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## TENSOR NETWORKS AND THE ENUMERATIVE GEOMETRY OF GRAPHS


#### Abstract

We propose a universal approach to a range of enumeration problems in graphs by means of tensor networks. The key point is in contracting suitably chosen symmetric tensors placed at the vertices of a graph along the edges. This approach leads to simple formulas that count, in particular, the number of $d$-regular subgraphs of an arbitrary graph (including the number of $d$-factors) and proper edge colorings. We briefly discuss the problem of the computational complexity of the algorithms based on these formulas.


## §1. Introduction

A tensor network is a collection of tensors placed at the vertices of a connected finite graph. The valency of each tensor must coincide with the degree of the corresponding vertex, and tensor indices are labeled by the half-edges incident to this vertex. Two tensors placed at adjacent vertices can be contracted over the pair of indices labeling the two half-edges of the connecting edge. This yields a tensor network with one tensor less than the original one (the underlying graph obtained by contracting the corresponding edge has also one vertex and one edge less). When contracting a loop, the tensor at its single vertex gets contracted over a pair of indices, and the total number of tensors (or vertices) remains unchanged. The total contraction along all edges of the graph gives a number (the graph reduces then to a single vertex with no edges).

The idea of placing tensors at vertices of graphs and contracting them along the edges traces back to Sylvester $[6]^{1}$, who used this construction for obtaining polynomial invariants of symmetric tensors. Much later, Penrose [4] reversed this idea to computing graph invariants (like the number of 3edge colorings of a planar 3-regular graph) in his novel (though not quite successful) approach to the 4 -color problem. Later, a number of other

[^0]remarkable applications was found, first of all, in the theory of Vassiliev knot invariants (see, e. g., [1]). Recently, tensor network contraction was used to simulate quantum computation (cf. [3] and references therein).

Here we deal with contracting networks of specially chosen symmetric tensors. The result of contraction gives a generating function for the numbers of regular subgraphs of any type. In its simplest version, this algorithm produces the number of factors of any given degree. We also give some comments on the computational complexity of this algorithm.

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## §2. Networks of symmetric tensors and graph functions

Let $G$ be a finite graph (possibly with loops and multiple edges). The set of vertices of $G$ will be denoted by $V(G)=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$, where $n=|V(G)|$ is the total number of vertices, and the set of edges of $G$ will be denoted by $E(G)$. For each vertex $v_{i}$, we denote by $d_{i}$ its degree (or valency), $i=1, \ldots, n$. Then the number of edges of $G$ is given by the formula

$$
|E(G)|=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}
$$

Now let $\mathbb{F}$ be a field, and let $V \cong \mathbb{F}^{r}$ be a vector space of dimension $r$ over $\mathbb{F}$. Fix a symmetric bilinear form $B: V \otimes V \longrightarrow \mathbb{F}$. The graph $G$ together with the bilinear form $B$ define a multilinear form

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{G}: V^{\otimes d_{1}} \otimes \cdots \otimes V^{\otimes d_{n}} \longrightarrow \mathbb{F} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is constructed as follows. At each vertex $v_{i}$ of $G$, we place the $d_{i}$ th tensor power $V^{\otimes d_{i}}$ of the vector space $V$, where the factors are labeled by the half-edges of $G$ incident to $v_{i}$. Each edge of $G$ defines a contraction of two copies of $V$ (corresponding to its two half-edges) by means of the bilinear form $B$. We obtain a multilinear form $B_{G}$ by performing such contractions over the set $E(G)$ of all edges of $G$. Rigorously speaking, the multilinear form $B_{G}$ depends on the order of half-edges at each vertex $v_{i}$, or, equivalently, on the order of factors in the tensor power $V^{\otimes d_{i}}$. However, its restriction to $S^{d_{1}} V \otimes \cdots \otimes S^{d_{n}} V$, where $S^{d} V$ denotes the $d$ th symmetric power of $V$, is defined uniquely.

