# On P vs. NP

If 50 million people believe a foolish thing, it's still a foolish thing. — George Bernard Shaw (1856–1950) Exponential Circuit Complexity for NP-Complete Problems

• We shall prove exponential lower bounds for NP-complete problems using *monotone* circuits.

– Monotone circuits are circuits without  $\neg$  gates.<sup>a</sup>

• Note that this result does *not* settle the P vs. NP problem.

<sup>a</sup>Recall p. 331.

#### The Power of Monotone Circuits

- Monotone circuits can only compute monotone boolean functions.
- They are powerful enough to solve a P-complete problem: MONOTONE CIRCUIT VALUE (p. 332).
- There are NP-complete problems that are not monotone; they cannot be computed by monotone circuits at all.
- There are NP-complete problems that are monotone; they can be computed by monotone circuits.
  - HAMILTONIAN PATH and CLIQUE.

#### $CLIQUE_{n,k}$

- $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  is the boolean function deciding whether a graph G = (V, E) with n nodes has a clique of size k.
- The input gates are the  $\binom{n}{2}$  entries of the adjacency matrix of G.
  - Gate  $g_{ij}$  is set to true if the associated undirected edge  $\{i, j\}$  exists.
- $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  is a monotone function.
- Thus it can be computed by a monotone circuit.
- Of course, this does not rule out that *non*monotone circuits for  $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  may use *fewer* gates.

#### Crude Circuits

- One possible circuit for  $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  does the following.
  - 1. For each  $S \subseteq V$  with |S| = k, there is a circuit with  $O(k^2) \wedge$ -gates testing whether S forms a clique.
  - 2. We then take an OR of the outcomes of all the  $\binom{n}{k}$  subsets  $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_{\binom{n}{k}}$ .
- This is a monotone circuit with  $O(k^2 \binom{n}{k})$  gates, which is exponentially large unless k or n k is a constant.
- A crude circuit  $CC(X_1, X_2, ..., X_m)$  tests if there is an  $X_i \subseteq V$  that forms a clique.<sup>a</sup>

- The above-mentioned circuit is  $CC(S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_{\binom{n}{k}})$ .

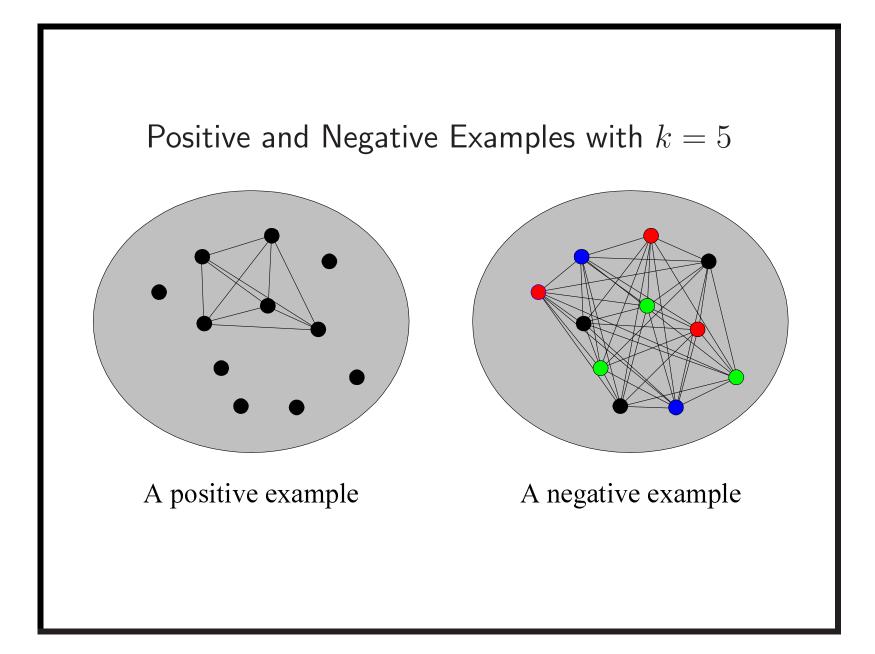
<sup>a</sup>Consider the empty set a clique.

### The Proof: Positive Examples

- Analysis will be applied to only the following **positive examples** and **negative examples** as input graphs.
- A positive example is a graph that has  $\binom{k}{2}$  edges connecting k nodes in all possible ways.
- There are  $\binom{n}{k}$  such graphs.
- $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  should output true on them.

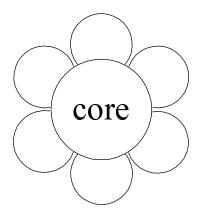
# The Proof: Negative Examples

- Color the nodes with k-1 different colors and join by an edge any two nodes that are colored differently.
- There are  $(k-1)^n$  such graphs.
- $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  should output false on them.
  - Each set of k nodes must have 2 identically colored nodes; hence there is no edge between them.

