

Holographic Algorithms: From Art to Science

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Abstract

We develop the theory of holographic algorithms. We give characterizations of algebraic varieties of realizable symmetric generators and recognizers on the basis manifold, and a polynomial time decision algorithm for the simultaneous realizability problem. Using the general machinery we are able to give unexpected holographic algorithms for some counting problems, modulo certain Mersenne type integers. These counting problems are #P-complete without the moduli. Going beyond symmetric signatures, we define *d*-admissibility and *d*-realizability for general signatures, and give a characterization of 2-admissibility and some general constructions of admissible and realizable families.

1 Introduction

It has become more or less an article of faith among Theoretical Computer Scientists that the *conjecture* $P \neq NP$ holds. Certainly there are good reasons to believe this assertion, not the least of which is the fact that the usual algorithmic paradigms seem unable to handle any of the NP-hard problems. Such statements are made credible by decades of in-depth study of these methodologies.

To be sure, there are some "surprising" polynomial time algorithms for problems which, on appearance, would seem to require exponential time. One such example is to count the number of perfect matchings in a planar graph (the FKT method) [13, 14, 21]. In [23, 25] L. Valiant has introduced an algorithmic design technique of breathtaking originality, called *holographic algorithms*. Computation in these algorithms is expressed and interpreted through a choice of linear basis vectors in an exponential "holographic" mix, and then it is carried out by the FKT method via the Holant Theorem. This methodology has produced polynomial time algorithms for a variety of problems ranging from restrictive versions of Satisfiability, Vertex Cover, to other graph problems such as edge orientation and node/edge deletion. No polynomial time algorithms were known for any of these problems, and some minor variations are known to be NP-hard.

These holographic algorithms are quite unusual compared to other kinds of algorithms (except perhaps quantum algorithms). At the heart of the computation is a process of introducing and then canceling exponentially many computational fragments. Invariably the success of this methodology on a particular problem boils down to finding a certain "exotic" object represented by a *signature*.

For example, Valiant showed [28] that the restrictive SAT problem $\#_7$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-3CNF (counting the number of satisfying assignments of a planar read-twice monotone 3CNF formula, modulo 7) is solvable in P. The same problem #Pl-Rtw-Mon-3CNF without mod 7 is known to be #P-complete; the problem mod 2, $\#_2$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-3CNF, is known to be \oplus P-complete (thus NP-hard). The surprising tractability mod 7 is due to the existence of an unexpected signature over \mathbb{Z}_7 .

These signatures are specified by families of algebraic equations. These families of equations are typically exponential in size. Searching for their solutions is what Valiant called the enumerative form in his "Accidental Algorithm" paper [28]. ¹ Dealing with such algebraic equations can be difficult due to the exponential size. So far the successes have been an expression of *artistic* inspirations.

To sustain our belief in $P \neq NP$, we must start to develop a systematic understanding of the capabilities of holographic algorithms. Some have argued that the problems such as $\#_7Pl$ -Rtw-Mon-3CNF that have been solved in this framework are a little contrived. But the point is that when we surveyed potential algorithmic approaches with P vs. NP in mind, these algorithms were not part of the repertoire. Presumably the same "intuition" for $P \neq NP$ would have applied equally to $\#_7Pl$ -Rtw-Mon-3CNF and to $\#_2Pl$ -Rtw-Mon-3CNF. Thus, Valiant suggested in [25], "any proof of $P \neq NP$ may need to explain, and not only to imply, the unsolvability" of NP-hard problems using this approach.

While finding "exotic" solutions such as the signature for $\#_7$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-3CNF is inspired artistry, the situation with ever more complicated algebraic constraints on such signatures (for other problems) can quickly overwhelm such an artistic approach (as well as a computer search). At any rate, failure to find such solutions to a particular algebraic system yields no proof that such solutions do not exist, and it generally does not give us any insight as to why. We need a more *scientific* understanding. The aim of this paper is to build toward such an understanding.

We have achieved a complete account of the realizable symmetric signatures. Using this we can show why the modulus 7 happens to be *the* modulus that works for $\#_7$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-3CNF. Underlying

¹From [28]: "The objects enumerated are sets of polynomial systems such that the solvability of any one member would give a polynomial time algorithm for a specific problem. ... the situation with the P = NP question is not dissimilar to that of other unresolved enumerative conjectures in mathematics. The possibility that accidental or freak objects in the enumeration exist cannot be discounted, if the objects in the enumeration have not been systematically studied previously."

this is the fact that 7 is $2^3 - 1$, and for any odd prime p, any prime factor q of the Mersenne number $2^p - 1$ has $q \equiv \pm 1 \mod 8$, and therefore 2 is a quadratic residue in \mathbb{Z}_q . Generalizing this, we show that $\#_{2^k-1}$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-kCNF is in P for all $k \geq 3$ (the problem is trivial for $k \leq 2$). Furthermore, no suitable signatures exist for any modulus other than factors of $2^k - 1$ for this problem.

When designing a holographic algorithm for any particular problem, the essential step is to decide whether there is a basis for which certain signatures of both generators and recognizers can be simultaneously realized (we give a quick review of terminologies in the Appendix. See [25, 23, 2, 3] for more details.) Frequently these signatures are symmetric signatures. Our understanding of symmetric signatures has advanced to the point where it is possible to give a polynomial time algorithm to decide the simultaneous realizability problem. If a matchgate has arity n, the signature has size 2^n . However for symmetric signatures we have a compact form, and the running time of the decision algorithm is measured in n. With this structural understanding we can give (i) a complete account of all the previous successes of holographic algorithms using symmetric signatures [25, 3, 28]; (ii) generalizations such as $\#_{2^k-1}$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-kCNF and a similar problem for Vertex Cover, when this is possible; and (iii) a proof when this is not possible. This should be considered an important step in our understanding of holographic algorithms, from *art* to *science*.

In order to investigate realizability of signatures, we found it useful to introduce a basis manifold \mathcal{M} , which is defined to be the set of all possible bases modulo an equivalence relation. This is a useful language for the discussion of symmetric signatures; it becomes essential for the general signatures. We define the notions of d-admissibility and d-realizability. To be d-admissible is to have a d-dimensional solution subvariety in \mathcal{M} , satisfying all the parity requirements. These are part of the requirements for the bases to satisfy in order to be realizable. To be d-realizable is to have a d-dimensional solution subvariety in \mathcal{M} for all realizability requirements, which include the parity requirements as well as the useful Grassmann-Plücker identities [3, 24], called the matchgate identities. To have 0-realizability is a necessary condition. But to get holographic algorithms one needs simultaneous realizability of both generators and recognizers. This is accomplished by having a non-empty intersection of the respective subvarieties for the realizability of generators and recognizers. And this tends to be accomplished by having d-realizability (which implies d-admissibility), for $d \geq 1$, on at least one side. Therefore it is important to investigate d-realizability and d-admissibility for $d \geq 1$. We give a complete characterization of 2-admissibility. We also give some non-trivial 1-admissible families, and 1- or 2-realizable families.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we define the basis manifold \mathcal{M} which will be used to express our results throughout. In Section 3 we describe our results on simultaneous realizability of recognizers and generators, culminating in the polynomial time decision procedure. In Section 4 we describe our results on $\#_{2^k-1}$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-*k*CNF and on Vertex Cover. Further illustrations of the power of the general machinery are given in Section 5. In Section 6 we go beyond symmetric signatures, and give some general results regarding *d*-admissibility and *d*-realizability.

2 The Basis Manifold \mathcal{M}

In holographic algorithms, computations are expressed in terms of a set of linear basis vectors of dimension 2^k , where k is called the size of the basis. In almost all cases [25, 1], the successful design of a holographic algorithm was accomplished by a basis of size 1. In [28], initially Valiant used a basis of size 2 to show $\#_7$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-3CNF \in P. Then it was pointed out in [4] that even in that case the same can be done with a basis of size 1. In a forthcoming paper [5] we will show that this is generally true, i.e., higher dimensional bases *do not* extend the reach of holographic algorithms. Therefore, in this paper we will develop our theory exclusively with bases of size 1; but our results are universally applicable. We will identify the set of 2-dimensional bases $\begin{bmatrix} n_0 \\ n_1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \end{bmatrix}$ with $\operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbf{F})$. Over the complex field $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{C}$, it has dimension 4. However, the following simple Proposition 4.3 of [25] shows that the essential underlying structure has only dimension 2.

Proposition 2.1 (Valiant). [25] If there is a generator (recognizer) with certain signature for size one basis $\{(n_0, n_1), (p_0, p_1)\}$ then there is a generator (recognizer) with the same signature for size one basis $\{(xn_0, yn_1), (xp_0, yp_1)\}$ or $\{(xn_1, yn_0), (xp_1, yp_0)\}$ for any $x, y \in \mathbf{F}$ and $xy \neq 0$.

