, it is decidable by a nondeterminisitic machine running in polynomial time.

$$
E S O=N P
$$

One direction is easy: Given $G$ and $\exists X_{1} \ldots \exists X_{k} \varphi$.
a nondeterministic machine can guess an interpretation for $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{k}$ and then verify $\varphi$.

The other direction translates a non-deterministic Turing machine $M$ into a sentence $\varphi_{M}$ which asserts, in a structure $\mathbb{A}$ the existence of relations coding an acccepting run of $M$ on an input coding $\mathbb{A}$.

## A Logic for P?

Is there a logic, intermediate between first and second-order logic that expresses exactly graph properties in P?

This is an open question, first posed by (Chandra and Harel, 1982) and has been the motor of significant research in descriptive complexity.

Does P admit a syntactic characterisation?
Can the class P be "built up from below" by finitely many operations?

## Zoo of Complexity Classes



Scott Aaronson and others have compiled an online zoo of complexity classes, which has 535 entries and counting.
P -languages decidable by a deterministic Turing machine running in polynomial time.
NP—languages decidable by a nondeterministic Turing machine running in polynomial time.
coNP—languages whose complements are in NP.
BQP—quantum polynomial time.
$\mathrm{AC}^{0}$ —languages decided by a uniform family of constant-depth, polynomial-size Boolean circuits.

## Some Inclusions among Classes



Note: P/poly and All are uncountable classes that necessarily contain undecidable languages.
$\mathrm{AC}^{0}$ is properly included in L .
$L$ is known to be properly included in PSpace but none of the individual inclusions in between is known to be proper.

## Enumerating Complexity Classes

Given a complexity class $\mathcal{C}$, can we enumerate its members?
Fix an enumeration of Turing machines and write $L_{i}$ for the language accepted by machine $M_{i}$.
Can we decide the set $\left\{i \mid L_{i} \in \mathcal{C}\right\}$ ?
No-Rice's theorem.
Say that $\mathcal{C}$ is weakly indexed by a set $I \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ if:

- $i \in I \quad \Rightarrow \quad L_{i} \in \mathcal{C}$
- $L \in \mathcal{C} \Rightarrow \exists i \in I L=L_{i}$

Can we computably enumerate a weak index set for $\mathcal{C}$ ?

## Syntactic Classes

Usually we want something more of a syntactic characterisation of $\mathcal{C}$ then just a computably enumerable weak index set. We want the machines $M_{i}$ to "witness" that $L_{i}$ is in $\mathcal{C}$.

For instance, fix an enumeration of pairs $(M, p)$ where $M$ is a deterministic Turing machine and $p$ is a polynomial.
Let $I$ be the range of the function that takes $(M, p)$ to the code of the Turing machine that simulates $M$ for $p(n)$ steps on inputs of length $n$. $I$ is an effective syntax for $P$.

## Syntactic Classes

NP can similarly be indexed by pairs $(M, p)$ where $M$ is a nondeterministic Turing machine and $p$ is a polynomial.

What about NP $\cap$ coNP?
An index set is obtained by taking

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left(M, M^{\prime}, p\right) \quad \text { such that } \quad L(M)=L\left(M^{\prime}\right) \\
& \uparrow \\
& \text { undecidable condition }
\end{aligned}
$$

So we say P and NP are syntactic classes, while NP $\cap$ coNP is a semantic class.

## Graph Problems

Consider decision problems where the input is a graph: Connectedness, 3-Colouring, Hamiltonicity.