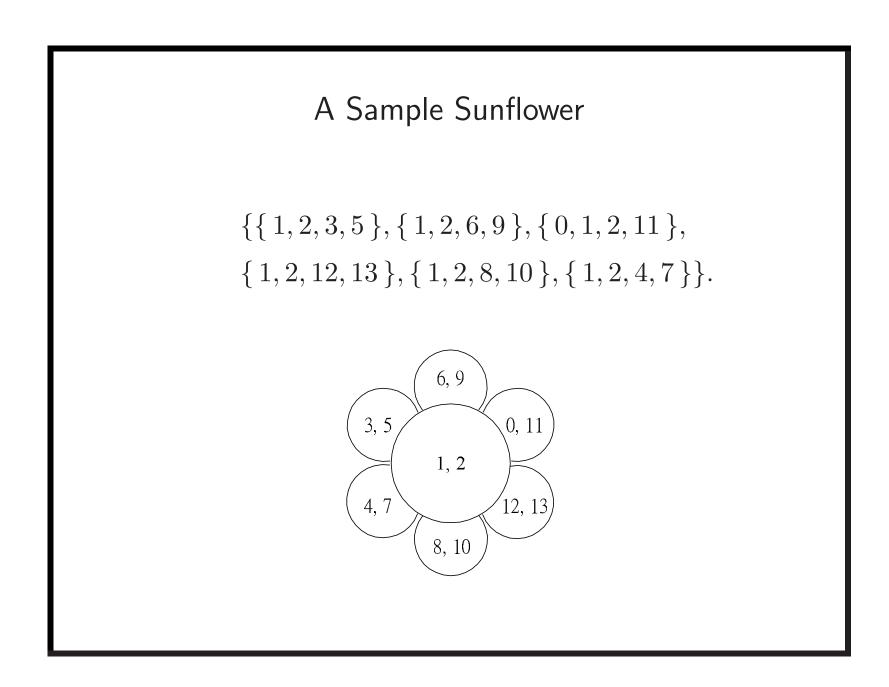


# Sunflowers

- Fix  $p \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .
- A sunflower is a family of p sets {  $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_p$  }, called **petals**, each of cardinality at most  $\ell$ .
- Furthermore, all pairs of sets in the family must have the same intersection (called the **core**<sup>a</sup> of the sunflower).



<sup>a</sup>A core can be an empty set.



#### The Erdős-Rado Lemma

**Lemma 86** Let  $\mathcal{Z}$  be a family of more than  $M \stackrel{\Delta}{=} (p-1)^{\ell} \ell!$ nonempty sets, each of cardinality  $\ell$  or less. Then  $\mathcal{Z}$  must contain a sunflower (with p petals).

- Induction on  $\ell$ .
- For  $\ell = 1$ , p different singletons form a sunflower (with an empty core).
- Suppose  $\ell > 1$ .
- Consider a maximal subset  $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{Z}$  of disjoint sets.
  - Every set in  $\mathcal{Z} \mathcal{D}$  intersects some set in  $\mathcal{D}$ .

The Proof of the Erdős-Rado Lemma (continued) For example,

$$\mathcal{Z} = \{\{1, 2, 3, 5\}, \{1, 3, 6, 9\}, \{0, 4, 8, 11\}, \\ \{4, 5, 6, 7\}, \{5, 8, 9, 10\}, \{6, 7, 9, 11\}\}, \\ \mathcal{D} = \{\{1, 2, 3, 5\}, \{0, 4, 8, 11\}\}.$$

#### The Proof of the Erdős-Rado Lemma (continued)

- Suppose  $\mathcal{D}$  contains at least p sets.
  - $\mathcal{D}$  constitutes a sunflower with an empty core.
- Suppose  $\mathcal{D}$  contains fewer than p sets.
  - Let C be the union of all sets in  $\mathcal{D}$ .
  - $|C| \le (p-1)\ell.$
  - -C intersects every set in  $\mathcal{Z}$  by  $\mathcal{D}$ 's maximality.
  - There is a  $d \in C$  that intersects more than  $\frac{M}{(p-1)\ell} = (p-1)^{\ell-1}(\ell-1)! \text{ sets in } \mathcal{Z}.$ - Consider  $\mathcal{Z}' = \{Z - \{d\} : Z \in \mathcal{Z}, d \in Z\}.$

# The Proof of the Erdős-Rado Lemma (concluded)

- (continued)
  - $\mathcal{Z}'$  has more than  $M' \stackrel{\Delta}{=} (p-1)^{\ell-1} (\ell-1)!$  sets.
  - -M' is just M with  $\ell$  replaced with  $\ell 1$ .
  - $\mathcal{Z}'$  contains a sunflower by induction, say

$$\{P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_p\}.$$

– Now,

 $\{P_1 \cup \{d\}, P_2 \cup \{d\}, \dots, P_p \cup \{d\}\}\$ is a sunflower in  $\mathcal{Z}$ .