Now fix a sequence $\mathcal{A}=\left\{A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ of symmetric contravariant $d$-valent tensors $A_{d} \in S^{d} V \subset V^{\otimes d}$. Here we consider tensor networks given by the triple $\{G, \mathcal{A}, B\}$. We treat the tensor product $A_{d_{1}} \otimes \cdots \otimes A_{d_{n}}$ as an element of $V^{\otimes d_{1}} \otimes \cdots \otimes V^{\otimes d_{n}}$ and consider the element

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}, B}(G)=B_{G}\left(A_{d_{1}} \otimes \cdots \otimes A_{d_{i}}\right) \in \mathbb{F} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In other words, $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}, B}(G)$ is the result of contracting the tensor network $\{G, \mathcal{A}, B\}$ : it is obtained by placing a copy of $A_{d}$ at each vertex of $G$ of degree $d$ and contracting $\otimes_{i=1}^{n} A_{d_{i}}$ using $B$ over $|E(G)|$ pairs of indices corresponding to the edges of $G$. Thus, to each pair $\mathcal{A}, B$, where $\mathcal{A}$ is a sequence of symmetric $d$-tensors $(d=1,2, \ldots)$ and $B$ is a symmetric bilinear form, we associate an $\mathbb{F}$-valued mapping $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}, B}$ on the set of isomorphism classes of graphs, or an $\mathbb{F}$-valued graph function in the terminology of [7].

## §3. Enumeration of regular subgraphs

Given a graph $G$, let $H$ be a $k$-regular subgraph of $G$ (not necessarily connected). The type of the subgraph $H$ in $G$ is the partition

$$
\lambda_{H}=\left[\left|V\left(H_{1}\right)\right|, \ldots,\left|V\left(H_{l}\right)\right|\right]
$$

of the number $|V(H)|$ of vertices of $H$, where $H_{1}, \ldots, H_{l}$ are the connected components of $H, l=l(H)$. The weight of the partition $\lambda_{H}$ is $\left|\lambda_{H}\right|=$ $|V(H)|$, and the length is $l\left(\lambda_{H}\right)=l(H)$. For each partition $\lambda$, we define a graph function $N_{k, \lambda}$ by

$$
N_{k, \lambda}(G)=\#\left\{H \subset G \mid H \text { is } k \text {-regular and } \lambda_{H}=\lambda\right\}
$$

i.e., $N_{k, \lambda}(G)$ is the number of $k$-regular subgraphs of type $\lambda$ in $G$. Clearly, $N_{k, \lambda}(G)=0$ if $k>\max \left\{d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}\right\}$ or $|\lambda|>n$.

For $k$ a positive integer, denote by $p_{k}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots\right)=x_{1}^{k}+x_{2}^{k}+\ldots$ the $k$ th power sum in variables $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots$ Given a partition $\lambda=\left[k_{1}, \ldots, k_{l}\right]$, we define a homogeneous symmetric function $p_{\lambda}$ of degree $|\lambda|=k_{1}+\cdots+k_{l}$ by the formula

$$
p_{\lambda}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{l} p_{k_{i}}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots\right)
$$

We want to show that under a special choice of $\mathcal{A}$ and $B$, the graph function $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}, B}$ defined in Sec. 2 counts the number of $k$-regular subgraphs of any given type in a graph. We take $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{C}$ and consider the standard coordinates in $V=\mathbb{C}^{r}$, where $r$ is a positive integer (the choice of $r$ will depend on the context). In these coordinates, the bilinear form $B$ is given
by the $r \times r$ identity matrix $I_{r}$. We define tensors $A_{d, k}$ componentwise. For $d<k$ we put

$$
A_{d, k}^{i_{1} \ldots i_{d}}= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if }\left(i_{1} \ldots i_{d}\right) \neq(r \ldots r) \\ t & \text { if }\left(i_{1} \ldots i_{d}\right)=(r \ldots r)\end{cases}
$$

and for $d \geqslant k$ we put

$$
A_{d, k}^{i_{1} \ldots i_{d}}= \begin{cases}x_{i} & \text { if }\left(i_{1} \ldots i_{d}\right) \text { is a permutation of }(\underbrace{i \ldots i}_{k} \underbrace{r \ldots r}_{d-k}), \\ t & \text { if }\left(i_{1} \ldots i_{d}\right)=(r \ldots r), \\ 0 & \text { otherwise },\end{cases}
$$

where $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}$ and $t$ are arbitrary complex numbers. The main result of this section is the following theorem.

