

Alexander Razborov (1963–)



The Proof

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

$$2 \binom{\ell}{2} \leq k - 1.$$

- p will be fixed later to be $n^{1/8} \log n$.
- Fix $M = (p - 1)^\ell \ell!$.
 - Recall the Erdős-Rado lemma (p. 704).

^aCorrected by Mr. Moustapha Bande (D98922042) on January 05, 2010.

The Proof (continued)

- Each crude circuit used in the approximation process is of the form $CC(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m)$, where:
 - $X_i \subseteq V$.
 - $|X_i| \leq \ell$.
 - $m \leq M$.
- It answers true if any X_i is a clique.
- We shall show how to approximate any 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)

- Any monotone circuit can be considered the OR or AND of two subcircuits.
- We shall show how to build approximators of the overall circuit from the approximators of the two subcircuits.
 - We are given 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 ℓ nodes.
 - We construct the approximate OR and the approximate AND of these subcircuits.
 - Then show both approximations introduce few errors.

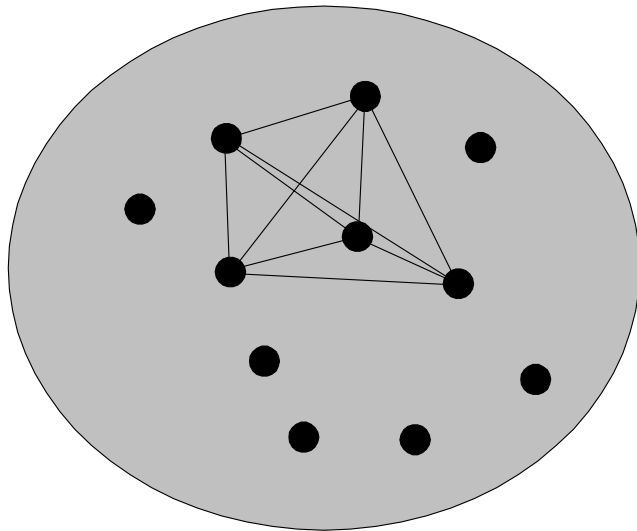
The Proof: Positive Examples

- Error analysis will be applied to only **positive examples** and **negative examples**.
- 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.
- They all should elicit a true output from $\text{CLIQUE}_{n,k}$.

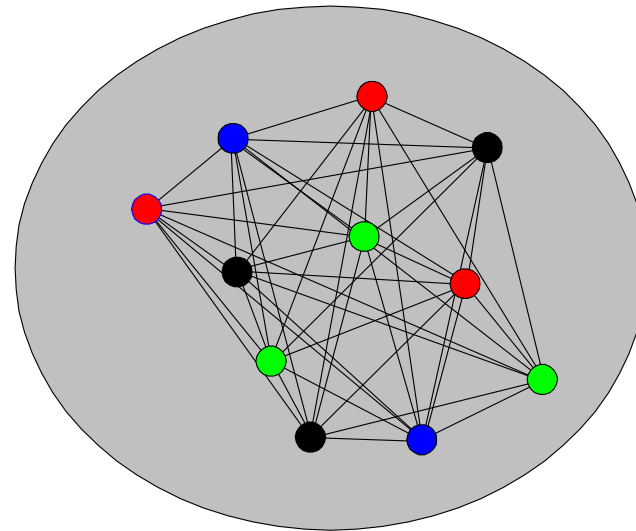
The Proof: Negative Examples

- 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.
- They all should elicit a false output from $\text{CLIQUE}_{n,k}$.
 - Each set of k nodes must have 2 identically colored nodes; hence there is no edge between them.

Positive and Negative Examples with $k = 5$



A positive example



A negative example

The Proof: OR

- $CC(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y})$ is *equivalent* to the OR of $CC(\mathcal{X})$ and $CC(\mathcal{Y})$.
- Violations occur when $|\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}| > M$.
- Such violations can be eliminated by using

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

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

- Note that if $CC(\mathcal{Z})$ is true, then $CC(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{Z}))$ must be true (recall p. 702).
- We now count the number of errors this approximate OR makes on the positive and negative examples.

The Proof: OR (concluded)

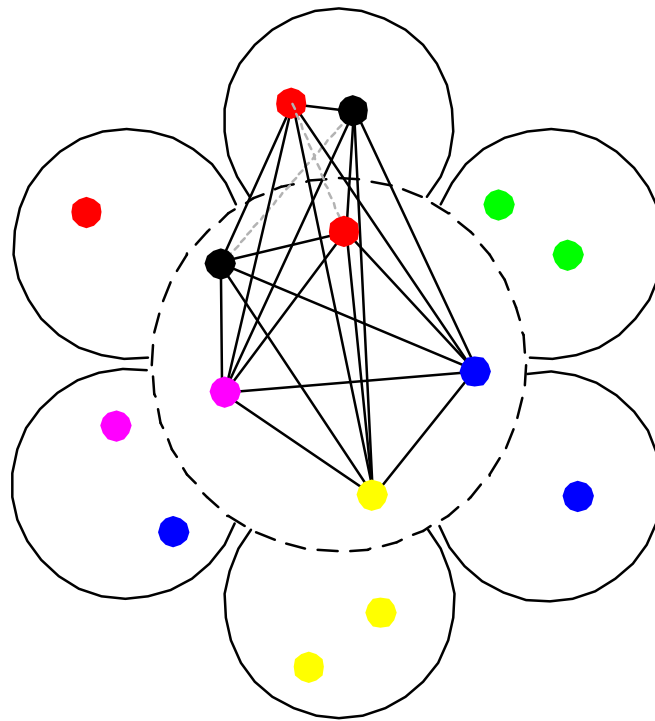
- $CC(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$ *introduces* a **false positive** if a negative example makes both $CC(\mathcal{X})$ and $CC(\mathcal{Y})$ return false but makes $CC(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$ return true.
- $CC(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$ *introduces* a **false negative** if a positive example makes either $CC(\mathcal{X})$ or $CC(\mathcal{Y})$ return true but makes $CC(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$ return false.
- How many false positives and false negatives are introduced by $CC(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$?