# Comments on the Erdős-Rado Lemma

- A family of more than M sets must contain a sunflower.
- **Plucking** a sunflower means replacing the sets in the sunflower by its core.
- By *repeatedly* finding a sunflower and plucking it, we can reduce a family with more than M sets to a family with at most M sets.
- If Z is a family of sets, the above result is denoted by pluck(Z).
- $pluck(\mathcal{Z})$  is not unique.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>It depends on the sequence of sunflowers one plucks. Fortunately, this issue is not material to the proof.

## An Example of Plucking

• Recall the sunflower on p. 814:

$$\mathcal{Z} = \{\{1, 2, 3, 5\}, \{1, 2, 6, 9\}, \{0, 1, 2, 11\}, \\\{1, 2, 12, 13\}, \{1, 2, 8, 10\}, \{1, 2, 4, 7\}\}$$

• Then

 $\operatorname{pluck}(\mathcal{Z}) = \{\{1, 2\}\}.$ 

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#### Razborov's Theorem

**Theorem 87 (Razborov, 1985)** There is a constant csuch that for large enough n, all monotone circuits for  $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  with  $k = n^{1/4}$  have size at least  $n^{cn^{1/8}}$ .

- We shall approximate any monotone circuit for  $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  by a restricted kind of crude circuit.
- The approximation will proceed in steps: one step for each gate of the monotone circuit.
- Each step introduces few errors (false positives and false negatives).
- Yet, the final crude circuit has exponentially many errors.

# The Proof

- Fix  $k = n^{1/4}$ .
- Fix  $\ell = n^{1/8}$ .
- Note that<sup>a</sup>

$$2\binom{\ell}{2} \le k - 1. \tag{24}$$

- p will be fixed later to be  $n^{1/8} \log n$ .
- Fix  $M = (p-1)^{\ell} \ell!$ .

– Recall the Erdős-Rado lemma (p. 815).

<sup>a</sup>Corrected by Mr. Moustapha Bande (D98922042) on January 5, 2010.

# The Proof (continued)

- Each crude circuit used in the approximation process is of the form  $CC(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m)$ , where:
  - $-X_i \subseteq V.$
  - $-|X_i| \le \ell.$
  - $-m \leq M.$
- It answers true if and only if at least one  $X_i$  is a clique.
- We shall show how to approximate any monotone circuit for  $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  by such a crude circuit, inductively.
- The induction basis is straightforward:
  - Input gate  $g_{ij}$  is the crude circuit  $CC(\{i, j\})$ .

# The Proof (continued)

- A monotone circuit is the OR or AND of two subcircuits.
- We will build approximators of the overall circuit from the approximators of the two subcircuits.
  - Start with two crude circuits  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  and  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$ .
  - $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$  are two families of at most M sets of nodes, each set containing at most  $\ell$  nodes.
  - We will construct the approximate OR and the approximate AND of these subcircuits.
  - Then show both approximations introduce few errors.

#### The Proof: OR

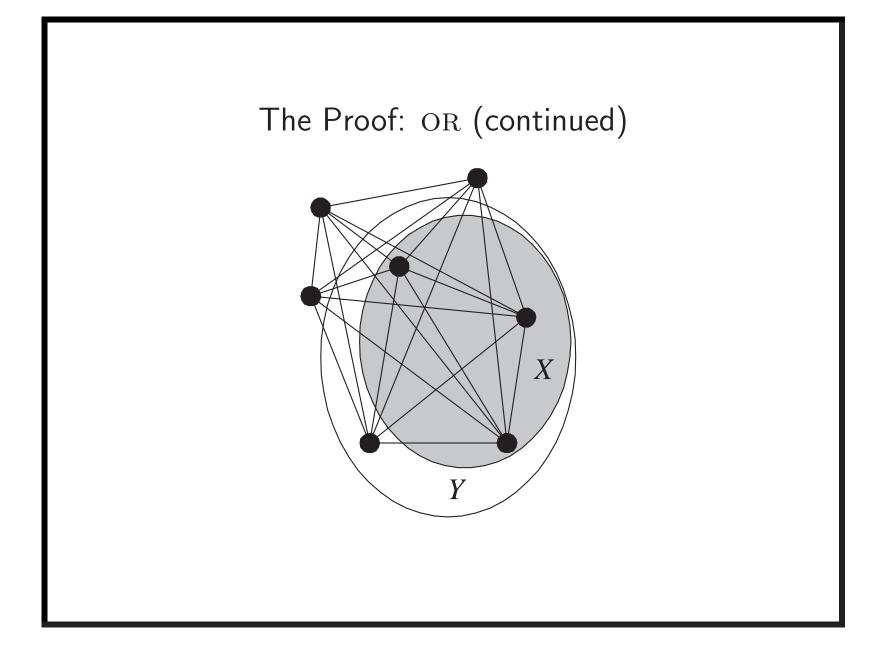
- $CC(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y})$  is equivalent to the OR of  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  and  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$ .
  - For any node set  $\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}$  if and only if  $\mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{X}$  or  $\mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{Y}$ .
  - Hence  $\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}$  contains a clique if and only if  $\mathcal{X}$  or  $\mathcal{Y}$  contains a clique.
- Problem with  $CC(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y})$  occurs when  $|\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}| > M$ .
- Such violations are eliminated by using

