

# A tree-decomposed transfer matrix for computing exact partition functions for arbitrary graphs

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# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Potts model and vertex colourings
- 3 The transfer matrix
- 4 Example
- 5 Tree-decomposition
- 6 Application to the distribution of chromatic roots



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# Counting problems and Statistical Mechanics

- SM studies the properties emerging in very large systems
- The possible emerging behaviour are often due to the competing effects of **energy** and **entropy**
- energy is a physical problem  
*(what interaction is this energy due to?)*
- entropy is a combinatorial problem  
*(how many possible configurations are there?)*



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*(how many possible configurations are there?)*



# Fundamental concepts

- In SM one has a “model” defined on some graph (regular or not).
- A model is made out of two elements:
  - A configuration space  $\mathcal{C}$
  - A function associating to each configuration a discrete energy  $E$ .
- The statistical weight of a configuration is  $e^{-E}$  (Gibbs weight)
- Some configurations can be very rare but still dominant if their energy is small



All the properties of a system are deduced from the *partition function*:

$$Z = \sum_{\mathcal{C}} e^{-E}$$

which can be thought as an energy generating function

- Computing the partition function is usually out of reach both analytically and numerically (only small systems are tractable)
- A better algorithm can reach larger sizes and consequently shed more light on the phenomena relevant at infinite size
- The transfer-matrix is a simple but efficient method to compute exactly partition functions for finite systems



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## The Potts model as a *spin* model

Given a graph  $G = (V, E)$ , we consider the set of colorings:

$$\sigma : V \longrightarrow [1, Q] \quad Q \in \mathbb{N} \text{ (colors)}$$

each of them are assigned an *energy*

$$\mathcal{H}(\sigma) = -K \sum_{(ij) \in E} \delta(\sigma_i, \sigma_j) \quad K \in \mathbb{R} \text{ (coupling)}$$

so the partition function is given by

$$Z_G(Q, K) = \sum_{\sigma} e^{-\mathcal{H}(\sigma)} = \sum_{\sigma} \prod_{(ij) \in E} e^{K \delta(\sigma_i, \sigma_j)}$$



## The Potts model as a *cluster* model

We defined the model in terms of *spins*, but the same model can be viewed as a geometrical model

### Fortuin-Kasteleyn representation

Rewriting  $e^{K \delta(\sigma_i, \sigma_j)} = 1 + v \delta(\sigma_i, \sigma_j)$ , we have

$$Z_G(Q, v) = \sum_{A \subseteq E} v^{|A|} Q^{k(A)}$$

“Objects” carrying energy are no longer localised but extended



# Tutte polynomial

$Z_G(Q, v)$  is equivalent to the Tutte polynomial

$$\begin{aligned} T_G(x, y) &= \sum_{A \subseteq E} (x-1)^{r(E)-r(A)} (y-1)^{|A|-r(A)} \\ &\propto Z_G((x-1)(y-1), y-1) \end{aligned}$$

where  $r(A) = |V| - k(A)$  is the rank of subgraph  $A$ .



# Counting proper colorings

In the limit  $K \rightarrow \infty$  (or  $v = -1$ ) non proper colorings get weight zero and proper  $Q$ -colourings contribute with weight one.

## Chromatic polynomial

$$\chi_G(Q) = Z_G(Q, v = -1) = \sum_{A \subseteq E} (-1)^{|A|} Q^{k(A)}$$



## Complexity classes for counting problems

$\#P$  is the class of enumeration problems in which structures being counted are recognisable in polynomial time.

$A \in \#P$ -complete if  $\forall B \in \#P$  then  $B \leq_P A$

$A \in \#P$ -hard if  $\exists B \in \#P$ -complete s.t.  $B \leq_P A$

Jaeger et al, 1990

Computing  $Z_G(Q, v)$  is  $\#P$ -hard except few exceptional points in the  $(Q, v)$  plane.



## In practice ...

- The previously best known algorithm is due to Haggard, Pearce and Royle (2008)
- It uses an optimized deletion/contraction recursion

$$Z_G(Q, v) = Z_{G \setminus e}(Q, v) + v Z_{G/e}(Q, v)$$

where  $G \setminus e$  is the graph obtained by *deleting* the edge  $e$   
and  $G/e$  is the graph obtained by *contracting*  $e$ .