The Number of False Positives

Lemma 88 $\text{CC}(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$ introduces at most $\frac{M}{p-1} 2^{-p} (k-1)^n$ false positives.

- A plucking replaces the sunflower $\{Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_p\}$ with its 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 both crude circuits return false).
 - But the core contains distinctly colored nodes.
 - * This implies at least one node from each same-color pair was plucked away.
- We now count the number of such colorings.

Proof of Lemma 88 (continued)



Proof of Lemma 88 (continued)

- Color nodes V at random with $k - 1$ colors and let $R(X)$ denote the event that there are repeated colors in set X .
- Now $\text{prob}[R(Z_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge R(Z_p) \wedge \neg R(Z)]$ is at most

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{prob}[R(Z_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge R(Z_p) | \neg R(Z)] \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^p \text{prob}[R(Z_i) | \neg R(Z)] \leq \prod_{i=1}^p \text{prob}[R(Z_i)]. \quad (12) \end{aligned}$$

- First equality holds because $R(Z_i)$ are independent given $\neg R(Z)$ as Z contains their only common nodes.
- Last inequality holds as the likelihood of repetitions in Z_i decreases given no repetitions in $Z \subseteq Z_i$.

Proof of Lemma 88 (continued)

- Consider two nodes in Z_i .
- The probability that they have identical color is $\frac{1}{k-1}$.
- Now $\text{prob}[R(Z_i)] \leq \frac{\binom{|Z_i|}{2}}{k-1} \leq \frac{\binom{\ell}{2}}{k-1} \leq \frac{1}{2}$.
- So the probability^a that a random coloring is a new false positive is at most 2^{-p} by inequality (12).
- As there are $(k-1)^n$ different colorings, each plucking introduces at most $2^{-p}(k-1)^n$ false positives.

^aProportion, i.e.

Proof of Lemma 88 (concluded)

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

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

false positives are introduced.^a

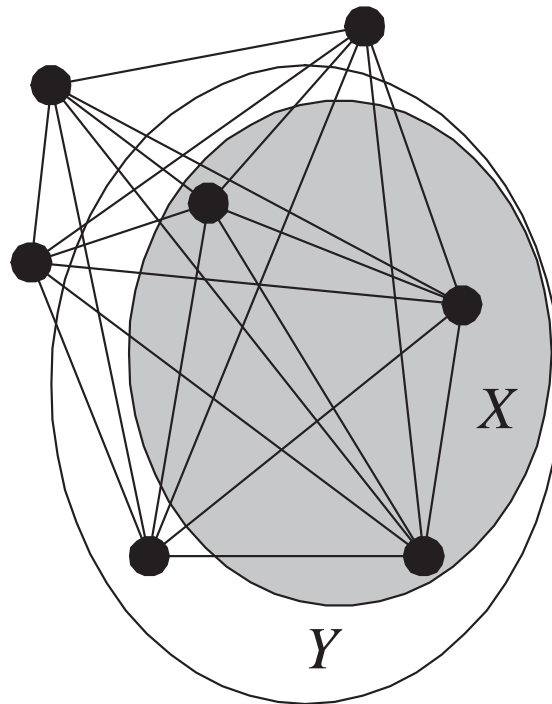
^aNote that the numbers of errors are added not multiplied. Recall that we count how many *new* errors are introduced by each approximation step. Contributed by Mr. Ren-Shuo Liu (D98922016) on January 5, 2010.

The Number of False Negatives

Lemma 89 $\text{CC}(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$ *introduces no false negatives.*

- Each plucking replaces a set in a crude circuit by a subset.
- This makes the test less stringent.
 - For each $Y \in \mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}$, there must exist at least one $X \in \text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y})$ such that $X \subseteq Y$.
 - So if Y is a clique, then this X is also a clique.
- So plucking can only increase the number of accepted graphs.

The Number of False Negatives (concluded)



The Proof: AND

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

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

- Note that if $CC(\mathcal{Z})$ is true, then $CC(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{Z}))$ must be true.
- We now count the number of errors this approximate AND makes on the positive and negative examples.

The Proof: AND (concluded)

- 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.
- How many false positives and false negatives are introduced by the approximate AND?

The Number of False Positives

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

- $\text{CC}(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$ introduces no false positives.
 - If $X_i \cup Y_j$ is a clique, both X_i and Y_j must be cliques, making both $\text{CC}(\mathcal{X})$ and $\text{CC}(\mathcal{Y})$ return true.
- $\text{CC}(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}, |X_i \cup Y_j| \leq \ell\})$ introduces no false positives as we are testing fewer sets for cliques.