Theorem 1. For $\mathcal{A}_{k}=\left\{A_{1, k}, A_{2, k}, \ldots\right\}$ as above, the value of the graph function $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{r}}$ on any graph $G$ is given by the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{r}}(G)=\sum_{|\lambda| \leqslant n} t^{n-|\lambda|} p_{\lambda}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}\right) N_{k, \lambda}(G), \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the sum is taken over the set of all partitions $\lambda$ of weight $|\lambda| \leqslant n=$ $|V(G)|$.
Proof. We interpret the indices $1, \ldots, r$ as colors of the half-edges of $G$. A product of $n$ components $A_{d_{1}, k}^{i_{1} \ldots i_{d_{1}}} \cdot \ldots \cdot A_{d_{n}, k}^{i_{m-d_{n}+1} \ldots i_{m}}$ (where $n=|V(G)|$ and $\left.m=\sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{j}=2|E(G)|\right)$ contributes nontrivially to $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{r}}(G)$ if and only if the colors agree on each edge of $G$, or, equivalently, if and only if for each edge both indices that label two of its half-edges are the same. Thus, in this case the nonzero contributions are in one-to-one correspondence with the edge colorings of $G$ in $r$ colors with the following properties:
(1) each edge incident to a vertex of degree less than $k$ has color $r$, and
(2) at each vertex $v_{j} \in V(G)$ of degree $d_{j} \geqslant k$, exactly $k$ edges incident to it have some color $i_{j} \in\{1, \ldots, r-1\}$, and the remaining $d_{i}-k$ edges have color $r$ (if an edge makes a loop, we count it twice).
The closure of the union of edges with colors $1, \ldots, r-1$ is a $k$-regular subgraph $H$ in $G$, and every connected component $H_{j}$ of $H$ is colored in one of the colors $i_{j} \in\{1, \ldots, r-1\}$. The contribution to $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{r}}(G)$ from
this coloring is $t^{n-\left|\lambda_{H}\right|} \prod_{j=1}^{l(H)} x_{i_{j}}^{\left|V\left(H_{j}\right)\right|}$, where $\lambda_{H}=\left[\left|V\left(H_{1}\right)\right|, \ldots,\left|V\left(H_{l}\right)\right|\right]$ is the partition associated with $H$ and $l=l(H)$ is the number of connected components of $H$. Therefore, the contribution from all possible colorings of the subgraph $H$ is equal to

$$
t^{n-\left|\lambda_{H}\right|} \prod_{j=1}^{l(H)}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{r-1} x_{i}^{\left|V\left(H_{j}\right)\right|}\right)=t^{n-\left|\lambda_{H}\right|} p_{\lambda_{H}}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}\right),
$$

and summing up the contributions of all $k$-regular subgraphs in $G$, we get the assertion of the theorem.

Corollary 1. The graph function $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{r}}$, depending on $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}$ and $t$ as parameters, determines the numbers $N_{k, \lambda}(G)$ uniquely for any graph $G$ with $n \leqslant r-1$ vertices.

Proof. By Theorem 1, the graph function $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{r}}$ with values in $\mathbb{C}$ factors through the ring $\mathbb{C}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}\right]^{S_{r-1}}$ of symmetric polynomials in $r-1$ independent variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}$. It is well known that the polynomials $p_{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}\right), k=1, \ldots, n$, are algebraically independent in $\mathbb{C}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}\right]^{S_{r-1}}$ provided that $n \leqslant r-1$. Therefore, in this case the graph function $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{r}}(G)$ determines the coefficients $N_{k, \lambda}(G)$ in (3) uniquely.