We can encode graphs as strings over $\{0,1\}$ by, for instance, enumerating the adjacency matrix.
There are up to $n$ ! distinct encodings of a given $n$ vertex graph $G$.
For $x, y \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ write $x \sim y$ to indicate that they are encodings of the same graph.
And, for a language $L$, we say it is $\sim$-invariant if

$$
x \in L \text { and } x \sim y \quad \Rightarrow \quad y \in L
$$

## Invariant Complexity Classes

Let inv-NP and inv-P be the classes of all languages that are in NP and $P$ respectively and are $\sim$-invariant.
inv-NP is indexed by the set of pairs $(M, p)$ where $M$ is a nondeterminsitic Turing machine, $p$ is a polynomial and the language accepted by $M$ when clocked by $p$ is $\sim$-invariant.
The invariance condition is undecidable.
Fagin's theorem tells us that, nonetheless, inv-NP has an effective syntax.
It is indexed by machines obtained from existential second-order sentences.
Whether inv-P has an effective syntax is the open question.

## BQP

BQP is the complexity class of problems solvable by quantum polynomial time algorithms.
Formally, a language $L$ is in BQP if there is a quantum Turing machine $M$, running in polynomial time such that

- if $x \in L$ then $M$ accepts $x$ with probability $>\frac{2}{3}$; and
- if $x \notin L$ then $M$ accepts $x$ with probability $<\frac{1}{3}$.

Say that a machine $M$ is well-formed for BQP if, for every string $x$, it is the case that the probability of $M$ accepting is either $<\frac{1}{3}$ or $>\frac{2}{3}$.

## Index set for BQP

We can obtain an index set for BQP by enumerating all pairs

$$
(M, p)
$$

where $M$ is a quantum Turing machine and $p$ is a polynomial such that, $M$ clocked by $p$ is well-formed for BQP.

The well-formedness condition is undecidable.
BQP is a semantic class, at least by definition.

## inv-BQP

Is there an effective syntax for inv-BQP?
There are two undecidable conditions in the definition of the class: well-formedness and $\sim$-invariance.

The second condition might not be an obstacle if there is a polynomial-time quantum algorithm that can produce a $\sim$-canonical representation of a graph with high probability.

The first is a serious obstacle, and getting a logic for BQP would require a radically different characterization that was extensionally the same as BQP.

## Fixed-Point Logic with Counting

FPC—Fixed-Point with Counting is an extension of first-order logic with a recursion operator and a mechanism for counting.

FPC was first proposed by Immerman as a possible logic for P .
It was shown by (Cai, Fürer, Immerman 1992) that there are graph properties in P not in FPC.

FPC captures a large and natural fragment of P and is worthy of study in its own right.

Many powerful polynomial-time algorithms can be expressed in FPC and at the same time, we can prove unconditional lower bounds on it.

## Counting Quantifiers

$C^{k}$ is the logic obtained from first-order logic by allowing:

- counting quantifiers: $\exists^{i} x \varphi$; and
- only the variables $x_{1}, \ldots x_{k}$.

Every formula of $C^{k}$ is equivalent to a formula of first-order logic, albeit one with more variables.

We write $\mathbb{A} \equiv^{k} \mathbb{B}$ to denote that no sentence of $C^{k}$ distinguishes $\mathbb{A}$ from $\mathbb{B}$.

This family of equivalence relations (also known as $k$-dimensional Weisfeiler-Leman equivalences) has many different natural formulations in combinatorics, algebra, logic and linear optimization among others.

## FPC and $C^{k}$

For every sentence $\varphi$ of FPC, there is a $k$ such that if $\mathbb{A} \equiv^{k} \mathbb{B}$, then

$$
\mathbb{A} \models \varphi \quad \text { if, and only if, } \quad \mathbb{B} \neq \varphi .
$$

Essentially, FPC can be understood as those problems decided by polynomial-time algorithms that are inviariant under $\equiv^{k}$ for some $k$.

3SAT, XOR-Sat, Hamiltonicity, 3-Colourability are not $\equiv^{k}$-invariant for any constant $k$.
The same is true of solving systems of equations over any finite field.

## Counting Width

For any class of structures $\mathcal{C}$, we define its counting width $\nu_{\mathcal{C}}: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ so that
$\nu_{\mathcal{C}}(n)$ is the least $k$ such that $\mathcal{C}$ restricted to structures with at most $n$ elements is closed under $\equiv^{k}$.