This leads to the following definition of an equivalence relation:

Definition 2.1. Two bases $\boldsymbol{\beta} = [n, p] = \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n_0 \\ n_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$ and $\boldsymbol{\beta'} = [n', p'] = \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n'_0 \\ n'_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} p'_0 \\ p'_1 \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$ are equivalent, denoted by $\boldsymbol{\beta} \sim \boldsymbol{\beta'}$, iff there exist $x, y \in \mathbf{F}^*$ such that $n'_0 = xn_0, p'_0 = xp_0, n'_1 = yn_1, p'_1 = yp_1$ or $n'_0 = xn_1, p'_0 = xp_1, n'_1 = yn_0, p'_1 = yp_0.$

Theorem 2.1. $\operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbf{F})/\sim$ is a two dimensional manifold (for $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{C}$ or \mathbf{R}).

We call this the *basis manifold* \mathcal{M} . For $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}$, it can be shown that topologically \mathcal{M} is a Möbius strip. From now on we identify a basis $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ with its equivalence class containing it. When it is permissible, we use the dehomogenized coordinates $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 1 & y \end{pmatrix}$ to represent a point (i.e., a basis class) in \mathcal{M} . We will assume char. $\mathbf{F} \neq 2$. (This exceptional case is omitted here. The full paper will include this.)

3 Simultaneous Realizability of Symmetric Signatures

In [4], we gave a complete characterization of all the realizable symmetric signatures (Theorems 7.3– 7.5). These tell us exactly what signatures can be realized over *some* bases. However, to construct a holographic algorithm, one needs to realize some generators and recognizers simultaneously. In terms of \mathcal{M} , a given generator (recognizer) defines a (possibly empty) subvariety which consists of all the bases over which it is realizable. The simultaneous realizability is equivalent to a non-empty intersection of these subvarieties. Thus we have to go beyond Theorem 7.5. For every signature which is realizable according to Theorem 7.5, we need to determine the subvariety where it is realizable.

Definition 3.1. Let $B_{rec}([x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n])$ (resp. $B_{gen}([x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n])$) be the set of all possible bases in \mathcal{M} for which a symmetric signature $[x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ for a recognizer (resp. a generator) is realizable. We also use $B_{rec}(R)$ and $B_{gen}(G)$ for general (unsymmetric) signatures.

We will discuss our results for the recognizers. The results for the generators are similar and will be stated in the Appendix. Since the identical zero signature is realizable in every basis, we will assume the signature is non-zero in the following discussion.

3.1 Realizability of Recognizers

The following Lemmas give a complete and mutually exclusive list of realizable symmetric signatures for recognizers.

Lemma 3.1.

$$B_{rec}([a^n, a^{n-1}b, \dots, b^n]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} a \\ n_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} b \\ p_1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \in \mathcal{M} \middle| n_1, p_1 \in \mathbf{F} \right\}.$$

Remark: Every signature with arity 1 is trivially of this form.

Proof: If n = 1, the standard signature can and can only be $(\lambda, 0)$ or $(0, \lambda)$ (where λ is arbitrary). So the signature over the basis $\begin{bmatrix} n_0 \\ n_1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \end{bmatrix}$ is $(\lambda n_0, \lambda p_0)$ or $(\lambda n_1, \lambda p_1)$. Since we require the signature to be (a, b), all the possible bases as expressed in \mathcal{M} are $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ n_1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} b \\ p_1 \end{bmatrix}$, where n_1, p_1 are arbitrary, except $ap_1 - bn_1 \neq 0$.

Now we assume n > 1, then it is easy to show that this signature must be generated from Form 1 of Theorem 7.3. In this form, we must have $b(sn_0 + tn_1) = a(sp_0 + tp_1)$ and $b(sn_0 - tn_1) = a(sp_0 - tp_1)$. It follows that $bsn_0 = asp_0$ and $btn_1 = atp_1$. Because at least one of a, b is non-zero, if $st \neq 0$, we have $n_0p_1 - n_1p_0 = 0$. But this is not allowed. So we must have s = 0 or t = 0, and in either cases, all the possible bases are $\left[\begin{pmatrix} a \\ n_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} b \\ p_1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \in \mathcal{M}$, where n_1, p_1 are arbitrary, except $ap_1 - bn_1 \neq 0$. This completes the proof.

Lemma 3.2.

$$B_{rec}([x_0, x_1, x_2]) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} n_0 \\ n_1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \in \mathcal{M} \mid \begin{array}{c} x_0 p_1^2 - 2x_1 p_1 n_1 + x_2 n_1^2 = 0, \\ x_0 p_0 p_1 - x_1 (n_0 p_1 + n_1 p_0) + x_2 n_0 n_1 = 0 \end{array} \right\}.$$

Proof: Under the equivalence relation, we can assume $n_0p_1 - n_1p_0 = 1$. Then $\left[\binom{n_0}{n_1}, \binom{p_0}{p_1}\right]^{-1} = \left[\binom{p_1}{-n_1}, \binom{-p_0}{n_0}\right]$. So the standard signature of $[x_0, x_1, x_2]$ is $[x_0p_1^2 - 2x_1p_1n_1 + x_2n_1^2, x_0p_0p_1 - x_1(n_0p_1 + n_1p_0) + x_2n_0n_1, x_0p_0^2 - 2x_1p_0n_0 + x_2n_0^2]$.

The fact that the only constraint of a standard signature of arity 2 is the parity constraint completes the proof. $\hfill \Box$

In the following the match arity n is ≥ 3 .

Lemma 3.3. Let $\lambda_1 \neq 0$. Suppose $p = \text{char.} \mathbf{F} \not| n$,

$$B_{rec}([0,0,\ldots,0,\lambda_1,\lambda_2]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0\\ n\lambda_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} \right] \right\}.$$

For p|n and $\lambda_2 = 0$, $B_{rec}([0, 0, \dots, 0, \lambda_1, 0]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0\\n_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1\\p_1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \in \mathcal{M} \middle| n_1, p_1 \in \mathbf{F} \right\}$. For p|n and $\lambda_2 \neq 0$, then $[0, 0, \dots, 0, \lambda_1, \lambda_2]$ is not realizable.

Proof: Its reversal signature $[\lambda_2, \lambda_1, 0, \dots, 0]$ is a special case of Lemma 3.6 (with $\alpha = 0$). **Lemma 3.4.** For $AB \neq 0$,

$$B_{rec}([A, A\alpha, A\alpha^2, \dots, A\alpha^n + B]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1\\1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \alpha + \omega\\ \alpha - \omega \end{pmatrix} \right] \middle| \omega^n = \pm \frac{B}{A} \right\}.$$

Proof: Its reversal signature $[A\alpha^n + B, A\alpha^{n-1}, \dots, A\alpha, A]$ is a spacial case of Lemma 3.5. (This proof assumes $\alpha \neq 0$. For $\alpha = 0$, it can be directly verified.)

Other cases of Theorem 7.5 have the property that the a, b and c (in the theorem statement) are unique up to a scaling factor and $c \neq 0$. So we have a unique characteristic equation $cx^2 + bx + a = 0$, which has two roots α and β . If $\alpha \neq \beta$, we have the following lemma: **Lemma 3.5.** For $AB \neq 0$ and $\alpha \neq \beta$,

$$B_{rec}([A\alpha^{i} + B\beta^{i}|i=0,1,\ldots,n]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1+\omega\\1-\omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \alpha+\beta\omega\\\alpha-\beta\omega \end{pmatrix} \right] \middle| \omega^{n} = \pm \frac{B}{A} \right\}$$

Remark: We denote $0^0 = 1$.

Proof: From $A + B = x_0$, $A\alpha + B\beta = x_1$, we can solve uniquely for A, B. We have $AB \neq 0$; otherwise $\{x_i\}$ has the form $\{a^i b^{n-i}\}$, which has been dealt with in Lemma 3.1. So from Lemma 7.1, we know that the representation is unique. But from form 1 of Theorem 7.3, we know that

$$x_i = (sn_0 + tn_1)^n \left(\frac{sp_0 + tp_1}{sn_0 + tn_1}\right)^i + \epsilon(sn_0 - tn_1)^n \left(\frac{sp_0 - tp_1}{sn_0 - tn_1}\right)^i.$$

So $(sn_0 + tn_1)^n = A$, $\frac{sp_0 + tp_1}{sn_0 + tn_1} = \alpha$, $\epsilon(sn_0 - tn_1)^n = B$, $\frac{sp_0 - tp_1}{sn_0 - tn_1} = \beta$, (exchanging notations A with B, and α with β if necessary.) So $\left[\begin{pmatrix} sn_0 \\ tn_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} sp_0 \\ tp_1 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \left[\begin{pmatrix} a+b \\ a-b \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} a\alpha+b\beta \\ a\alpha-b\beta \end{pmatrix} \right]$, where $a^n = A, b^n = B$. Since $\alpha \neq \beta$, we know $st \neq 0$. So $\left[\begin{pmatrix} n_0 \\ n_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \sim \left[\begin{pmatrix} sn_0 \\ tn_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} sp_0 \\ tp_1 \end{pmatrix} \right]$. This completes the proof. \Box

If $\alpha = \beta$, we have the following lemma:

Lemma 3.6. Let $p = \text{char.}\mathbf{F}$ and let $A \neq 0$. Case 1: p = 0 or $p \not| n$.

$$B_{rec}([Ai\alpha^{i-1} + B\alpha^{i}|i=0,1,\ldots,n]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1\\B \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \alpha\\nA + B\alpha \end{pmatrix} \right] \right\}.$$

Case 2: p|n and $x_0 = 0$, in this case, the signature is of the form $Ai\alpha^{i-1}$.

$$B_{rec}([Ai\alpha^{i-1}|i=0,1,\ldots,n]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1\\n_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \alpha\\p_1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \in \mathcal{M} \middle| n_1, p_1 \in \mathbf{F} \right\}.$$

Case 3: p|n and $x_0 \neq 0$. Then it's not realizable.