Remark 1. Since the coefficients $N_{k, \lambda}(G)$ in (3) are nonnegative integers, we can uniquely find them if

$$
r \geqslant 1+\max _{H \subset G} l(H),
$$

where $l(H)$ is the number of connected components of $H$ and the maximum is taken over all $k$-regular subgraphs $H$ in $G$, but we will not dwell on this issue here.

Below are two special cases of Theorem 1 of independent interest.
Corollary 2. Put $r=2, x_{1}=1$, and $t=0$. Then for any graph $G$, the value $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{2}}(G)$ is the number of $k$-factors, or spanning $k$-regular subgraphs in $G$.

Proof. By Theorem 1,

$$
\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{2}}(G)=x_{1}^{n} \sum_{|\lambda|=n} N_{k, \lambda}(G) .
$$

Remark 2. In the simplest case where $k=1$, Corollary 2 counts the number of 1-factors, or perfect matchings in $G$.

The next statement concerns connected $k$-factors of $G$.
Corollary 3. Put $r=n+1, x_{j}=e^{2 \pi \sqrt{-1} j / n}(j=1, \ldots, n)$, and $t=0$. Then for any graph $G$, the number of connected $k$-factors in $G$ is equal to $\frac{1}{n} \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{n+1}}(G)$, where $n$ is the number of vertices of $G$.
Proof. In this case,

$$
p_{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}0, & k=1, \ldots, n-1 \\ n, & k=n\end{cases}
$$

By Theorem 1 we have

$$
\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{k}, I_{n+1}}(G)=n N_{[n]}(G),
$$

where $[n]$ denotes the 1-element partition of $n=|V(G)|$ (by definition, $N_{k,[n]}(G)$ is the number of connected $k$-factors).

Remark 3. Connected 2-factors are called Hamiltonian cycles. These are cycles that pass through each vertex of a graph exactly once. The evaluation of the number of Hamiltonian cycles in a given graph $G$ is a famous $N P$-hard combinatorial problem. By Corollary 3, the number of Hamiltonian cycles in $G$ is equal to $\frac{1}{n} \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{2}, I_{n+1}}(G)$.

## §4. Enumeration of EDGE COLORINGS

Given a graph $G$, a (proper) r-edge coloring of $G$ is a coloring of the edges of $G$ in $r$ colors such that at each vertex $v_{i} \in V(G)$ all $d_{i}$ edges incident to it have different colors. Clearly, an $r$-edge coloring exists only if $r \geqslant d_{i}$ for all $i=1, \ldots, n=|V(G)|$ and $G$ contains no loops.

Let us show that the number of $r$-edge colorings of $G$ can be realized as a graph function $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}, B}$ for some suitably chosen $\mathcal{A}$ and $B$. Put $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{R}$ and consider the usual Euclidean coordinates in $V=\mathbb{R}^{r}$. Take $B$ that is given in these coordinates by the $r \times r$ identity matrix $I_{r}$, and define the components of tensors $A_{d}, d=1,2, \ldots$, by the formula

$$
A_{d}^{i_{1} \ldots i_{d}}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } i_{1}, \ldots, i_{d} \in\{1, \ldots, r\} \text { are pairwise distinct } \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Theorem 2. For $\mathcal{A}$ as above, the value of the graph function $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}, I_{r}}$ on any graph $G$ is equal to the number of $r$-edge colorings of $G$.