Every class in FPC has counting width bounded by a constant.
3SAT, XOR-Sat, Hamiltonicity, 3-Colourability all have counting width $\Omega(n)$.

## Constraint Satisfaction Problems

Fix $\mathbb{A}$ and $\mathbb{B}$, two relational structures in the same relational vocabulary $\tau$. A homomorphism from $\mathbb{A}$ to $\mathbb{B}$ is a map $h: \mathbb{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$ so that for any tuple a and any relation $R$,

$$
R^{\mathbb{A}}(\mathbf{a}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad R^{\mathbb{B}}(h(\mathbf{a})) .
$$

For a structure $\mathbb{B}: \operatorname{CSP}(\mathbb{B})=\{\mathbb{A} \mid \mathbb{A} \longrightarrow \mathbb{B}\}$
3SAT, XOR-Sat, 3-Colourability all can be naturally formulated as CSP.

## Local Consistency Methods

Deciding, given $\mathbb{A}$ and $\mathbb{B}$, whether $\mathbb{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$ is NP-complete. In some cases, we can test instead for local consistency.


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For a $k$-element subset.

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## The Pebbling Co-Monad

In (Abramsky, D., Wang, 17) we give a construction of a graded co-monad $\mathbb{T}_{k}$.

This gives rise to a co-Kleisli category in which the morphisms are exactly the $k$-local consistency tests.

$$
\mathbb{T}_{k} \mathbb{A} \longrightarrow \mathbb{B} \quad \text { if, and only if, } \quad \mathbb{A} \xrightarrow{k} \mathbb{B} .
$$

Isomorphism in this category is exactly $\equiv^{k}$.
That is, $\mathbb{A} \equiv^{k} \mathbb{B}$ if, and only if, $\mathbb{T}_{k} \mathbb{A} \cong \mathbb{T}_{k} \mathbb{B}$.

## Lower Bounds from Counting Width

A CSP has counting width either $O(1)$ or $\Omega(n)$.
The former if, and only if, it is definable in Datalog.
(Atserias, Bulatov, D. '09); (Barto-Kozik '14)
For a CSP of unbounded counting width, the corresponding maximization problem is intractable. (Thapper, Živný '16); (D.,Wang '15)

3SAT, XOR-Sat, Vertex Cover cannot be approximated by any class of bounded counting width.
(Atserias, D. '18)
An $\Omega(n)$ lower bound on the counting width of a class implies exponential lower bounds on the size of symmetric circuits and symmetric linear programs deciding it.
(Anderson, D. 2017)
(Atserias, D., Ochremiak '19)

## Symmetric Linear Programs

Fix $X=\left\{x_{i j} \mid i, j \in[n]\right\}$ for a fixed $n$.
Consider a class $\mathcal{C}$ of graphs.
We identify a graph on $n$ vertices with a function $G: X \rightarrow\{0,1\}$.
We say that a polytope $Q \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{X} \times \mathbb{R}^{Y}$ recognizes $\mathcal{C}$ if its projection on $\mathbb{R}^{X}$ includes $\left.\mathcal{C}\right|_{n}$ and excludes its complement.

Say $Q \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{X} \times \mathbb{R}^{Y}$ is symmetric if for every $\pi \in S_{V}$, there is a $\sigma \in S_{Y}$ such that

$$
Q^{(\pi, \sigma)}=Q
$$

Here, we extend the action of $\pi$ to $V \times V$, and hence to $\mathbb{R}^{X}$.

## Symmetric Linear Programs

## Theorem (Atserias, D., Ochremiak '19)

If a family of symmetric polytopes of size $s=O\left(2^{n^{1-\epsilon}}\right), \epsilon>0$ recognizes $\mathcal{C}$, then $\mathcal{C}$ has counting width at most $\frac{\log s}{\log n}$.

In particular, classes of counting width $\Omega(n)$ are not recognized by any subexponential size symmetric linear programs.