Remark: If $\alpha = 0$, and i = 0, we still denote $i\alpha^{i-1} = 0$, and also $\alpha^i = 1$.

Proof: In Case 1, from $B = x_0, A + B\alpha = x_1$, we can solve uniquely for A, B. We have $A \neq 0$, so Lemma 7.2 applies. From Lemma 7.2, we know that the representation is unique. From form 2 of Theorem 7.3 (form 3 will give an equivalent basis), we know that $x_i = (n_1 p_0 - n_0 p_1) n_1^{n_1} \left(\frac{p_1}{n_1}\right)^{i-1} + nn_1^{n-1} \left(\frac{p_1}{n_1}\right)^i$. So $(n_1 p_0 - n_0 p_1) n_1^n = A, \frac{p_1}{n_1} = \alpha, nn_0 n_1^{n-1} = B$. Since $n_1 \neq 0$, under the equivalence relation, we can let $n_1 = 1$, then we have the unique solution $n_0 = B/n, p_1 = \alpha, p_0 = A + \frac{B\alpha}{n}$. We omit the proofs for Case 2 and 3.

3.2 Simultaneous Realizability

Definition 3.2. The Simultaneous Realizability Problem (SRP): Input: A set of symmetric signatures for generators and/or recognizers. Output: A common basis of these signatures if any; "NO" if they are not simultaneously realizable.

Algorithm:

For every signature $[x_0, x_1, \ldots x_n]$, check if it satisfies Theorem 7.5.

If not, output "NO" and halt.

Otherwise find $B_{gen}([x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n])$ or $B_{rec}([x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n])$ according to one of the Lemmas. Check if these subvarieties have a non-empty intersection. **Theorem 3.1.** This is a polynomial time algorithm for SRP.

Proof: Checking whether every input signature satisfies Theorem 7.5 can obviously be done in polynomial time. To find the right form and then the right Lemma for a signature which satisfies Theorem 7.5 can also be done in polynomial time.

Every subvariety of bases from Lemma 3.1 to 3.6 and from Lemma 8.1 to 8.6 is of one of three kinds: finite set of points (of linear size), a line or a quadratic curve. To check if they have a common element can be done in polynomial time.

4 Some Not So Accidental Algorithms

In [28], Valiant gave polynomial time algorithms for $\#_7$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-3CNF and $\#_7$ Pl-3/2Bip-VC, and he called them "accidental algorithms". In this section, we show how such algorithms can be developed almost "mechanically". This approach has the advantage that one gains more understanding of what can or cannot be accomplished. With this machinery we are able to generalize his result to Pl-Rtw-Mon-kCNF and Pl-k/2Bip-VC, for a general k. We show that there is a unique modulus $2^k - 1$ for which we can design such a holographic algorithm which counts the number of solutions. In the case of k = 3, this shows why 7 is special.

$#_{2^k-1}$ **Pl-Rtw-Mon-**k**CNF** 4.1

For #Pl-Rtw-Mon-kCNF, we are given a planar formula [11] in kCNF form, where each variable appears positively, and each appears in exactly 2 clauses. The problem is to count the number of satisfying assignments. As noted earlier, this counting problem is #P-complete already for k=3.

Now we wish to replace each variable by a generator with signature [1, 0, 1], and each clause by a recognizer with $[0, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$ (with k 1's). The symmetric signature [1, 0, 1] corresponds to a consistent truth assignment on two edges leading to clauses, and $[0, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$ corresponds to a Boolean OR for the clause. If we connect the generators and recognizers in a natural way, by the Holant Theorem [25] this would solve #Pl-Rtw-Mon-kCNF in polynomial time (if the signatures are realizable over **Q**).

Then the question boils down to whether there is a basis in \mathcal{M} where [1,0,1] for a generator and $[0, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$ (with k 1's) for a recognizer can be simultaneously realized. For this, we use our machinery.

From Lemma 3.5, with $A = 1, B = -1, \alpha = 1, \beta = 0$, we have

$$B_{rec}([0,1,1,\cdots,1]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1+\omega\\ 1-\omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \middle| \omega^k = \pm 1 \right\}.$$

We look for some $\omega^k = \pm 1$, such that $\begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1+\omega\\ 1-\omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \in B_{gen}([1,0,1]).$ According to Lemma 8.2, we want $(1+\omega)^2 + 1 = (1-\omega)^2 + 1 = 0$ or $(1+\omega)(1-\omega) + 1 = 0.$

The first case is impossible, and in the second case we require $\omega^2 = 2$. Together with the condition $\omega^k = \pm 1$, we have $2^k - 1 = 0$. From this we can already see that for every prime $p|2^k - 1, \#_p$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-kCNF is computable in polynomial time. In particular this is true for every Mersenne prime $2^{q}-1$. More generally we have:

Theorem 4.1. There is a polynomial time algorithm for $\#_{2^k-1}$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-kCNF. Furthermore, any modulus m for which the appropriate signatures exist must be a divisor of $2^k - 1$.

Proof: Our discussion above already shows that the modulus $2^k - 1$ is the best we can do. (Formally speaking we should present a generalization of the Holant Theorem [25] over a ring such as $\mathbf{Z}_{2^{k}-1}$, which we will omit here.) We now give the polynomial algorithms in two cases:

Case 1: k is even.

Over the complex numbers \mathbf{C} , from Lemma 8.2 and Lemma 3.4, we can see that a generator for [1, 0, 1]and a recognizer for $[1 + \epsilon 2^{k/2}, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$ (where there are k 1's, and $\epsilon = \pm 1$) are simultaneously realizable in the basis $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \sqrt{2} \\ 1 - \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$.

Setting $\epsilon = 1$ and replacing each variable by a generator and each clause by a recognizer with the corresponding signatures, we obtain a matchgrid Ω with the underlying weighted planar graph G. Then the Holant Theorem [25] tells us

$$Holant(\Omega) = PerfMatch(G).$$
(1)

We will denote this value by X.

From the left hand side of (1) we know that X is an integer because every entry in the signatures of generators and recognizers is an integer. Furthermore we have

 $X \equiv$ #Pl-Rtw-Mon-kCNF (mod 1 + 2^{k/2}).

From the right hand side of (1) we know that X can be computed in polynomial time using the FKT algorithm for perfect matchings of a planar graph. The planar graph has weights from the subfield $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \subset \mathbf{C}$, which poses no problem to the Pfaffian evaluation of FKT in polynomial time.

Therefore $\#_{2k/2+1}$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-kCNF can be computed in polynomial time. Similarly, setting $\epsilon =$ -1, we can compute $\#_{2^{k/2}-1}$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-*k*CNF in polynomial time.

Since $(2^{k/2} + 1, 2^{k/2} - 1) = 1$ and $2^k - 1 = (2^{k/2} + 1)((2^{k/2} - 1))$, we can apply Chinese remaindering to get a polynomial time algorithm for $\#_{2^k-1}$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-*k*CNF.

Case 2: k is odd.

Case 2: k is odd. Consider the ring $\mathbf{Z}_{2^{k}-1}$, and let $r = 2^{(k+1)/2} \in \mathbf{Z}_{2^{k}-1}$. Then r satisfies $r^{2} = 2$ in $\mathbf{Z}_{2^{k}-1}$. We denote this r by $\sqrt{2}$. Then $1 - (\sqrt{2})^{k} = 1 - (2^{k})^{(k+1)/2} = 0$ in $\mathbf{Z}_{2^{k}-1}$. Therefore over this ring $\mathbf{Z}_{2^{k}-1}$ and with the basis $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 + \sqrt{2} \\ 1 - \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 + 2^{(k+1)/2} \\ 1 - 2^{(k+1)/2} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right],$

we have a generator for [1, 0, 1] and a recognizer for $[0, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$ (with k 1's) according to Lemma 8.2 and 3.4. As a result, we have a polynomial time algorithm for $\#_{2^k-1}$ Pl-Rtw-Mon-kCNF. (It is in this case where k is odd, we need 2 as a quadratic residue in \mathbf{Z}_p for primes $p|2^k - 1$, as discussed in Section 1.)

$\#_{2^k-1}$ Pl-k/2Bip-VC 4.2

In this problem, we are given a planar bipartite graph with left degree k and right degree 2. We wish to count the number of Vertex Covers mod $2^k - 1$. The counting problem for this class of graphs mod 2 is \oplus P-complete and thus NP-hard [28]. Consider an arbitrary subset S of vertices from the right. Every vertex v on the left either has all its k adjacent vertices in S, in which case there are exactly two choices to extend at v to a Vertex Cover, or has some of its k adjacent vertices not in S, in which case there is exactly one choice to extend at v to a Vertex Cover. Thus, following the general recipe for holographic algorithms, we want to construct a generator with signature [1,0,1] and a recognizer with signature $[2, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$ (with k 1's) simultaneously.