- It runs in exponential time and takes  $\sim 10$ s to deal with a planar graph of 40 vertices



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# Basic ideas

$$Z_G(Q, v) = \sum_{A \subseteq E} v^{|A|} Q^{k(A)}$$

- The sum is constructed iteratively by the action of linear operators.
- These operators act on “states”, properly weighted super-imposition of partially built configurations.
- When all possible configurations of a part of  $G$  have been elaborated, we forget their state and re-sum all the information into the weights.





## Definitions for the Potts model

$$Z_G(Q, \nu) = \sum_{A \subseteq E} \nu^{|A|} Q^{k(A)}$$

To keep track of  $k$  the state will be linear combinations of vertex partitions (non-crossing if  $G$  is planar)

$$\alpha \left| \begin{array}{c} \circ \quad \circ \quad \circ \quad \circ \\ \overbrace{1 \quad 2} \quad \overbrace{3 \quad 4} \end{array} \right\rangle + \beta \left| \begin{array}{c} \circ \quad \circ \quad \circ \quad \circ \\ \overbrace{1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4} \end{array} \right\rangle + \gamma \left| \begin{array}{c} \circ \quad \circ \quad \circ \quad \circ \\ \overbrace{1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4} \end{array} \right\rangle$$

The number of partitions is the Catalan number  $C_N = \frac{1}{N+1} \binom{2N}{N}$

$\sim \frac{4^N}{N^{3/2}\pi}$  if planar and the Bell number  $B_N$  otherwise.



We will act on these states with the operators:

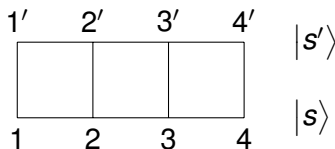
$$J_{ij} | \overset{\circ}{i} \overset{\circ}{j} \rangle = | \overset{\circ}{i} \overset{\circ}{j} \rangle$$

$$D_i | \overset{\circ}{i} \cdots \rangle = Q | \cdots \rangle$$

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If  $G$  has a layer structure then  
 $|s'\rangle = T|s\rangle$  where



$$T = \prod_i D_i (1 + v J_{i,i'}) (1 + v J_{i,i+1})$$



The same procedure can be implemented for general graphs.

- We fix the order in which *process* vertices
- To *process a vertex*  $i$  we first process all its incident edges and then we delete it with  $D_i$ .
- To *process an edge*  $(ij)$  we act with  $(1 + v J_{ij})$
- New vertices are inserted into partitions as needed

$$D_i \prod_{j \sim i} (1 + v J_{ij})$$

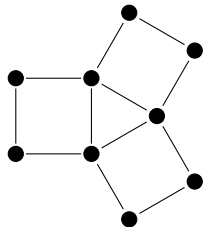


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# Example



$$|s'\rangle = D_1 (1 + vJ_{12})(1 + vJ_{13}) \left| \begin{smallmatrix} \circ & \circ & \circ \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{smallmatrix} \right\rangle$$

$$= (Q + 2v) \left| \begin{smallmatrix} \circ & \circ \\ 2 & 3 \end{smallmatrix} \right\rangle + v^2 \left| \begin{smallmatrix} \circ & \circ \\ 2 & 3 \end{smallmatrix} \right\rangle$$

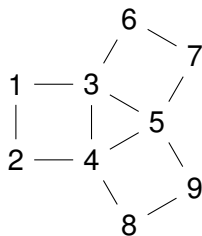
$$|s''\rangle = D_2 (1 + vJ_{24}) |s' \begin{smallmatrix} \circ \\ 4 \end{smallmatrix} \rangle$$

$$= (\dots) \left| \begin{smallmatrix} \circ & \circ \\ 3 & 4 \end{smallmatrix} \right\rangle + (\dots) \left| \begin{smallmatrix} \circ & \circ \\ 3 & 4 \end{smallmatrix} \right\rangle$$

$$|s'''\rangle = \dots$$



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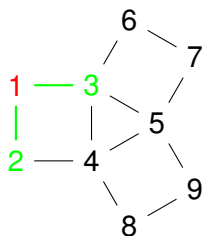
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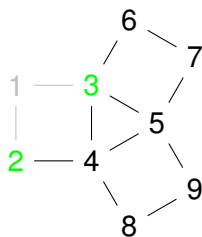
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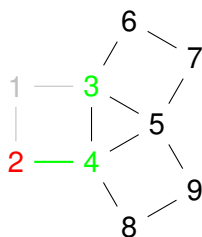
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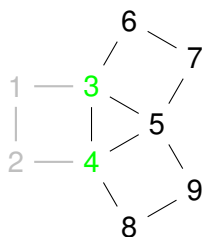
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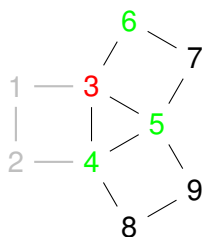
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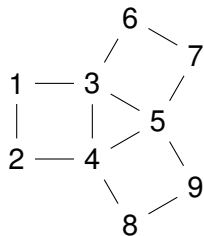