Proof of Lemma 90 (concluded)

- $|\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}, |X_i \cup Y_j| \leq \ell\}| \leq M^2$.
- Each plucking reduces the number of sets by $p - 1$.
- So $\text{pluck}(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}, |X_i \cup Y_j| \leq \ell\})$ involves $\leq M^2/(p - 1)$ pluckings.
- Each plucking introduces at most $2^{-p}(k - 1)^n$ false positives by the proof of Lemma 88 (p. 719).
- The desired upper bound is

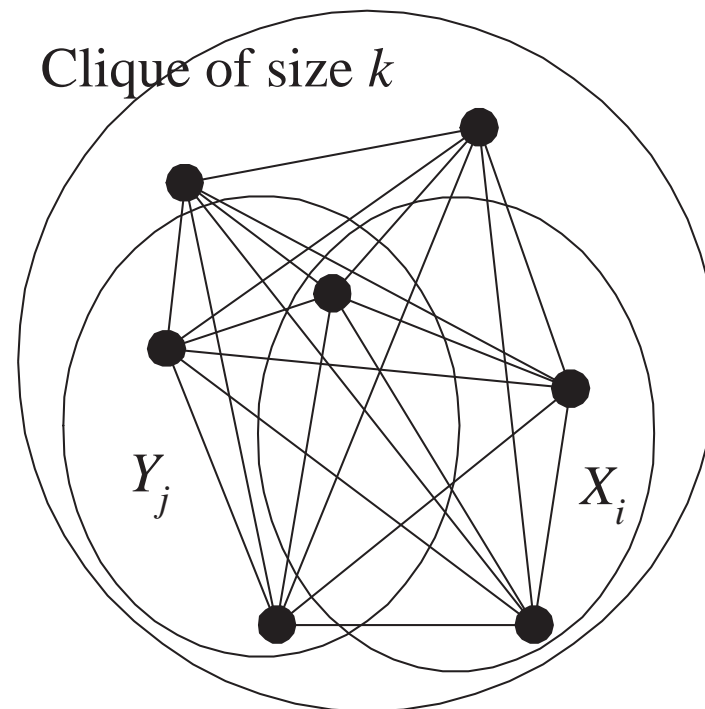
$$\lceil M^2/(p - 1) \rceil 2^{-p}(k - 1)^n \leq M^2 2^{-p}(k - 1)^n.$$

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 follow the same three-step proof as before.
- $\text{CC}(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$ introduces no false negatives.
 - Suppose both $\text{CC}(\mathcal{X})$ and $\text{CC}(\mathcal{Y})$ accept a positive example with a clique of size k .
 - This clique must contain an $X_i \in \mathcal{X}$ and a $Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}$.
 - * This is why both $\text{CC}(\mathcal{X})$ and $\text{CC}(\mathcal{Y})$ return true.
 - As the clique contains $X_i \cup Y_j$, the new circuit returns true.

Proof of Lemma 91 (continued)



Proof of Lemma 91 (concluded)

- $\text{CC}(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}, |X_i \cup Y_j| \leq \ell\})$ introduces $\leq M^2 \binom{n-\ell-1}{k-\ell-1}$ false negatives.
 - Deletion of set $Z = X_i \cup Y_j$ larger than ℓ introduces false negatives *only if* the clique contains Z .
 - There are $\binom{n-|Z|}{k-|Z|}$ such cliques.
 - * It is the number of positive examples whose clique contains Z .
 - $\binom{n-|Z|}{k-|Z|} \leq \binom{n-\ell-1}{k-\ell-1}$ as $|Z| > \ell$.
 - There are at most M^2 such Z s.
- Plucking introduces no false negatives.

Two Summarizing Lemmas

From Lemmas 88 (p. 719) and 90 (p. 728), we have:

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

From Lemmas 89 (p. 724) and 91 (p. 730), we have:

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

The Proof (continued)

- The above two lemmas show that 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.
 - By construction, it accepts at least those graphs that have a clique on some set X of nodes, with $|X| \leq \ell$, which at $n^{1/8}$ is less than $k = n^{1/4}$.
 - The proof of Lemma 88 (p. 719ff) shows that at least half of the colorings assign different colors to nodes in X .
 - So half of the negative examples have a clique in X and are accepted.

The Proof (continued)

- Recall the constants on p. 711: $k = n^{1/4}$, $\ell = n^{1/8}$,
 $p = n^{1/8} \log n$, $M = (p - 1)^\ell \ell! < n^{(1/3)n^{1/8}}$ for large n .
- Suppose the final crude circuit is identically false.
 - By Lemma 93 (p. 733), 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 crude circuit for $\text{CLIQUE}_{n,k}$ has at least

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

gates for large n .

The Proof (concluded)

- Suppose the final crude circuit is not identically false.
 - Lemma 94 (p. 735) says that there are at least $(k - 1)^n / 2$ false positives.
 - By Lemma 92 (p. 733), each approximation step introduces at most $M^2 2^{-p} (k - 1)^n$ false positives.
 - The original crude circuit for $\text{CLIQUE}_{n,k}$ has at least

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

gates.

$P \neq NP$ 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

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 larger than 0.
- But they can be harder than their decision versions.

Decision and Counting Problems

- FP is the set of polynomial-time computable functions $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$.
 - GCD, LCM, matrix-matrix multiplication, etc.
- If $\#\text{SAT} \in \text{FP}$, then $\text{P} = \text{NP}$.
 - Given boolean formula ϕ , calculate its number of satisfying truth assignments, k , in polynomial time.
 - Declare “ $\phi \in \text{SAT}$ ” if and only if $k \geq 1$.
- 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.
- #CYCLE counts the number of cycles in a directed graph.
- CYCLE is in P by a simple greedy algorithm.
- But #CYCLE is hard unless $P = NP$.

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 .
- $f(x) =$ number of accepting paths of $M(x)$.

Some #P Problems

- $f(\phi)$ = number of satisfying truth assignments to ϕ .
 - The desired NTM guesses a truth assignment T and accepts ϕ 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
 - $f \in \#P$.
 - $\#P \subseteq FP^f$.
 - * Every function in #P can be computed in polynomial time with access to a black box^a or **oracle** for f .
 - Of course, oracle f will be accessed only a polynomial number of times.
 - #P is said to be **polynomial-time Turing-reducible to f** .