From Lemma 3.5, where $A = 1, B = 1, \alpha = 1, \beta = 0$, we have:

$$B_{rec}([2,1,1,\cdots,1]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1+\omega\\ 1-\omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \middle| \omega^k = \pm 1 \right\}.$$

We realize that this set is exactly the same as $B_{rec}([0, 1, 1, \dots, 1])$. Then the proof in Section 4.1 gives us:

Theorem 4.2. There is a polynomial time algorithm for $\#_{2^k-1}Pl$ -k/2Bip-VC. Furthermore, any modulus m for which the appropriate signatures exist must be a divisor of $2^k - 1$.

Our general machinery not only can find the required signatures when they exist, but also can prove certain desired signatures do not exist or can not be simultaneously realized. As an example, one may wish to extend the previous two problems to allow more than Read-twice as in $\#Pl-R_l$ -Mon-kCNF, where l > 2. This calls for a simultaneous realizability of $[1, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 1]$ (l - 1 0's) and $[0, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$ (k 1's). This can be shown to result in an empty intersection on \mathcal{M} .

In the Appendix we will give a holographic algorithm to a problem motivated by Neural Networks.

$\mathbf{5}$ Some More Examples

In [25] Valiant gave a list of combinatorial problems all of which can be solved by holographic algorithms. In each case, a "magic" design of matchgates and signatures were presented to derive the algorithm. With our machinery, we can show all these problems can be systematically derived. In particular, we will see how the two mysterious bases **b1** and **b2** show up naturally. We will handle all the problems except PL-FO-2-COLOR which uses a basis of three vectors. This will be more naturally dealt with in [5] where we prove results on more general bases (more basis vectors and higher dimensions).

5.1**Not-All-Equal Gate**

In [25], four problems employ the NAE (Not-All-Equal) gate [0, 1, 1, 0]. They are #PL-3-NAE-SAT, #PL-3-NAE-ICE, #PL-3-(1,1)-CYCLECHAIN and PL-NODE-BIPARTITION (this last one uses a generator with signature [x, 1, 1, x].)

Notice that they have a common restriction of "maximum degree 3". This is necessary because if k > 3, then $[0, 1, 1, \dots, 1, 0]$ (k - 1)'s) is not realizable. This is a result of [3], but it's easy to see now.

For the case of degree 3, by Lemma 3.5, take α, β to be the two roots of $x^2 - x + 1 = 0$ and A/B = -1, we have $B_{rec}([0, 1, 1, 0]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 + \omega \\ 1 - \omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \alpha + \beta \omega \\ \alpha - \beta \omega \end{pmatrix} \right] \middle| \omega^3 = \pm 1 \right\}.$

Notice that $\alpha^3 = -1$ and $\alpha\beta = 1$, let $\omega = \alpha$, we have (using ~ on \mathcal{M})

$$\begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1+\omega\\ 1-\omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \alpha+\beta\omega\\ \alpha-\beta\omega \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1+\alpha\\ 1-\alpha \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \alpha+\beta\alpha\\ \alpha-\beta\alpha \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix}.$$

This is **b2** in [25]. Actually for each of the four problems, in order to intersect with the subvarieties of other generators and recognizers, this is the only choice. Due to space limitation, we omit the details.

$\#_{k+1}2/k$ -X-Matchings 5.2

Input: A planar bipartite graph $G = (V_1, V_2, E)$. Nodes in V_1 and V_2 have degrees 2 and k respectively. **Output:** The number mod (k + 1) of all (not necessarily perfect) matchings.

This problem is a slight variation on #X-Matchings from [25], which has general weights on edges and uses an *unsymmetric* signature. (We will discuss unsymmetric signatures in Section 6.) The case k = 4 was explicitly stated in [25], but the proof there clearly also handles general k. Jerrum [12] showed that counting matchings for planar graphs is #P-complete. Vadhan [22] showed that this remains #P-complete for planar bipartite graphs of degree 6.

For this problem we are looking for a generator with signature [1, 1, 0] and a recognizer with signature $[1, 1, 0, \dots, 0]$ (k - 1 0's) simultaneously. From Lemma 3.6, with $A = B = 1, \alpha = 0$, we have: $[B_{rec}([1,1,0,\cdots,0]) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0\\k \end{bmatrix} \right\}. \text{We hope that } \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0\\k \end{bmatrix} \in B_{gen}([1,1,0]).$

From Lemma 8.2, we must have k + 1 = 0. So we can only work inside the ring \mathbf{Z}_{k+1} .

Remark: In \mathbf{Z}_{k+1} , this basis $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ k \end{bmatrix}$ in \mathcal{M} under the equivalence relation ~ is exactly **b1** in [25].

Theorem 5.1. There is a polynomial time algorithms for $\#_{k+1}2/k$ -X-Matchings. Any modulus m for which the appropriate signatures exist must be a divisor of k + 1.

In the Appendix we will also discuss \oplus PL-EVEN-LIN2, the last problem from [25].

6 Beyond Symmetric Signatures

The theory of symmetric signatures has been satisfactorily developed. Symmetric signatures are particularly useful because they have clear combinatorial meanings. However general (i.e. unsymmetric) signatures have also been used before. To understand completely the power of holographic algorithms, we must study unsymmetric signatures as well. (In the following, we discuss generators only; the situation for recognizers is similar.)

Following the framework in [2], a generator is a contravariant tensor of the form $G = (g^{i_1 i_2 \dots i_n})$ where $i_1 i_2 \dots i_n \in \{0, 1\}$. We also denote $G = (g^S)$ where $S \subset [n]$, and $g^S = g^{\chi_S(1)\chi_S(2)\dots\chi_S(n)}$. A generator signature G is realizable on a basis β iff the standard signature $G' = \beta^{\otimes n} G$ can be realized by some planar matchgate. There are two conditions for a standard signature to be realizable:

Parity Constraint: Either $g'^S = 0$ for all |S| even, or $g'^S = 0$ for all |S| odd. **Matchgate Identities:** G' satisfies all the useful Grassmann-Plücker identities.

Definition 6.1. A tensor G is admissible as a generator on a basis β iff $G' = \beta^{\otimes n}G$ satisfies the Parity Constraint. Let $B_{gen}^p(G)$ denote the subset of \mathcal{M} for which G is admissible as a generator.

By definition we have $B_{qen}(G) \subseteq B_{gen}^p(G)$ for all G.

For symmetric signatures, we already observed that there are some different levels of realizability. Some signatures are realizable on isolated points, while others are realizable on lines or curves. Success at getting a holographic algorithm typically results from either a generator or a recognizer having more than isolated points of realizability. In terms of \mathcal{M} , this refers to the dimension of the subvariety $B_{gen}(G)$. More precisely,

Definition 6.2. A generator G is called d-realizable (resp. d-admissible) for an integer $d \ge 0$ iff $B_{gen}(G) \subset \mathcal{M}$ (resp. $B_{gen}^p(G) \subset \mathcal{M}$) is a (non-empty) algebraic subset of dimension at least d.

By definition, if a generator G is d-realizable, then it is d-admissible.

Remark: Since \mathcal{M} has dimension two, 2-realizability is universal realizability which means that G is realizable on any basis. This is because the conditions defining realizability are polynomial equations (with coefficients from (g^S) , and variables on \mathcal{M}). If there is at least one polynomial which is not identically 0, the algebraic set has dimension ≤ 1 . Using any 2-realizable signature is a freebie in the design of holographic algorithms; it places no restriction on the rest of the design. Therefore they are particularly desirable.

The following theorem is a complete characterization of 2-admissibility (over fields of characteristic 0. We omit the treatment of fields of positive characteristic here.) Due to space limitation, the proof is given in the Appendix. It uses rank estimates related to the *Kneser Graph* $KG_{2k+1,k}$ [15, 17, 18, 6, 7, 9, 10].

Theorem 6.1. G is 2-admissible iff (1) n = 2k is even; (2) all $g^S = 0$ except for |S| = k; and (3) for all $T \subset [n]$ with |T| = k + 1,

$$\sum_{S \subset T, |S|=k} g^S = 0.$$
⁽²⁾

The solution space is a linear subspace of dimension $\frac{1}{2k+1}\binom{2k+1}{k}$.

The next theorem shows that any basis transformation on a 2-admissible G is just a scaling. The proof is in the Appendix.

Theorem 6.2. If G is 2-admissible with arity 2k, then $\forall \beta = \begin{pmatrix} n_0 & p_0 \\ n_1 & p_1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{M}, \ \beta^{\otimes 2k}G = (n_0p_1 - n_1p_0)^kG.$

Corollary 6.1. If G is 2-admissible and realizable on some basis (e.g. on the standard basis), then it is 2-realizable.