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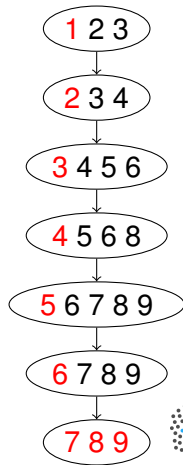
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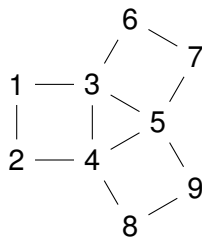
# Time decomposition



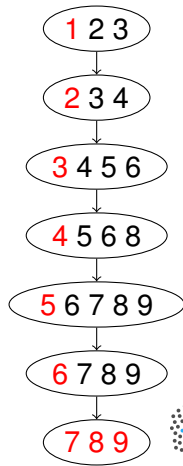
- The ordering defines a “time decomposition” in slices we call *bags*
- Time and memory requirements scale exponentially with the maximum bag size  $k$ .
- It happens to be a particular case of a more general construction



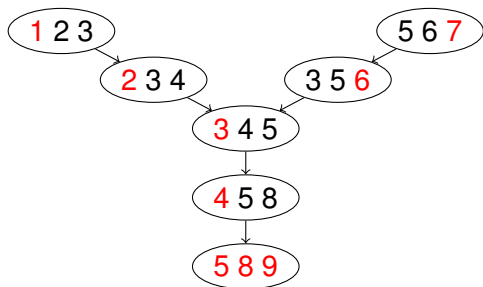
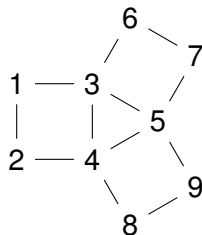
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# Tree decomposition

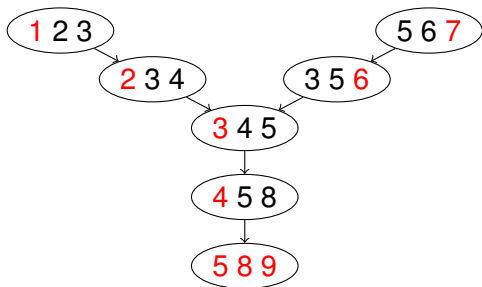
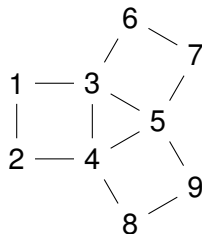


It is a collection of *bags* organised in a tree.

- $\forall i \in V$ , there exists a bag containing  $i$
- $\forall (ij) \in E$ , there exists a bag containing both  $i$  and  $j$
- $\forall i \in V$ , the set of bags containing  $i$  is connected in the tree
- The *treewidth*  $k$  is the maximum bag size.



# Tree decomposition



- Tree decomposition can have smaller bags therefore an *exponentially* smaller state space ( $C_k$ )
- Finding an optimal tree decompositions is NP-hard
- Heuristic algorithms give reasonably good decompositions in linear time



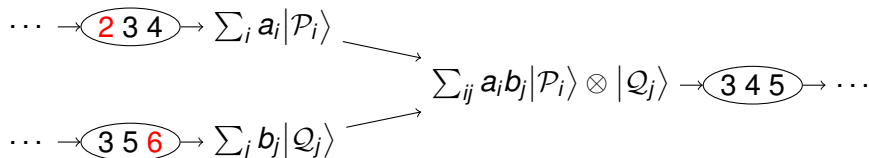


## The fusion procedure

When a bag has several children, we need to “fuse” different timelines.  
Given two partitions  $|\mathcal{P}_1\rangle$  and  $|\mathcal{P}_2\rangle$ , we define

$$|\mathcal{P}_1\rangle \otimes |\mathcal{P}_2\rangle = |\mathcal{P}_1 \vee \mathcal{P}_2\rangle$$