^aThink of it as a subroutine

#SAT Is #P-Complete^a

- First, it is in #P (p. 744).
- Let $f \in \#P$ compute the number of accepting paths of M .
- Cook's theorem uses a *parsimonious* reduction from M on input x to an instance ϕ of SAT (p. 273).
 - Hence the number of accepting paths of $M(x)$ equals the number of satisfying truth assignments to ϕ .
- Call the oracle #SAT with ϕ to obtain the desired answer regarding $f(x)$.

^aValiant (1979); in fact, #2SAT is also #P-complete.

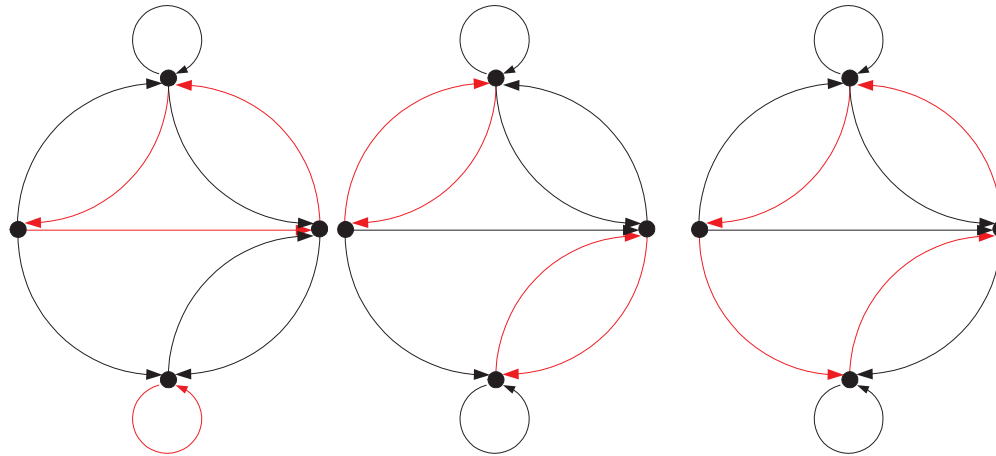
Leslie G. Valiant (1949–)

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.”



CYCLE COVER

- A set of node-disjoint cycles that cover all nodes in a directed graph is called a **cycle cover**.



- There are 3 cycle covers (in red) above.

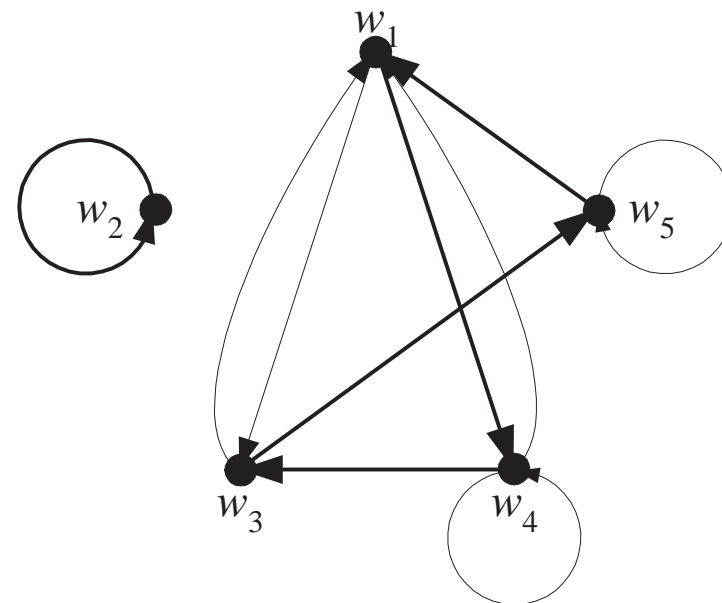
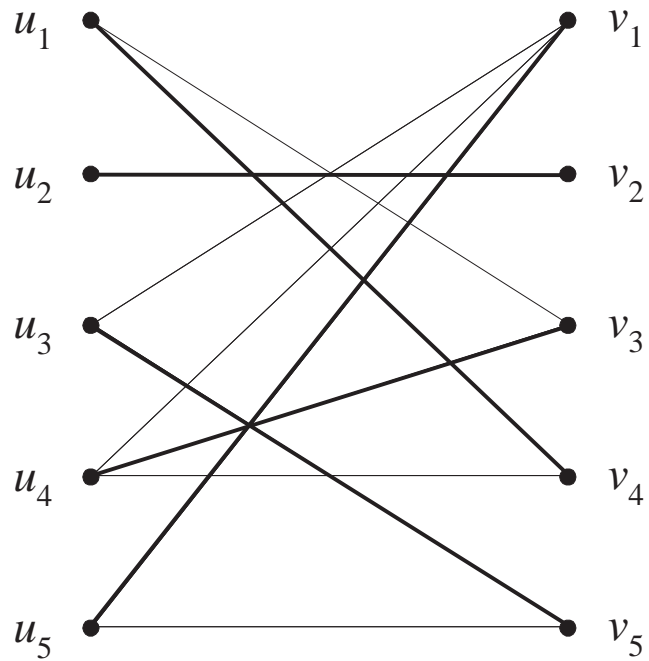
CYCLE COVER and BIPARTITE PERFECT MATCHING

Proposition 95 CYCLE COVER *and* BIPARTITE PERFECT MATCHING (p. 440) are parsimoniously reducible to each other.

- A polynomial-time algorithm creates a bipartite graph G' from any directed graph G .
- Moreover, the number cycle covers for G equals the number of bipartite perfect matchings for G' .
- And vice versa.

Corollary 96 CYCLE COVER $\in P$.

Illustration of the Proof



Permanent

- The **permanent** of an $n \times n$ integer matrix A is

$$\text{perm}(A) = \sum_{\pi} \prod_{i=1}^n A_{i,\pi(i)}.$$

- π ranges over all permutations of n elements.
- 0/1 PERMANENT computes the permanent of a 0/1 (binary) matrix.
 - The permanent of a binary matrix is at most $n!$.
- Simpler than determinant (5) on p. 443: no signs.
- Surprisingly, much harder to compute than determinant!