Proof. In order to compute the value $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}, I_{r}}(G)$, we have first to decide which products of components of $A_{d}$ contribute to it nontrivially. We interpret the indices $1, \ldots, r$ as colors of the half-edges of $G$. A product of $n$ components $A_{d_{1}}^{i_{1} \ldots i_{d_{1}}} \ldots A_{d_{n}}^{i_{m-d_{n}+1} \ldots i_{m}}$ (where $n=|V(G)|$ is the number of vertices and $m=\sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{j}=2|E(G)|$ is twice the number of edges of $G$ ) makes a nonzero contribution to $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}, I_{r}}(G)$ if and only if the colors agree on each edge of $G$, or, equivalently, if and only if for each edge both indices that label two of its half-edges are the same (otherwise, the bilinear form $B=I_{r}$ vanishes). By definition, $A_{d}^{i_{1} \ldots i_{d}} \neq 0$ if and only if all the indices $i_{1} \ldots i_{d} \in\{1, \ldots, r\}$ are distinct, so the nonzero contributions are in one-to-one correspondence with the $r$-edge colorings of $G$. Since every such contribution is equal to 1 , the number of $r$-edge colorings of $G$ is exactly $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}, I_{3}}(G)$.

Remark 4. The case of 3 -edge colorings of 3 -valent graphs (also called Tait colorings) is of special interest because of its relation to the 4-color problem. Namely, a planar 3 -valent map is 4 -colorable if and only if it admits a Tait coloring, cf. $[4,2,1]$. Take $\mathcal{A}=\left\{A_{3}\right\}$ and $B=I_{3}$ in Theorem 2. Then for any 3 -valent graph $G$, the value $\mathcal{F}_{A_{3}, I_{3}}(G)$ is equal to the number of Tait colorings of $G$.

## §5. Computational complexity

The value $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}, I_{r}}(G)$ can be effectively computed for any graph $G$ as explained in Sec. 2. In general, this is a hard computational problem. To make things less complicated, let us take $r=2$. Then Corollary 2 provides a relatively simple algorithm for counting the number of $k$-factors in graphs. (Note that even the case $k=1$, or, equivalently, the enumeration of perfect matchings, is a well-known $\# P$-complete problem.) The computational complexity of the above algorithm depends on two main points:
(1) the succession of tensor contractions along the edges of $G$ (or simply edge contractions), and
(2) the utilization of the special form of the tensors $A_{d, k}$.

As to the first point, the objective is to choose a sequence of edge contractions that keeps the maximal tensor valency (or vertex degree) as small as possible. This problem was solved in [3]. Take a sequence of edge contractions reducing $G$ to a point. The complexity of this sequence is the maximum vertex degree during the contraction process. The contraction
complexity $\operatorname{cc}(G)$ is the minimal complexity over all sequences of edge contractions. A nice result of [3] states that $\operatorname{cc}(G)=\operatorname{tw}\left(G^{*}\right)+1$, where $G^{*}$ is the linear graph of $G$, and $\operatorname{tw}\left(G^{*}\right)$ is the treewidth of $G^{*}$. Though computing the treewidth of a general graph is $N P$-hard, a tree decomposition of $G^{*}$ of width $O\left(\operatorname{tw}\left(G^{*}\right)\right)$ can be obtained in time $\left|V\left(G^{*}\right)\right|^{O(1)} \exp \left(O\left(\operatorname{tw}\left(G^{*}\right)\right)\right.$ [5]. Moreover, given a tree decomposition of $G^{*}$ of width $w$, a sequence of edge contractions in $G$ of complexity not greater than $w+1$ can be found in polynomial time. Thus, the results of [3] give a rough estimate of the computational complexity of our algorithm by $|V(G)|^{O(1)} \exp \left(O\left(\operatorname{tw}\left(G^{*}\right)\right)\right)$. So, for graphs whose line graphs have bounded treewidth, our algorithm works quite fast. Moreover, known constructions of almost optimal tree decompositions (cf. [5]) give almost optimal edge contraction sequences.

As to the second point mentioned above, the situation is less clear at the moment. Note that the estimate of [3] is rather general and applies to arbitrary tensor networks. In our case, it can be considerably sharper, since the tensor networks we use are of very special types. In particular, Sylvester's theory of decomposing symmetric tensors into sums of symmetric powers of vectors may appear quite useful in improving the efficiency of our algorithm. ${ }^{2}$ However, this is still an open question.

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