For n = 6, all 2-admissible G's form a 5 dimensional linear space. Applying the Matchgate Identities, we find that there are 5 different 2-realizable signatures (up to scaling). Let G_1 and G_2 be the following

$$g_1^{\alpha} = \begin{cases} 1, & \alpha \in \{000111, 011001, 101010, 110100\}, \\ -1, & \alpha \in \{111000, 100110, 010101, 001011\}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise}, \end{cases}$$
$$g_2^{\alpha} = \begin{cases} 1, & \alpha \in \{010101, 011010, 100110, 101001\}, \\ -1, & \alpha \in \{101010, 100101, 011001, 010110\}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

Then all the 2-realizable signatures are obtained by cyclically rotating the indices of G_1 or G_2 . (Rotating 3 bits on G_1 is G_1 itself up to a scaling factor -1; rotating 2 bits on G_2 gives G_2 back. So there are 3 different 2-realizable signatures from rotating G_1 and 2 different ones from rotating G_2 .)

It turns out that all of these can be obtained from the *planar tensor product* operation which we define next.

Definition 6.3. Let $\operatorname{Rot}_r(G)$ be the tensor obtained by circularly rotating clockwise the coordinates of G by r bits. Let $G \otimes G'$ be the tensor product with all indices of G before all indices of G'. A planar tensor product is a finite sequence of operations of $\operatorname{Rot}_r(G)$ and $G \otimes G'$.

Theorem 6.3. $B_{gen}(\operatorname{Rot}_r(G)) = B_{gen}(G)$ and $B_{gen}(G_1 \otimes G_2) = B_{gen}(G_1) \cap B_{gen}(G_2)$. Thus a planar tensor product preserves B_{gen} .

The proof uses direct constructions and Matchgate Identities, and is omitted here.

Theorem 6.4. Each of the five 2-realizable signatures for n = 6 is obtainable as a planar tensor product from (0, 1, -1, 0).

From (0, 1, -1, 0), we can construct a family of 2-realizable signatures for any arity 2k by planar tensor product. It is an open question if this family (up to scaling) captures all the 2-realizable signatures. This is true for $n \leq 6$.

Definition 6.4. A signature G is called prime iff it cannot be decomposed as a tensor product of two signatures of positive arity.

In the Appendix, we will list some families of prime signatures. In particular (0, 1, -1, 0) is a prime 2-realizable signature. The above open problem is essentially whether (0, 1, -1, 0) is the unique prime 2-realizable signature (up to scaling).

1-admissibility (resp. 1-realizability) is strictly weaker than 2-admissibility (resp. 2-realizability). In the Appendix, we give some constructions of 1-admissible and 1-realizable families which are not in general 2-admissible or 2-realizable. These are in fact prime signatures. Planar tensor product can be applied to construct more 1-realizable families.

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Appendix

7 Some Background

In this section, for the convenience of readers, we review some definitions and results. More details can be found in [23, 25, 24, 3, 2, 1].

Let G = (V, E, W), G' = (V', E', W') be weighted undirected planar graphs. A generator matchgate Γ is a tuple (G, X) where $X \subset V$ is a set of external output nodes. A recognizer matchgate Γ' is a tuple (G', Y) where $Y \subset V'$ is a set of external input nodes. The external nodes are ordered counter-clock wise on the external face. Γ is called an odd (resp. even) matchgate if it has an odd (resp. even) number of nodes.

Each matchgate is assigned a *signature* tensor. A generator Γ with m output nodes is assigned a contravariant tensor $\mathbf{G} \in V_0^m$ of type $\binom{m}{0}$. This tensor under the standard basis **b** has the form

$$\sum G^{i_1i_2...i_m}\mathbf{b}_{i_1}\otimes\mathbf{b}_{i_2}\otimes\cdots\otimes\mathbf{b}_{i_m},$$

where

$$G^{i_1 i_2 \dots i_m} = \operatorname{PerfMatch}(G - Z),$$

and where Z is the subset of the output nodes having the characteristic sequence $\chi_Z = i_1 i_2 \dots i_m$. Similarly a recognizer Γ' with m input nodes is assigned a covariant tensor $\mathbf{R} \in V_m^0$ of type $\binom{0}{m}$. This tensor under the standard (dual) basis \mathbf{b}^* has the form

$$\sum R_{i_1i_2\ldots i_m} \mathbf{b}^{i_1} \otimes \mathbf{b}^{i_2} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbf{b}^{i_m},$$

where

$$R_{i_1i_2...i_m} = \operatorname{PerfMatch}(G' - Z),$$

where Z is the subset of the input nodes having $\chi_Z = i_1 i_2 \dots i_m$.

In particular, \mathbf{G} transforms as a contravariant tensor under a basis transformation and \mathbf{R} transforms as a covariant tensor.

A signature is symmetric, if each entry only depends on the Hamming weight of the index. This notion is invariant under basis transformations. A symmetric signature is denoted by $[\sigma_0, \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_m]$.

A matchgrid $\Omega = (A, B, C)$ is a weighted planar graph consisting of a disjoint union of: a set of g generators $A = (A_1, \ldots, A_g)$, a set of r recognizers $B = (B_1, \ldots, B_r)$, and a set of f connecting edges $C = (C_1, \ldots, C_f)$, where each C_i edge has weight 1 and joins an output node of a generator with a input node of a recognizer, so that every input and output node in every constituent matchgate has exactly one such incident connecting edge.

Let $\mathbf{G} = \bigotimes_{i=1}^{g} \mathbf{G}(A_i)$ be the tensor product of all the generator signatures, and let $\mathbf{R} = \bigotimes_{j=1}^{r} \mathbf{R}(B_j)$ be the tensor product of all the recognizer signatures. Then $\operatorname{Holant}(\Omega)$ is defined to be the contraction of the two product tensors, under some basis $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, where the corresponding indices match up according to the f connecting edges C_k .

The remarkable Holant Theorem is

Theorem 7.1 (Valiant). For any matchgrid Ω over any basis β , let G be its underlying weighted graph, then

$$\operatorname{Holant}(\Omega) = \operatorname{PerfMatch}(G).$$

The FKT algorithm can compute the perfect matching polynomial PerfMatch(G) for a planar graph in polynomial time. This algorithm gives an orientation of the edges of the planar graph, which assigns a ± 1 factor to each edge weight. It then evaluates the Pfaffian of the skew-symmetric matrix of the graph.

Pfaffians satisfy the Grassmann-Plücker identities [20].

Theorem 7.2. For any $n \times n$ skew-symmetric matrix M, and any $I = \{i_1, \ldots, i_K\} \subseteq [n]$ and $J = \{j_1, \ldots, j_L\} \subseteq [n]$,

$$\sum_{l=1}^{L} (-1)^{l} \mathrm{Pf}(j_{l}, i_{1}, \dots, i_{K}) \mathrm{Pf}(j_{1}, \dots, \hat{j}_{l}, \dots, j_{L}) + \sum_{k=1}^{K} (-1)^{k} \mathrm{Pf}(i_{1}, \dots, \hat{i}_{k}, \dots, i_{K}) \mathrm{Pf}(i_{k}, j_{1}, \dots, j_{L}) = 0$$

A set of so-called *useful* Grassmann-Plücker identities have been proved to characterize planar matchgate signatures [24, 1, 3]. These are called Matchgate Identities.

We state some theorems from [4], which will be used.

Theorem 7.3. A symmetric signature $[x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ for a recognizer is realizable under the basis $\boldsymbol{\beta} = [n, p] = \begin{bmatrix} \binom{n_0}{n_1}, \binom{p_0}{p_1} \end{bmatrix}$ iff it takes one of the following forms:

• Form 1: there exist (arbitrary) constants λ , s, t and ϵ where $\epsilon = \pm 1$, such that for all $i, 0 \le i \le n$,

$$x_i = \lambda [(sn_0 + tn_1)^{n-i} (sp_0 + tp_1)^i + \epsilon (sn_0 - tn_1)^{n-i} (sp_0 - tp_1)^i].$$
(3)

• Form 2: there exist (arbitrary) constants λ , such that for all $i, 0 \leq i \leq n$,

$$x_i = \lambda [(n-i)n_0(p_1)^i (n_1)^{n-1-i} + ip_0(p_1)^{i-1} (n_1)^{n-i}].$$
(4)

• Form 3: there exist (arbitrary) constants λ , such that for all $i, 0 \leq i \leq n$,

$$x_i = \lambda [(n-i)n_1(p_0)^i (n_0)^{n-1-i} + ip_1(p_0)^{i-1} (n_0)^{n-i}].$$
(5)

Theorem 7.4. A symmetric signature $[x_0, x_1, ..., x_n]$ for a generator is realizable under the basis $\boldsymbol{\beta} = [n, p] = \begin{bmatrix} n_0 \\ n_1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \end{bmatrix}$ iff it takes one of the following forms:

• Form 1: there exist (arbitrary) constance λ , s, t and ϵ where $\epsilon = \pm 1$, such that for all $i, 0 \leq i \leq n$,

$$x_i = \lambda [(sp_1 - tp_0)^{n-i} (-sn_1 + tn_0)^i + \epsilon (sp_1 + tp_0)^{n-i} (-sn_1 - tn_0)^i].$$
(6)

• Form 2: there exist (arbitrary) constants λ , such that for all $i, 0 \leq i \leq n$,

$$x_i = \lambda [(n-i)p_1(n_0)^i (-p_0)^{n-1-i} - in_1(n_0)^{i-1} (-p_0)^{n-i}].$$
(7)

• Form 3: there exist (arbitrary) constants λ , such that for all $i, 0 \leq i \leq n$,

$$x_i = \lambda [-(n-i)p_0(-n_1)^i (p_1)^{n-1-i} + in_0(-n_1)^{i-1} (p_1)^{n-i}].$$
(8)

Theorem 7.5. A symmetric signature $[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is realizable on some basis of size 1 iff there exists three constants a, b, c (not all zero), such that $\forall k, 0 \le k \le n-2$

$$ax_k + bx_{k+1} + cx_{k+2} = 0. (9)$$

The following two simple lemmas are used in the proof of Lemma 3.5 and 3.6.