Permanent and Counting Perfect Matchings

- BIPARTITE PERFECT MATCHING is related to determinant (p. 444).
- #BIPARTITE PERFECT MATCHING is related to permanent.

Proposition 97 $0/1$ PERMANENT *and* BIPARTITE PERFECT MATCHING *are parsimoniously reducible to each other.*

The Proof

- Given a bipartite graph G , construct an $n \times n$ binary matrix A .
 - The (i, j) th entry A_{ij} is 1 if $(i, j) \in E$ and 0 otherwise.
- Then $\text{perm}(A) = \text{number of perfect matchings in } G$.

Illustration of the Proof Based on p. 750 (Left)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & \boxed{1} & 0 \\ 0 & \boxed{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \boxed{1} \\ 1 & 0 & \boxed{1} & 1 & 0 \\ \boxed{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} .$$

- $\text{perm}(A) = 4$.
- The permutation corresponding to the perfect matching on p. 750 is marked.

Permanent and Counting Cycle Covers

Proposition 98 *0/1 PERMANENT and CYCLE COVER are parsimoniously reducible to each other.*

- Let A be the adjacency matrix of the graph on p. 750 (right).
- Then $\text{perm}(A) = \text{number of cycle covers}$.

Three Parsimoniously Equivalent Problems

We summarize Propositions 95 (p. 749) and 97 (p. 752) in the following.

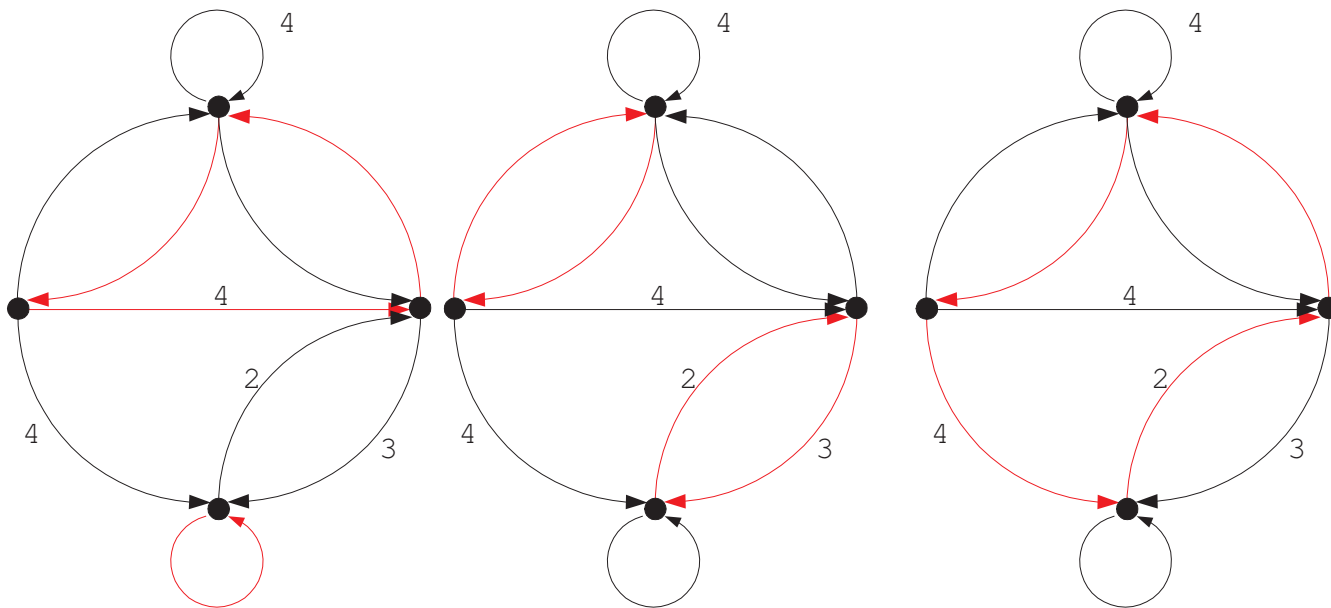
Lemma 99 0/1 PERMANENT, BIPARTITE PERFECT MATCHING, *and* CYCLE COVER *are* **parsimoniously equivalent**.

We will show that the counting versions of all three problems are in fact #P-complete.

WEIGHTED CYCLE COVER

- Consider a directed graph G with integer weights on the edges.
- The weight of a cycle cover is the product of its edge weights.
- The **cycle count** of G is sum of the weights of all cycle covers.
 - Let A be G 's adjacency matrix but $A_{ij} = w_i$ if the edge (i, j) has weight w_i .
 - Then $\text{perm}(A) = G$'s cycle count (same proof as Proposition 98 on p. 755).
- $\#$ CYCLE COVER is a special case: All weights are 1.

An Example^a



There are 3 cycle covers, and the cycle count is

$$(4 \cdot 1 \cdot 1) \cdot (1) + (1 \cdot 1) \cdot (2 \cdot 3) + (4 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot 1) = 18.$$

^aEach edge has weight 1 unless stated otherwise.

Three #P-Complete Counting Problems

Theorem 100 (Valiant (1979)) 0/1 PERMANENT, #BIPARTITE PERFECT MATCHING, *and* #CYCLE COVER *are* #P-complete.

- By Lemma 99 (p. 756), it suffices to prove that #CYCLE COVER is #P-complete.
- #SAT is #P-complete (p. 746).
- #3SAT is #P-complete because it and #SAT are parsimoniously equivalent (p. 277).
- We shall prove that #3SAT is polynomial-time Turing-reducible to #CYCLE COVER.