Exemple: 
$$\left| \overbrace{\begin{matrix} \circ & \circ & \circ & \circ \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{matrix}} \right\rangle \otimes \left| \overbrace{\begin{matrix} \circ & \circ & \circ & \circ \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{matrix}} \right\rangle = \left| \overbrace{\begin{matrix} \circ & \circ & \circ & \circ \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{matrix}} \right\rangle$$



This is a quadratic operation requiring time  $\sim O(C_k^2)$



# Complexity

- The planar separator theorem gives an upper bound on treewidth  $k$  of a planar graph:

$$k < \alpha\sqrt{N} \quad (\alpha < 3.182)$$

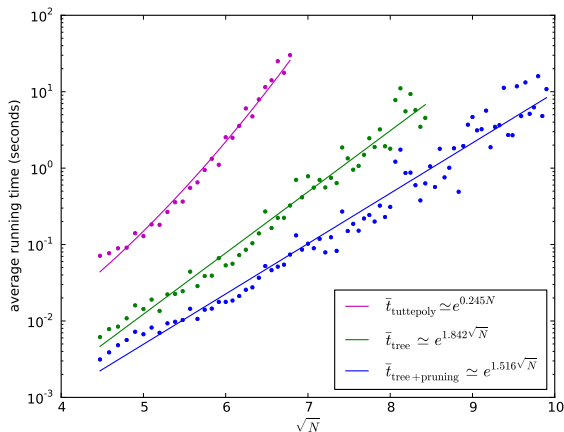
- The algorithm requires time  $O(C_k^2) \simeq 16^k$
- This implies a sub-exponential upper bound for the running time

$$t < 16^{3.182\sqrt{N}} = e^{8.222\sqrt{N}}$$

- It's the natural generalization of the traditional TM whose requirements scale as  $C_L$ , where the side  $L \simeq \sqrt{N}$



# Performances



on an uniform sample of planar graphs



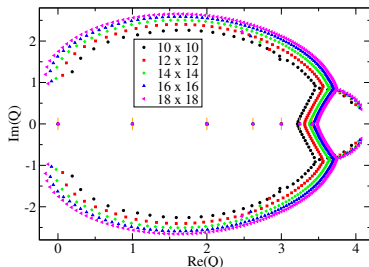
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## Chromatic roots – regular lattice

- Regular lattices have chromatic roots close to the Beraha numbers  $B_k = 4 \cos^2(\pi/k)$  up to a lattice specific limit

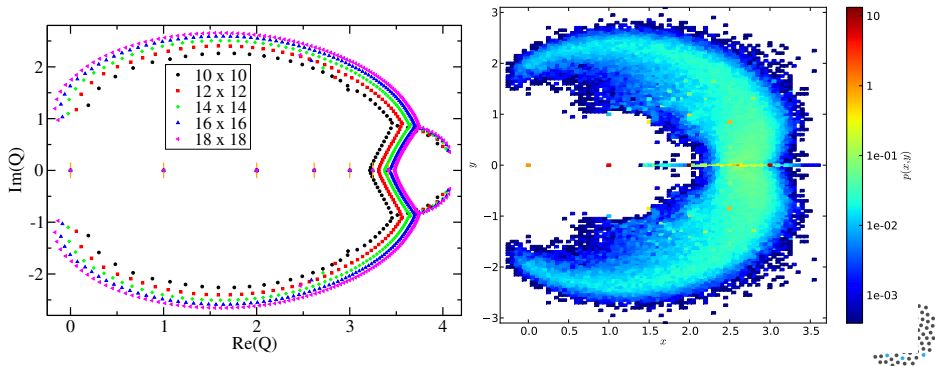


- We also know that chromatic roots are dense in  $\mathbb{C}$
- Little is known about the roots of the *typical* planar graph



# Chromatic roots – random planar

- We sampled 2500 planar graphs with  $N = 100$  and for each of them we computed the chromatic polynomial and its roots



# Outlook

In progress:

- Adapt the same algorithm to different graph models (hamiltonian walks, longest-path, vertex covering, maximum-biconnected subgraph, etc)
- Better understanding of the scaling of the treewidth and its heuristic approximations (hint:  $\langle k \rangle$  scales as  $N^{0.3} < N^{1/2}$ )
- Look at other families of planar graphs (2-, 3-connected)

Further reading:

AB, J.L. Jacobsen, *J. Phys. A: Math. Theor.* **43**, 385001, 2010