Lemma 7.1. Suppose a sequence x_i (i = 0, 1, ..., n, where $n \ge 3$) has the following form: $x_i = A\alpha^i + B\beta^i$, $(AB \ne 0, \alpha \ne \beta)$, then the representation is unique. That is, if $x_i = A'(\alpha')^i + B'(\beta')^i$, $(i = 0, 1, ..., n, n \ge 3)$, then $A' = A, B' = B, \alpha' = \alpha, \beta' = \beta$ or $A' = B, B' = A, \alpha' = \beta, \beta' = \alpha$.

Lemma 7.2. Suppose a sequence x_i (i = 0, 1, ..., n, where $n \ge 3$) has the following form: $x_i = Ai\alpha^{i-1} + B\alpha^i$, $(A \ne 0)$, then the representation is unique. That is, if $x_i = A'i(\alpha')^{i-1} + B'(\alpha')^i$, $(i = 0, 1, ..., n, n \ge 3)$, then $A' = A, B' = B, \alpha' = \alpha$.

These follow from the fact that a second-order homogeneous linear recurrence sequence has a unique representation.

8 Realizability of Generators

The following Lemmas give a complete and mutually exclusive list of realizable symmetric signatures for generators.

Lemma 8.1.

$$B_{gen}([a^n, a^{n-1}b, \cdots, b^n]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} n_0 \\ -b \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ a \end{pmatrix} \right] \middle| n_0, p_0 \in \mathbf{F} \right\}.$$

Lemma 8.2.

$$B_{gen}([x_0, x_1, x_2]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} n_0 \\ n_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \in \mathcal{M} \middle| \begin{array}{c} x_0 n_0^2 + 2x_1 n_0 p_0 + x_2 p_0^2 = 0, \\ x_0 n_0 n_1 + x_1 (n_0 p_1 + n_1 p_0) + x_2 p_0 p_1 = 0 \end{array} \right\}.$$

Lemma 8.3. Let $\lambda_1 \neq 0$. Suppose $p = \text{char.} \mathbf{F} \not| n$,

$$B_{gen}([0,0,\cdots,0,\lambda_1,\lambda_2]) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda_2\\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} n\lambda_1\\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

For p|n and $\lambda_2 = 0$, $B_{gen}([0, 0, \dots, 0, \lambda_1, 0]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1\\n_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0\\p_1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \in \mathcal{M} \middle| n_1, p_1 \in \mathbf{F} \right\}$. For p|n and $\lambda_2 \neq 0$, then $[0, 0, \dots, 0, \lambda_1, \lambda_2]$ is not realizable.

Lemma 8.4. For $AB \neq 0$,

$$B_{gen}([A, A\alpha, A\alpha^2, \cdots, A\alpha^n + B]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} \omega - \alpha \\ -\alpha - \omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \middle| \omega^n = \pm \frac{B}{A} \right\}.$$

Lemma 8.5. For $AB \neq 0$ and $\alpha \neq \beta$,

$$B_{gen}(\{A\alpha^{i} + B\beta^{i} | i = 0, 1, \cdots, n\}) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} \beta\omega - \alpha \\ -\alpha - \beta\omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \omega \\ 1 + \omega \end{pmatrix} \right] \middle| \omega^{n} = \pm \frac{B}{A} \right\}.$$

Lemma 8.6. Let $p = \text{char.}\mathbf{F}$ and let $A \neq 0$. Case 1: p = 0 or $p \not| n$.

$$B_{gen}(\{Ai\alpha^{i-1} + B\alpha^{i}|i=0,1,\cdots,n\}) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} nA + B\alpha \\ -\alpha \end{bmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -B \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$$

Case 2: p|n and $x_0 = 0$, in this case, the signature is of the form $Ai\alpha^{i-1}$.

$$B_{gen}([Ai\alpha^{i-1}|i=0,1,\ldots,n]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} -\alpha\\n_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1\\p_1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \in \mathcal{M} \middle| n_1, p_1 \in \mathbf{F} \right\}.$$

Case 3: p|n and $x_0 \neq 0$. Then it's not realizable.

9 A Problem From Neural Networks

Consider the following planar two-level neural network N: The input nodes are Boolean variables x_1, \ldots, x_n . Each x_i has fan-out 2. The intermediate level nodes v all have fan-in k from the x_i 's. The output of v feeds into the top node and can have c + 1 different values $0, 1, \ldots, c$. If all k inputs of v are 0 then the output of v is 0 (unexcited state). Otherwise, the output of v can be any of the c + 1 values (excited state). The problem is to count the total number of output (firing) patterns as received

at the top node. (In the following for simplicity, we assume c is odd. We have a parallel set of results for c even. The statement has some number theoretic complications, and is omitted here.)

$\#_{2^k-c^2}\mathbf{NN}k/c$ -Firing-Pattern

Input: A two-level neural network with parameters k and c as above.

Output: The number mod $(2^k - c^2)$ of all possible firing patterns.

First we suppose k is even. Then we do it over C by taking $\omega = \sqrt{2}$. The same basis as in Section 4.1 can achieve the signature $[1 + 2^{k/2}, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$ (with k 1's) for a recognizer and the signature [1, 0, 1] for a generator simultaneously. This is verified by $\omega^2 = 2$ and $\omega^k = 2^{k/2}$.

Let X be the value of the Holant. With mod $2^{k/2} - c$, the recognizer signature is the same as $[1 + c, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$. Thus

$$X \equiv \# NNk/c$$
-Firing-Pattern (mod $2^{k/2} - c$).

Similarly we can also achieve the signature $[1-2^{k/2}, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$ (with k 1's) for a recognizer and the signature [1, 0, 1] for a generator simultaneously. This is verified by $\omega^2 = 2$ and $\omega^k = -(-2^{k/2})$. This recognizer signature is congruent to $[1+c, 1, 1, \dots, 1] \mod 2^{k/2} + c$. Thus we can compute in polynomial time some value X' for a Holant, where

$$X' \equiv \# NNk/c$$
-Firing-Pattern (mod $2^{k/2} + c$).

Then by Chinese remaindering, we can compute the value #NNk/c-Firing-Pattern modulo the l.c.m. of $2^{k/2} - c$ and $2^{k/2} + c$. Since c is odd, this is $2^k - c^2$.

Now we suppose k is odd. As c is relatively prime to $N = 2^k - c^2$, there exists c' such that $cc' \equiv 1 \mod N$. Take $\omega = 2^{(k+1)/2}c'$. Then $\omega^2 = 2^{k+1}c'^2 \equiv 2 \mod N$. Also $\omega^k = (2^k)^{(k+1)/2}c'^k \equiv c^{k+1}c'^k \equiv c \mod N$. Thus we can construct $[1 + c, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$ (with k 1's) for a recognizer and the signature [1, 0, 1] for a generator simultaneously in the ring \mathbf{Z}_N directly.

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In this problem, we wish to construct generators for [1, x, 1], [x, 1, x], [1, 0, 1], [0, 1, 0], $[1, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 1]$ and recognizers for [1, 0, -1, 0, 1], [0, 1, 0, -1, 0], [1, 0, 1], [0, 1, 0].

By Lemma 3.5, for A = B = 1/2, $\alpha = i, \beta = -i$ (here $i = \sqrt{-1}$), we have

$$B_{rec}([1,0,-1,0,1]) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1+\omega\\ 1-\omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} i-i\omega\\ i+i\omega \end{pmatrix} \right] | \omega^4 = \pm 1 \right\}.$$

We hope that $\begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1+\omega\\ 1-\omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} i-i\omega\\ i+i\omega \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$ is also a basis for the recognizer [0,1,0].

By Lemma 3.2, we require that $(1 + \omega)(i + i\omega) + (1 - \omega)(i - i\omega) = 0$. That is $\omega = i$, and

$$\left[\begin{pmatrix} 1+\omega\\1-\omega \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} i-i\omega\\i+i\omega \end{pmatrix} \right] = \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1+i\\1-i \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} i+1\\i-1 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1\\1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1\\-1 \end{pmatrix} \right].$$

We can easily verify that this is also a basis for the other recognizers and generators and we remark that this basis is precisely b2 in [25]. One can also prove 2 is the only modulus for this problem.