 $\operatorname{CC}(\operatorname{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$ 

as the final approximate OR of  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  and  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$ .

# The Proof: OR (continued)

- If  $CC(\mathcal{Z})$  is true, then  $CC(pluck(\mathcal{Z}))$  must be true.
  - Each plucking replaces sets by their *common* core.
  - Let  $Y \in \mathcal{Z}$  be a clique.
  - But a subset of Y must also be a clique.
  - So pluck( $\mathcal{Z}$ ) must contain a clique.



#### The Proof: OR (concluded)

- $CC(pluck(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$  introduces a false positive if a negative example makes both  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  and  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$  return false but makes  $CC(pluck(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$  return true.
- CC(pluck(X ∪ Y)) introduces a false negative if a positive example makes either CC(X) or CC(Y) return true but makes CC(pluck(X ∪ Y)) return false.
- We next count the number of false positives and false negatives introduced<sup>a</sup> by  $CC(pluck(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$ .
- Let us work on false negatives for OR first.

<sup>a</sup>Compared with  $CC(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y})$  of course.

# The Number of False Negatives $^{\rm a}$

**Lemma 88**  $CC(pluck(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$  introduces no false negatives.

- Each plucking replaces sets in a crude circuit by their common subset.
- This makes the test for cliqueness less stringent.<sup>b</sup>

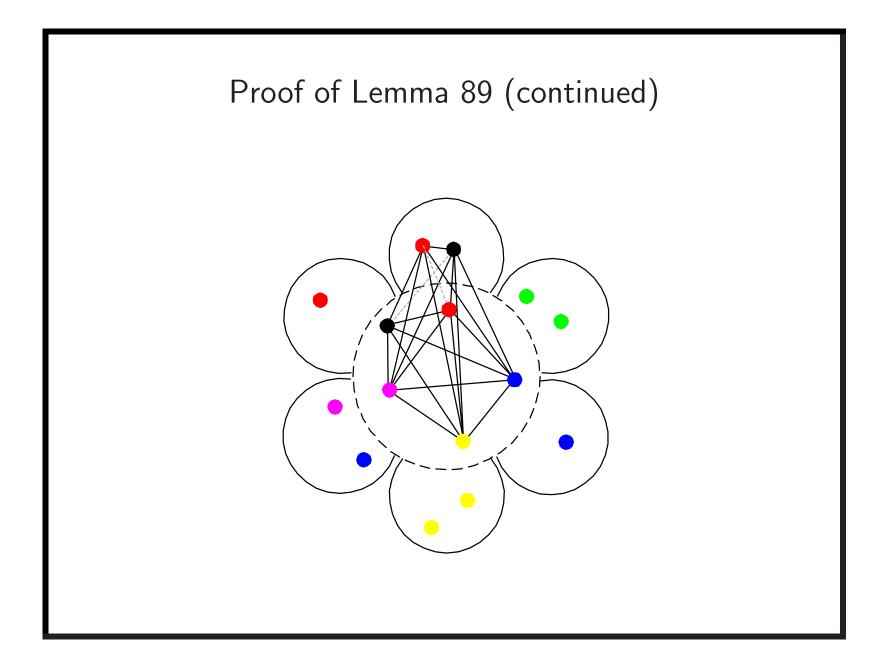
<sup>a</sup>Recall that  $CC(pluck(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$  introduces a false negative if a positive example makes either  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  or  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$  return true but makes  $CC(pluck(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$  return false.

<sup>b</sup>The new crude circuit is at least as positive as the original one (p. 826).