The Proof (continued)

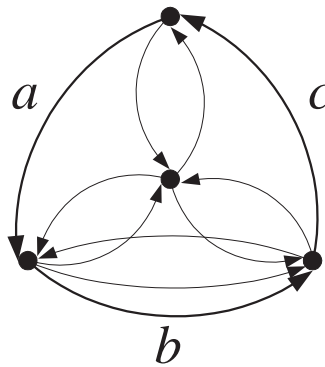
- Let ϕ be the given 3SAT formula.
 - It contains n variables and m clauses (hence $3m$ literals).
 - It has $\#\phi$ satisfying truth assignments.
- First we construct a *weighted* directed graph H with cycle count

$$\#H = 4^{3m} \times \#\phi.$$

- Then we construct an unweighted directed graph G .
- We make sure $\#H$ (hence $\#\phi$) is polynomial-time Turing-reducible to G 's number of cycle covers (denoted $\#G$).

The Proof: the Clause Gadget (continued)

- Each clause is associated with a **clause gadget**.



- Each edge has weight 1 unless stated otherwise.
- Each bold edge corresponds to one literal in the clause.
- There are not *parallel* lines as bold edges are schematic only (preview p. 774).

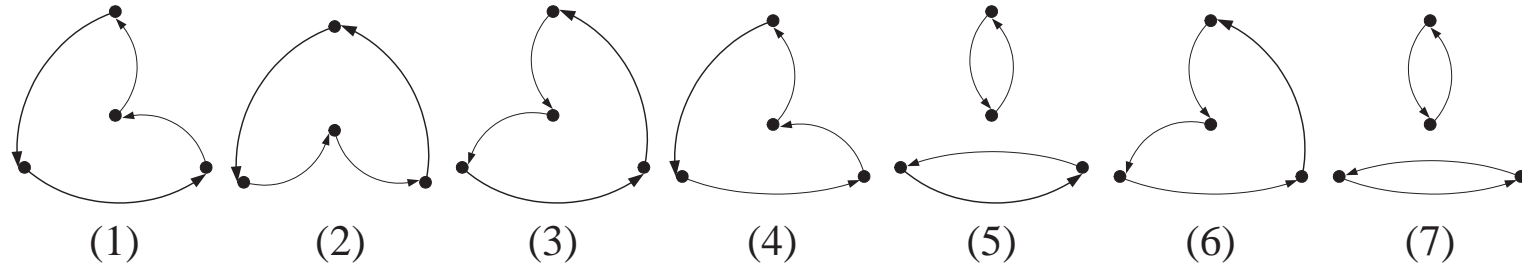
The Proof: the Clause Gadget (continued)

- Following a bold edge means making the literal false (0).
- A cycle cover cannot select *all* 3 bold edges.
 - The interior node would be missing.
- Every proper nonempty subset of bold edges corresponds to a unique cycle cover of weight 1 (see next page).

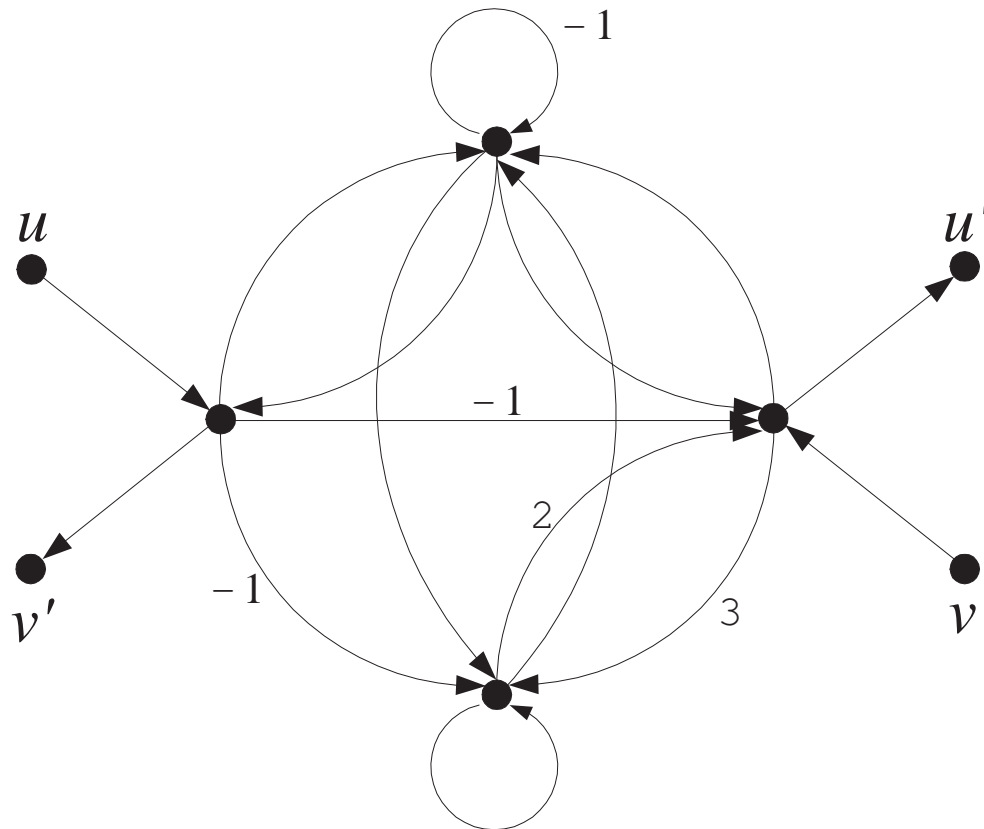
The Proof: the Clause Gadget (continued)

7 possible cycle covers, one for each satisfying assignment:

(1) $a = 0, b = 0, c = 1$, (2) $a = 0, b = 1, c = 0$, etc.