11 Characterization of 2-admissibility

Consider all subsets of [n] of a certain cardinality. Let $0 \le k \le \ell \le n$, and let $A_{k,\ell,n}$ denote the $\binom{n}{k} \times \binom{n}{\ell}$ Boolean matrix indexed by (A, B), where $A, B \subset [n]$ and $|A| = k, |B| = \ell$, and the entry at (A, B) is $\chi_{[A \subset B]}$. It is known that over the rationals \mathbf{Q} , the rank $\operatorname{rk}(A_{k,\ell,n}) = \min\{\binom{n}{k}, \binom{n}{\ell}\}$ [6, 7, 9, 10]. We will not deal with finite characteristics here. The situation with finite characteristic p is interesting and is more involved. For example, Linial and Rothschild [10] prove exact rank formula for characteristic 2 and 3. The rank "defect" compared to the characteristic 0 case provides more admissible signatures. This will be discussed in future work.

We restate the definition of *d*-admissibility in more detail.

Definition 11.1. $G = (g^S)_{S \subset [n]}$ is called *d*-admissible if the following algebraic variety V has dimension at least d, where $V = V_0 \cup V_1 \subset \mathcal{M}$, and V_0 (resp. V_1) is defined by the set of all parity requirements for the generator signature of an odd (resp. even) matchgate.

More precisely, consider V_0 . We take a point (in dehomogenized coordinates) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 1 & y \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{M}$. We also denote $x_0 = x, x_1 = y$. Let $T \subset [n]$ with |T| even. Then we require

$$\left\langle \bigotimes_{\sigma=1}^{n} [1, x_{[\sigma \in T]}], G \right\rangle = 0.$$

Similarly we define V_1 , where we require that all |T| be odd.

We note that

$$\left\langle \bigotimes_{\sigma=1}^{n} [1, x_{[\sigma \in T]}], G \right\rangle = \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le n-|T|\\ 0 \le j \le |T|}} x^{i} y^{j} \sum_{\substack{A \subset T^{c}, |A| = i\\ B \subset T, |B| = j}} g^{A \cup B}.$$
(10)

If $\dim(V) = 2$, then either $\dim(V_0) = 2$ or $\dim(V_1) = 2$. For $\dim(V_0) = 2$, we have the following: For all $T \subset [n]$ with |T| even, and for all $0 \le i \le n - |T|$ and $0 \le j \le |T|$,

$$\sum_{A \subset T^c, B \subset T, |A|=i, |B|=j} g^{A \cup B} = 0.$$
(11)

(If there is one equation not satisfied, then there is at least one non-trivial polynomial among the parity requirements, which implies $\dim(V_0) \leq 1$.) For $\dim(V_1) = 2$, the above holds for all |T| odd. Continuing with $\dim(V_0) = 2$, by taking i = 0, we get for all $T \subset [n]$ with |T| even, and $j \leq |T|$,

$$\sum_{S \subset T, |S|=j} g^S = 0.$$

$$\tag{12}$$

Also by taking j = 0, we get for all $i \le n - |T|$,

$$\sum_{S \subset T^c, |S|=i} g^S = 0$$

If $S \subset [n]$ with |S| even, then we may take T = S and j = |T|, and it follows that

$$g^S = 0.$$

If n is odd, then T is even and T^c is odd, and together they range over all possible subsets of [n]. It follows that

$$g^{S} = 0$$

for all $S \subset [n]$. That is, G is trivial.

An identical argument also shows that for $\dim(V_1) = 2$ and n odd, the trivial $G \equiv 0$ is the only possibility.

Now we assume n = 2k is even, and continuing with $\dim(V_0) = 2$. Both T and T^c are even. Pick any T even and i = n - |T|, we get

$$\sum_{A \subset T^c, B \subset T, |A|=i, |B|=j} g^{A \cup B} = \sum_{S \supset T^c, |S|=i+j} g^S = 0.$$

i.e. for all even $T' \subset [n]$ and all $i \geq |T'|$,

$$\sum_{S\supset T', |S|=i} g^S = 0.$$
(13)

If |S| = i < k, we form the following system of equations from (12),

$$\sum_{S \subset T, |S|=i} g^S = 0,$$

where T ranges over all subsets of [n] with |T| = t, and t = i or i + 1, whichever is even. This linear system has rank $\binom{n}{i}$. It follows that $g^S = 0$ for all |S| < k.

Similarly if |S| = i > k, we can use (13) with |T| = i or i - 1, whichever is even, and summing over all subsets S containing T. This linear system also has rank $\binom{n}{i}$. It follows that $g^S = 0$ for all |S| > k.

Therefore the only non-zero entries of G are among g^S with half weight |S| = k. Also with dim $(V_0) = 2$, we may assume k is odd. Otherwise, we already know $g^S = 0$ for all |S| even.

A similar argument for V_1 shows that, in order for $\dim(V_1) = 2$, we must have n = 2k even, all $g^S = 0$ except for |S| = k and k is even.

Summarizing, we have

Lemma 11.1. If G is 2-admissible, then n = 2k is even, all $g^S = 0$ except for |S| = k. If k is odd (resp. even) then the only possibility is $\dim(V_0) = 2$ (resp. $\dim(V_1) = 2$). Moreover, for all $T \subset [n]$ with |T| = k + 1,

$$\sum_{S \subset T, |S|=k} g^S = 0.$$
⁽¹⁴⁾

Next we prove that the conditions in Lemma 11.1 are also sufficient for G being 2-admissible, i.e., we prove (11), thus all the polynomials in (10) are identically zero.

Suppose k odd. We prove dim $(V_0) = 2$. A similar argument does for k even and dim $(V_1) = 2$. We only need to verify (11) for all i+j=k, namely for all $T \subset [n]$ with |T| even, and for all $0 \le i \le n-|T|$, and $0 \le j = k - i \le |T|$,

$$\sum_{A \subset T^c, B \subset T, |A|=i, |B|=k-i} g^{A \cup B} = 0.$$

$$\tag{15}$$

Denote by t = |T| and s = n - |T|. By symmetry of T and T^c (both being even subsets of [n]) we may assume $s \le t$. Since k is odd, we have the strict s < t, for otherwise s = t = k would be odd.

We prove (15) by induction on $i \ge 0$. For the base case i = 0, j = k, we consider all $U \subset T$ with |U| = k + 1. Note that as $t \ge k + 1$, this is not vacuous. By (14) we have

$$\sum_{S \subset U, |S|=k} g^S = 0.$$

Summing over all such U, and consider how many times each $S \subset [n]$ with |S| = k appears in the sum, we get

$$\sum_{\substack{A \subset T^c, |A| = 0 \\ B \subset T, |B| = k}} g^{A \cup B} = \sum_{S \subset T, |S| = k} g^S = \frac{1}{\binom{t-k}{1}} \sum_{\substack{U \subset T \\ |U| = k+1}} \sum_{S \subset U, |S| = k} g^S = 0.$$
(16)

Inductively we assume (15) has been proved for i - 1, for some $i \ge 1$. Consider i and j = k - i. We may assume $i \le s$; otherwise we are done. Also $k - i + 1 \le t$. Consider all subsets $U = U_1 \cup U_2 \subset [n]$, where $U_1 \subset T^c$, $U_2 \subset T$, with $|U_1| = i$ and $|U_2| = k - i + 1$. Note that |U| = k + 1. We have

$$0 = \sum_{S \subset U, |S| = k} g^S = \sum_{A \subset U_1, |A| = i-1} g^{A \cup U_2} + \sum_{B \subset U_2, |B| = k-i} g^{U_1 \cup B}$$

as all sets $S \subset U$ with |S| = k are classified into two classes according to whether $|S \cap U_1| = i - 1$ or *i*. Then summing over all such U,

$$0 = \sum_{U} \sum_{S \subset U, |S|=k} g^{S} = \binom{s - (i - 1)}{1} \sum_{\substack{A \subset T^{c}, |A| = i - 1 \\ B \subset T, |B| = k - i + 1}} g^{A \cup B} + \binom{t - (k - i)}{1} \sum_{\substack{A \subset T^{c}, |A| = i \\ B \subset T, |B| = k - i}} g^{A \cup B},$$

by considering how many times each S of the two classes appears in the sum $\sum_U \sum_S$. Since the first sum is 0 by inductive hypothesis, and $t - k + i \ge 1$, the second sum is also zero. Thus

$$\sum_{A\subset T^c, B\subset T, |A|=i, |B|=k-i}g^{A\cup B}=0$$

This proves that

Theorem 11.1. The conditions in Lemma 11.1 are both necessary and sufficient for G being 2-admissible.

We can further prove:

Theorem 11.2. If G is 2-admissible with arity 2k, then $\forall \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} n_0 & p_0 \\ n_1 & p_1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{M}, \ \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\otimes 2k}G = (n_0p_1 - n_1p_0)^kG.$

In order to prove this theorem, we first prove the following lemma:

Lemma 11.2. Let G be 2-admissible with arity 2k, $S \subset [2k]$ with |S| = k, and $A \subset S^c$. Then

$$\sum_{B \subset S \quad and \quad |B|=k-|A|} g^{A \cup B} = (-1)^{|A|} g^S$$

Proof: We prove it by induction on $|A| \ge 0$.

The case |A| = 0 is obvious.