#### The Number of False Positives

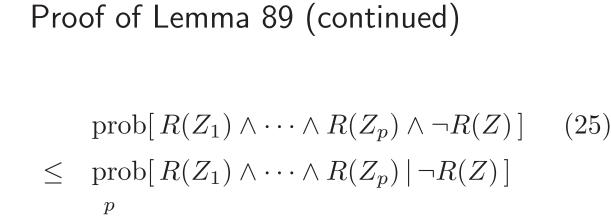
**Lemma 89** CC(pluck( $\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}$ )) introduces at most  $\frac{2M}{p-1} 2^{-p} (k-1)^n$  false positives.

- Each plucking operation replaces the sunflower  $\{Z_1, Z_2, \ldots, Z_p\}$  with its common core Z.
- A false positive is *necessarily* a coloring such that:
  - There is a pair of identically colored nodes in *each* petal  $Z_i$  (and so  $CC(Z_1, Z_2, \ldots, Z_p)$  returns false).
  - But the core contains distinctly colored nodes (thus forming a clique).
  - This implies at least one node from each identical-color pair was plucked away.



# Proof of Lemma 89 (continued)

- We now count the number of such colorings.
- Color nodes in V at random with k-1 colors.
- Let R(X) denote the event that there are repeated colors in set X.



$$= \prod_{i=1}^{p} \operatorname{prob}[R(Z_i) | \neg R(Z)]$$

$$\leq \prod_{i=1}^{p} \operatorname{prob}[R(Z_i)]. \qquad (26)$$

- Equality holds because  $R(Z_i)$  are independent given  $\neg R(Z)$  as core Z contains their only common nodes.
- Last inequality holds as the likelihood of repetitions in  $Z_i$  decreases given no repetitions in a subset, Z.

• Now

#### Proof of Lemma 89 (continued)

- Consider two nodes in  $Z_i$ .
- The probability that they have identical color is

$$\frac{1}{k-1}$$

• Now

$$\operatorname{prob}[R(Z_i)] \le \frac{\binom{|Z_i|}{2}}{k-1} \le \frac{\binom{\ell}{2}}{k-1} \le \frac{1}{2}$$
(27)

by inequality (24) on p. 822.

• So the probability<sup>a</sup> that a random coloring yields a *new* false positive is at most  $2^{-p}$  by inequality (26) on p. 833.

<sup>a</sup>Proportion, if you so prefer.

# Proof of Lemma 89 (continued)

- As there are  $(k-1)^n$  different colorings, *each* plucking introduces at most  $2^{-p}(k-1)^n$  false positives.
- Recall that  $|\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}| \leq 2M$ .
- When the procedure  $pluck(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y})$  ends, the set system contains  $\leq M$  sets.

#### Proof of Lemma 89 (concluded)

- Each plucking reduces the number of sets by p-1.
- Hence at most 2M/(p-1) pluckings occur in  $pluck(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y})$ .
- At most

$$\frac{2M}{p-1} \, 2^{-p} (k-1)^n$$

false positives are introduced.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Note that the numbers of errors are added not multiplied. Recall that we count how many *new* errors are introduced by each approximation step. Contributed by Mr. Ren-Shuo Liu (D98922016) on January 5, 2010.

### The Proof: AND

• The approximate AND of crude circuits  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  and  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$  is

 $CC(pluck(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}, |X_i \cup Y_j| \le \ell\})).$ 

• We need to count the number of errors this approximate AND introduces on the positive and negative examples.

# The Proof: AND (continued)

- The approximate AND *introduces* a **false positive** if a negative example makes either  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  or  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$  return false but makes the approximate AND return true.
- The approximate AND *introduces* a **false negative** if a positive example makes both  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  and  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$  return true but makes the approximate AND return false.
- As we count only new errors, we ignore scenarios where the AND of  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  and  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$  is already wrong.