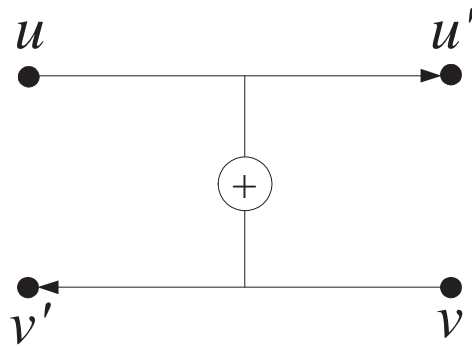


The Proof: the XOR Gadget (continued)



The Proof: Properties of the XOR Gadget (continued)

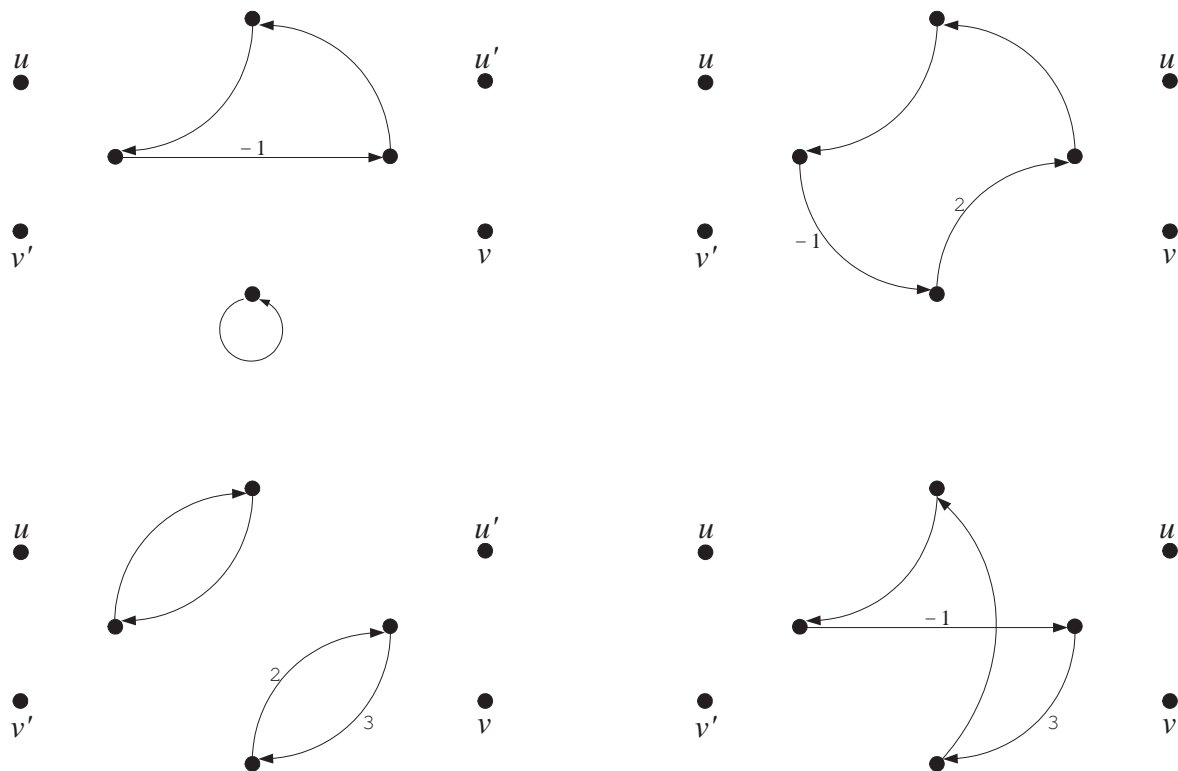
- The XOR gadget schema:



- *At most one* of the 2 schematic edges will be included in a cycle cover.
- There will be $3m$ XOR gadgets, one for each literal.

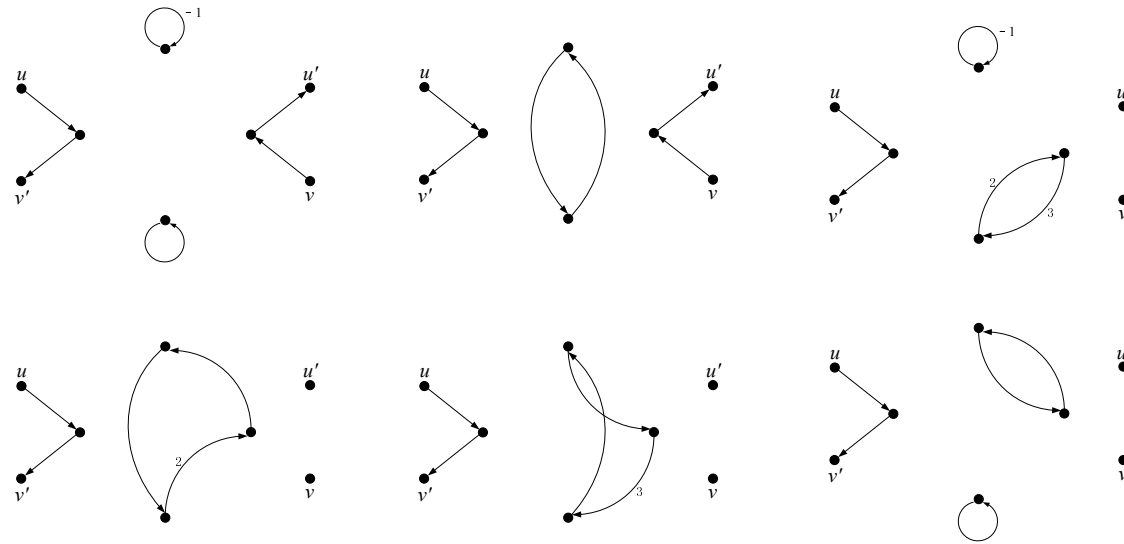
The Proof: Properties of the XOR Gadget (continued)

Total weight of $-1 - 2 + 6 - 3 = 0$ for cycle covers not entering or leaving it.