Inductively we assume the lemma has been proved for all $|A| \le i-1$, for some $i \ge 1$. Let |A| = i > 0and let G be 2-admissible, it follows from Lemma 11.1 we have

$$\sum_{C \subset A \cup S \text{ and } |C|=k} g^C = 0.$$

Then

$$0 = \sum_{C \subset A \cup S \text{ and } |C| = k} g^C$$

=
$$\sum_{B \subset S \text{ and } |B| = k - |A|} g^{A \cup B} + \sum_{t=0}^{|A|-1} \sum_{A_1 \subset A, |A_1| = t} \sum_{B \subset S, |B| = k - |A_1|} g^{A_1 \cup B},$$

according to $t = |A \cap C| = 0, 1, ..., |A|$. Since $|A_1| = t \le |A| - 1$, by induction we have:

$$\sum_{B \subset S, |B|=k-|A_1|} g^{A_1 \cup B} = (-1)^{|A_1|} g^S = (-1)^t g^S.$$

 \mathbf{So}

$$\begin{split} 0 &= \sum_{B \subset S \text{ and } |B| = k - |A|} g^{A \cup B} + g^S \sum_{t=0}^{|A|-1} (-1)^t \binom{|A|}{t} \\ &= \sum_{B \subset S \text{ and } |B| = k - |A|} g^{A \cup B} - (-1)^{|A|} g^S. \end{split}$$

From the last equation, we have

$$\sum_{B\subset S \text{ and } |B|=k-|A|} g^{A\cup B} = (-1)^{|A|} g^S$$

This completes the proof.

Corollary 11.1. If G is any 2-admissible signature, then $\forall S \subset [2k], g^S = (-1)^k g^{S^c}$.

Now we can prove Theorem 11.2.

Proof: To simplify notations, we use the dehomogenized coordinates $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 1 & y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_0 \\ 1 & x_1 \end{pmatrix}$. Some exceptional cases can be proved directly.

First it is obvious that $\beta^{\otimes 2k}G$ is also 2-admissible. So for any $S \subset [2k]$ and $|S| \neq k$,

$$\left\langle \bigotimes_{\sigma=1}^{n} [1, x_{[\sigma \in S]}], G \right\rangle \equiv 0.$$

Now let $S \subset [2k]$ and |S| = k,

$$\left\langle \bigotimes_{\sigma=1}^{n} [1, x_{[\sigma \in S]}], G \right\rangle = \sum_{0 \le i \le k} x^{i} y^{k-i} \sum_{A \subset S^{c}, |A|=i} \sum_{B \subset S, |B|=k-i} g^{A \cup B}$$

By Lemma 11.2 and for $A \subset S^c, |A| = i$, we have

$$\sum_{B\subset S, |B|=k-i}g^{A\cup B}=(-1)^ig^S$$

So

$$\left\langle \bigotimes_{\sigma=1}^{n} [1, x_{[\sigma \in S]}], G \right\rangle = \sum_{0 \le i \le k} x^{i} y^{k-i} \sum_{A \subset S^{c}, |A|=i} (-1)^{i} g^{S} = g^{S} \sum_{0 \le i \le k} x^{i} y^{k-i} (-1)^{i} \binom{k}{i} = (y-x)^{k} g^{S}.$$

This completes the proof.

Since a scaling preserves realizability, the theorem gives:

Corollary 11.2. If a 2-admissible G is realizable on some basis (e.g., on the standard basis), then it is realizable on any basis, which means it is 2-realizable.

12 1-admissibility and 1-realizability

First we give a family of 1-admissible generators.

Theorem 12.1. Let n = 2k be even, we have all $g^S = 0$ except for those |S| = k. Finally for all $S \subset [n]$ with |S| = k, $g^S = g^{S^c}$. Then G is 1-admissible.

Proof: We prove this by showing that $\forall x, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 1 & -x \end{pmatrix} \in V_1$, where V_1 is defined in Definition 11.1. Let $T \subset [n]$ with |T| odd. Then we require

$$\left\langle \bigotimes_{\sigma=1}^{n} [1, x_{[\sigma \in T]}], G \right\rangle \equiv 0,$$

where $x_0 = x$ and $x_1 = -x$. In the above setting, we have

$$\left\langle \bigotimes_{\sigma=1}^{n} [1, x_{[\sigma \in T]}], G \right\rangle = x^k \sum_{\substack{\max\{0, |T|-k\} \le i \le \min\{k, |T|\} \\ B \ \subset \ T, |B| \ = \ i}} (-1)^i \sum_{\substack{A \ \subset \ T^c, |A| \ = \ k \ - \ i} \\ B \ \subset \ T, |B| \ = \ i}} g^{A \cup B}$$

We assume that $k \ge |T|$ (the case k < |T| is similar). Since |T| is odd, the first and the last term of the first summation cancel out. Similarly the second and the second last term cancel out, and so on. So we have this summation identically equal to 0. This completes the proof.

For n = 4, in order to be 1-realizable, the Matchgate Identities further require $g^{0011}g^{1001} = 0$. This gives the following two 1-realizable signatures (they are prime for $a^2 \neq b^2$):

$$g^{\alpha} = \begin{cases} a, & \alpha \in \{0101, 1010\}, \\ b, & \alpha \in \{0011, 1100\}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

and

$$g^{\alpha} = \begin{cases} a, & \alpha \in \{0101, 1010\}, \\ b, & \alpha \in \{1001, 0110\}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Next, we present another family of 1-realizable signatures, which are not subsumed by any of the above. It also has some generalized symmetry. It can be viewed as a generalization of Case 2 in Lemma 8.6.

Theorem 12.2. For any $g_1, g_2, \ldots, g_n, \alpha \in \mathbf{F}$, where $g_1 + g_2 + \cdots + g_n = 0$, let $G = (g^S)_{S \subset [n]}$ be defined as follows,

$$g^S = \alpha^{|S|-1} \sum_{i \in S} g_i.$$

Then G is 1-realizable and

$$B_{gen}(G) = \left\{ \left[\begin{pmatrix} -\alpha \\ n_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ p_1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \in \mathcal{M} \middle| n_1, p_1 \in \mathbf{F} \right\}$$

Proof: For simplicity, we use the dehomogenized coordinates $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 1 & y \end{pmatrix}$ where $x = -1/\alpha$. Some exceptional cases such as $\alpha = 0$ can be proved directly (we use the convention that $\alpha^0 = 1$ and $0 \cdot \alpha^{0-1} = 0$ even when $\alpha = 0$.)

Let $T \subset [n]$, if |T| = 0 or |T| = n, then

$$\left\langle \bigotimes_{\sigma=1}^{n} [1, x_{[\sigma \in T]}], G \right\rangle = 0.$$

Otherwise we have

$$\begin{split} & \left\langle \bigotimes_{\sigma=1}^{n} [1, x_{[\sigma \in T]}], G \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le n-|T| \\ 0 \le j \le |T|}} x^{i} y^{j} \sum_{\substack{A \subseteq T^{c}, |A| = i \\ B \subseteq T, |B| = j}} g^{A \cup B} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le n-|T| \\ 0 \le j \le |T|}} x^{i} y^{j} \alpha^{i+j-1} \sum_{\substack{A \subseteq T^{c}, |A| = i \\ B \subseteq T, |B| = j}} \alpha^{|A \cup B|-1} \sum_{\substack{k \in A \cup B}} g_{k} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le n-|T| \\ 0 \le j \le |T|}} x^{i} y^{j} \alpha^{i+j-1} \sum_{\substack{A \subseteq T^{c}, |A| = i \\ B \subseteq T, |B| = j}} (\sum_{\substack{k \in A}} g_{k} + \sum_{l \in B} g_{l}) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le n-|T| \\ 0 \le j \le |T|}} x^{i} y^{j} \alpha^{i+j-1} \left(\binom{|T|}{j} \binom{|T^{c}|-1}{i-1} \sum_{\substack{k \in T^{c}}} g_{k} + \binom{|T^{c}|}{i} \binom{|T|-1}{j-1} \sum_{l \in T} g_{l} \right) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{k \in T^{c}}} g_{k} \left(\sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le n-|T| \\ 0 \le j \le |T|}} x^{i} y^{j} \alpha^{i+j-1} \binom{|T|}{j} \binom{|T|-1}{i-1} - \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le n-|T| \\ 0 \le j \le |T|}} x^{i} y^{j} \alpha^{i+j-1} \binom{n-|T|-1}{j-1} \binom{|T|-1}{j-1} \right) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{k \in T^{c}}} g_{k} \left(x(1+\alpha x)^{n-|T|-1}(1+\alpha y)^{|T|} - y(1+\alpha x)^{n-|T|}(1+\alpha y)^{|T|-1} \right). \end{split}$$

If |T| < n-1, the above equation is identically 0 when $x = -1/\alpha$.

For |T| = n - 1, suppose $T = [n] - \{t\}$, then this value is λg_t where $\lambda = -(1 + \alpha y)^{n-1}/\alpha$. This standard signature is realizable by the star (see Figure 1.)



Figure 1: 1-realizability

Remark: When n = 2, this generator is the 2-realizable signature (0, 1, -1, 0).

13 2-realizable signatures of arity 6

Here we give the pictorial realization of all the 2-realizable generator signatures of arity 6, by planar tensor product from the prime 2-realizable signature (0, 1, -1, 0).



Figure 2: One planar tensor product for arity 6.



Figure 3: Another planar tensor product for arity 6.

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