### The Proof: AND (continued)

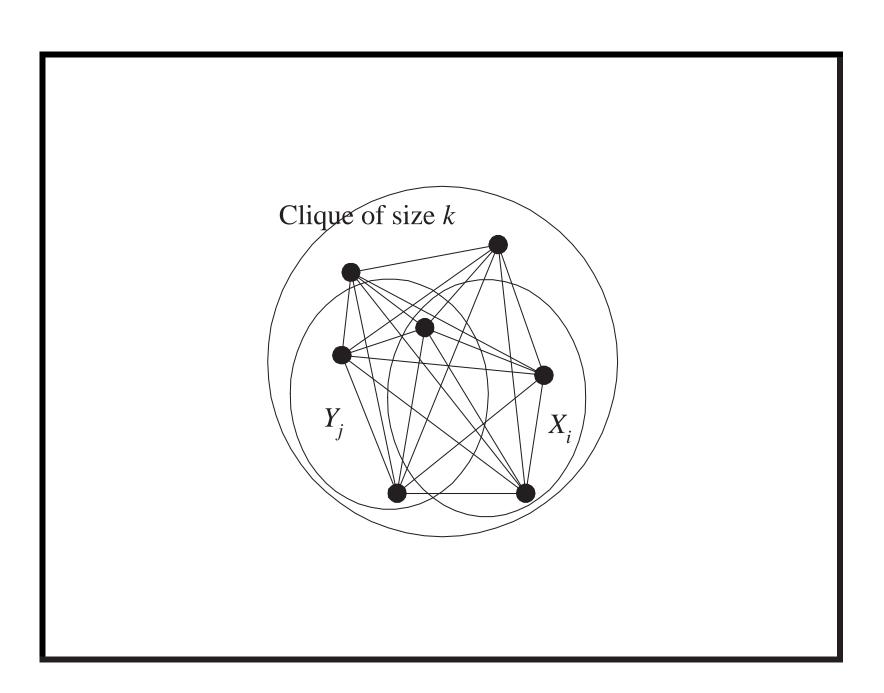
- $CC(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$  introduces no false positives over our negative examples.<sup>a</sup>
  - Suppose  $CC(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$  returns true.
  - Then some  $X_i \cup Y_j$  is a clique.
  - Thus  $X_i \in \mathcal{X}$  and  $Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}$  are cliques, making both  $\mathrm{CC}(\mathcal{X})$  and  $\mathrm{CC}(\mathcal{Y})$  return true.
  - So CC({ $X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}$ }) introduces no false positives.

<sup>a</sup>Unlike the OR case on p. 825, we are not claiming that  $CC(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$  is equivalent to the AND of  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  and  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$ . Equivalence is more than we need here.

## The Proof: AND (concluded)

- $CC(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$  introduces no false negatives over our positive examples.
  - Suppose both  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  and  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$  accept a positive example with a clique C of size k.
  - This clique  $\mathcal{C}$  must contain an  $X_i \in \mathcal{X}$  and a  $Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}$ .
  - As this clique C also contains  $X_i \cup Y_j$  (see next page), the new circuit returns true.
  - $CC(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$  introduces no false negatives.
- We next bound the number of false positives and false negatives introduced<sup>a</sup> by the approximate AND.

<sup>a</sup>Compared with CC({ $X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}$ }) of course.



### The Number of False Positives

**Lemma 90** The approximate AND introduces at most  $M^2 2^{-p} (k-1)^n$  false positives.

- We prove this claim in stages.
- We knew  $CC(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$  introduces no false positives.<sup>a</sup>
- $CC(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}, |X_i \cup Y_j| \le \ell\})$ introduces no *additional* false positives because we are testing potentially *fewer* sets for cliqueness.

<sup>a</sup>Recall p. 839.

### Proof of Lemma 90 (concluded)

- $| \{ X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}, | X_i \cup Y_j | \le \ell \} | \le M^2.$
- Each plucking reduces the number of sets by p-1.
- So pluck({  $X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}, |X_i \cup Y_j| \le \ell$  }) involves  $\le M^2/(p-1)$  pluckings.
- Each plucking introduces at most  $2^{-p}(k-1)^n$  false positives by the proof of Lemma 89 (p. 830).
- The desired upper bound is

$$[M^2/(p-1)] 2^{-p} (k-1)^n \le M^2 2^{-p} (k-1)^n.$$

## The Number of False Negatives

**Lemma 91** The approximate AND introduces at most  $M^2 \binom{n-\ell-1}{k-\ell-1}$  false negatives.

- We again prove this claim in stages.
- We knew  $CC(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$  introduces no false negatives.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Recall p. 839.

### Proof of Lemma 91 (continued)

- CC({  $X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}, |X_i \cup Y_j| \le \ell$  }) introduces  $\le M^2 \binom{n-\ell-1}{k-\ell-1}$  false negatives.
  - Deletion of set  $Z \stackrel{\Delta}{=} X_i \cup Y_j$  larger than  $\ell$  introduces false negatives only if Z is part of a clique.

- There are 
$$\binom{n-|Z|}{k-|Z|}$$
 such cliques.

\* It is the number of positive examples whose clique contains Z.

$$- \binom{n-|Z|}{k-|Z|} \le \binom{n-\ell-1}{k-\ell-1} \text{ as } |Z| > \ell.$$

- There are at most 
$$M^2$$
 such Zs.

# Proof of Lemma 91 (concluded)

- Plucking introduces no false negatives.
  - Recall that if  $CC(\mathcal{Z})$  is true, then  $CC(pluck(\mathcal{Z}))$ must be true.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Recall p. 826.

# Two Summarizing Lemmas

From Lemmas 89 (p. 830) and 90 (p. 842), we have:

**Lemma 92** Each approximation step introduces at most  $M^2 2^{-p} (k-1)^n$  false positives.

From Lemmas 88 (p. 829) and 91 (p. 844), we have:

**Lemma 93** Each approximation step introduces at most  $M^2\binom{n-\ell-1}{k-\ell-1}$  false negatives.

# The Proof (continued)

- So each approximation step introduces "few" false positives and false negatives.
- We next show that the resulting crude circuit has "a lot" of false positives or false negatives.

### The Final Crude Circuit

Lemma 94 Every final crude circuit is:

- 1. Identically false—thus wrong on all positive examples.
- 2. Or outputs true on at least half of the negative examples.
- Suppose it is not identically false.
- Then it accepts at least those graphs that have a clique on some set X of nodes, with

$$|X| \le \ell = n^{1/8} < n^{1/4} = k.$$

## Proof of Lemma 94 (concluded)

- Inequality (27) (p. 834) says that at least half of the colorings assign different colors to nodes in X.
- So at least half of the colorings thus negative examples have a clique in X and are accepted.

# The Proof (continued)

• Recall the constants on p. 822:

$$k \stackrel{\Delta}{=} n^{1/4},$$
  

$$\ell \stackrel{\Delta}{=} n^{1/8},$$
  

$$p \stackrel{\Delta}{=} n^{1/8} \log n,$$
  

$$M \stackrel{\Delta}{=} (p-1)^{\ell} \ell! < n^{(1/3)n^{1/8}} \text{ for large } n.$$

## The Proof (continued)

- Suppose the final crude circuit is identically false.
  - By Lemma 93 (p. 847), each approximation step introduces at most  $M^2 \binom{n-\ell-1}{k-\ell-1}$  false negatives.
  - There are  $\binom{n}{k}$  positive examples.
  - The original monotone circuit for  $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  has at least

$$\frac{\binom{n}{k}}{M^2\binom{n-\ell-1}{k-\ell-1}} \ge \frac{1}{M^2} \left(\frac{n-\ell}{k}\right)^\ell \ge n^{(1/12)n^{1/8}}$$

gates for large n.

### The Proof (concluded)

- Suppose the final crude circuit is not identically false.
  - Lemma 94 (p. 849) says that there are at least  $(k-1)^n/2$  false positives.
  - By Lemma 92 (p. 847), each approximation step introduces at most  $M^2 2^{-p} (k-1)^n$  false positives
  - The original monotone circuit for  $CLIQUE_{n,k}$  has at least

$$\frac{(k-1)^n/2}{M^2 2^{-p} (k-1)^n} = \frac{2^{p-1}}{M^2} \ge n^{(1/3)n^{1/8}}$$

gates.

# Alexander Razborov (1963–)



# $P \neq NP$ Proved?

- Razborov's theorem says that there is a monotone language in NP that has no polynomial monotone circuits.
- If we can prove that all monotone languages in P have polynomial monotone circuits, then  $P \neq NP$ .
- But Razborov proved in 1985 that some monotone languages in P have no polynomial monotone circuits!

# Computation That Counts

And though the holes were rather small, they had to count them all. — The Beatles, A Day in the Life (1967)

## Counting Problems

- Counting problems are concerned with the number of solutions.
  - #SAT: the number of satisfying truth assignments to a boolean formula.
  - #HAMILTONIAN PATH: the number of Hamiltonian paths in a graph.
- They cannot be easier than their decision versions.
  - The decision problem has a solution if and only if the solution count is at least 1.
- But they can be harder than their decision versions.

## **Decision and Counting Problems**

• FP is the set of polynomial-time computable functions  $f: \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{Z}.$ 

- GCD, LCM, matrix-matrix multiplication, etc.

- If #SAT  $\in$  FP, then P = NP.
  - Given boolean formula  $\phi$ , calculate its number of satisfying truth assignments, k, in polynomial time.

- Declare " $\phi \in SAT$ " if and only if  $k \ge 1$ .

• The validity of the reverse direction is open.

### A Counting Problem Harder than Its Decision Version

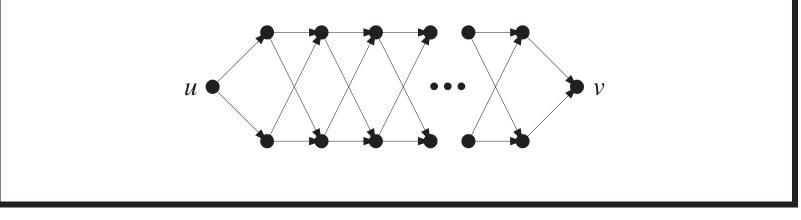
- CYCLE asks if a directed graph contains a cycle.<sup>a</sup>
- #CYCLE counts the number of cycles in a directed graph.
- CYCLE is in P by a simple greedy algorithm.
- But #CYCLE is hard unless P = NP.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>A cycle has no repeated nodes.

# Hardness of #CYCLE

**Theorem 95 (Arora, 2006)** If #CYCLE  $\in$  FP, then P = NP.

- It suffices to reduce the NP-complete HAMILTONIAN CYCLE to #CYCLE.
- Consider a *directed* graph G with n nodes.
- Define  $N \equiv \lfloor n \log_2(n+1) \rfloor$ .
- Replace each edge  $(u, v) \in G$  with this subgraph:



### The Proof (continued)

- This subgraph has N + 1 levels.
- There are now  $2^N$  paths from u to v.
- Call the resulting digraph G'.
- Recall that a Hamiltonian cycle on G contains n edges.
- To each Hamiltonian cycle on G, there correspond  $(2^N)^n = 2^{nN}$  cycles (not necessarily Hamiltonian) on G'.
- So if G contains a Hamiltonian cycle, then G' contains at least  $2^{nN}$  cycles.

### The Proof (continued)

- Now suppose G contains no Hamiltonian cycles.
- Then every cycle on G contains at most n-1 nodes.
- There are hence at most  $n^{n-1}$  cycles on G.
- Each k-node cycle on G induces  $(2^N)^k$  cycles on G'.
- So G' contains at most  $n^{n-1}(2^N)^{n-1}$  cycles.
- As  $n \ge 1$ ,

$$n^{n-1} (2^N)^{n-1} = 2^{nN} \frac{n^{n-1}}{2^N} \le 2^{nN} \frac{n^{n-1}}{2^{n\log_2(n+1)-1}}$$
$$= 2^{nN} \frac{2n^{n-1}}{(n+1)^n} \le 2^{nN} \frac{2}{n+1} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{n-1} < 2^{nN}.$$

# The Proof (concluded)

- In summary,  $G \in$  HAMILTONIAN CYCLE if and only if G' contains at least  $2^{nN}$  cycles.
- G' contains at most  $n^n 2^{nN}$  cycles.
  - Every cycle on G' is associated with a unique cycle on G.
  - Every k-cycle on G induces  $(2^N)^k \leq 2^{nN}$  cycles on G'.
  - There are at most  $n^n$  cycles in G.
- This number has a polynomial length  $O(n^2 \log n)$ .
- Hence Hamiltonian cycle  $\in P$ .

# Counting Class #P

A function f is in #P (or  $f \in \#P$ ) if

- There exists a polynomial-time NTM M.
- M(x) has f(x) accepting paths for all inputs x.

### Some *#P* Problems

- $f(\phi) =$  number of satisfying truth assignments to  $\phi$ .
  - The desired NTM guesses a truth assignment T and accepts  $\phi$  if and only if  $T \models \phi$ .
  - Hence  $f \in \#P$ .
  - f is also called #SAT.
- #HAMILTONIAN PATH.
- #3-COLORING.

## #P Completeness

- Function f is #P-complete if
  - $-f \in \#\mathbf{P}.$
  - $\ \#\mathbf{P} \subseteq \mathbf{F}\mathbf{P}^f.$ 
    - \* Every function in #P can be computed in polynomial time with access to a black box<sup>a</sup> for f.
      - · It said to be polynomial-time Turing-reducible to f.
  - Oracle f can be accessed only a polynomial number of times.

<sup>a</sup>Think of it as a subroutine. It is also called an **oracle**.

### $\# {\rm SAT}$ Is $\# P\text{-Complete}^{\rm a}$

- First, it is in #P (p. 866).
- Let f ∈ #P compute the number of accepting paths of M.
- Cook's theorem uses a **parsimonious** reduction from M on input x to an instance  $\phi$  of SAT.
  - That is, M(x)'s number of accepting paths equals  $\phi$ 's number of satisfying truth assignments.
- Call the oracle #SAT with  $\phi$  to obtain the desired answer regarding f(x).

<sup>a</sup>Valiant (1979); in fact, #2SAT is also #P-complete.

### Leslie G. Valiant<sup>a</sup> (1949–)

Avi Wigderson (2009), "Les Valiant singlehandedly created, or completely transformed, several fundamental research areas of computer science. [...] We all became addicted to this remarkable throughput, and expect more."



<sup>a</sup>Turing Award (2010).