The Proof: Properties of the XOR Gadget (continued)

- Total weight of $-1 + 1 - 6 + 2 + 3 + 1 = 0$ for cycle covers entering at u and leaving at v' .^a

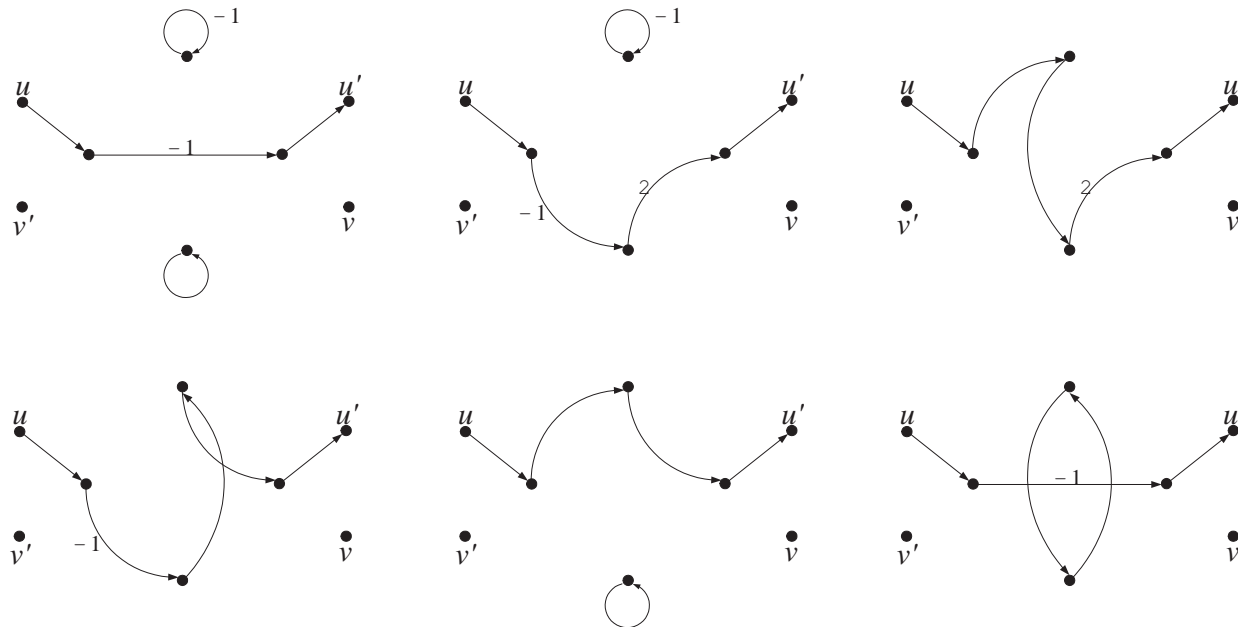


- Same for cycle covers entering at v and leaving at u' .

^aCorrected by Mr. Yu-Tsung Dai (B91201046) and Mr. Che-Wei Chang (R95922093) on December 27, 2006.

The Proof: Properties of the XOR Gadget (continued)

- Total weight of $1 + 2 + 2 - 1 + 1 - 1 = 4$ for cycle covers entering at u and leaving at u' .



- Same for cycle covers entering at v and leaving at v' .

The Proof: Summary (continued)

- Cycle covers not entering *all* of the XOR gadgets contribute 0 to the cycle count.
 - Let x denote an XOR gadget not entered for a cycle cover c .
 - Now, the said cycle covers' total contribution is

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{\text{cycle cover } c \text{ for } H} \text{weight}(c) \\ &= \sum_{\text{cycle cover } c \text{ for } H - x} \text{weight}(c) - \sum_{\text{cycle cover } c \text{ for } x} \text{weight}(c) \\ &= \sum_{\text{cycle cover } c \text{ for } H - x} \text{weight}(c) \cdot 0 \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

The Proof: Summary (continued)

- Cycle covers entering *any* of the XOR gadgets and leaving illegally contribute 0 to the cycle count.
- For every XOR gadget entered and exited legally, the total weight of a cycle cover is multiplied by 4.
 - With an XOR gadget x entered and exited legally fixed,

contributions of such cycle covers to the cycle count

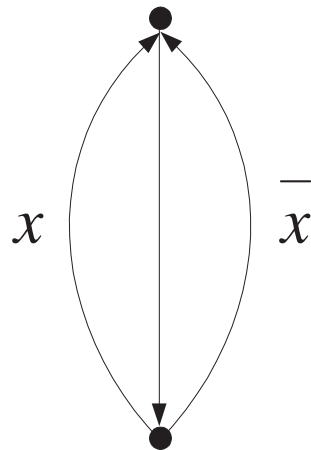
$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{\text{cycle cover } c \text{ for } H} \text{weight}(c) \\ = & \sum_{\text{cycle cover } c \text{ for } H - x} \text{weight}(c) \sum_{\text{cycle cover } c \text{ for } x} \text{weight}(c) \\ = & \sum_{\text{cycle cover } c \text{ for } H - x} \text{weight}(c) \cdot 4. \end{aligned}$$

The Proof: Summary (continued)

- Hereafter we consider only cycle covers which enter every XOR gadget and leaves it legally.
 - Only these cycle covers contribute nonzero weights to the cycle count.
- They are said to **respect** the XOR gadgets.

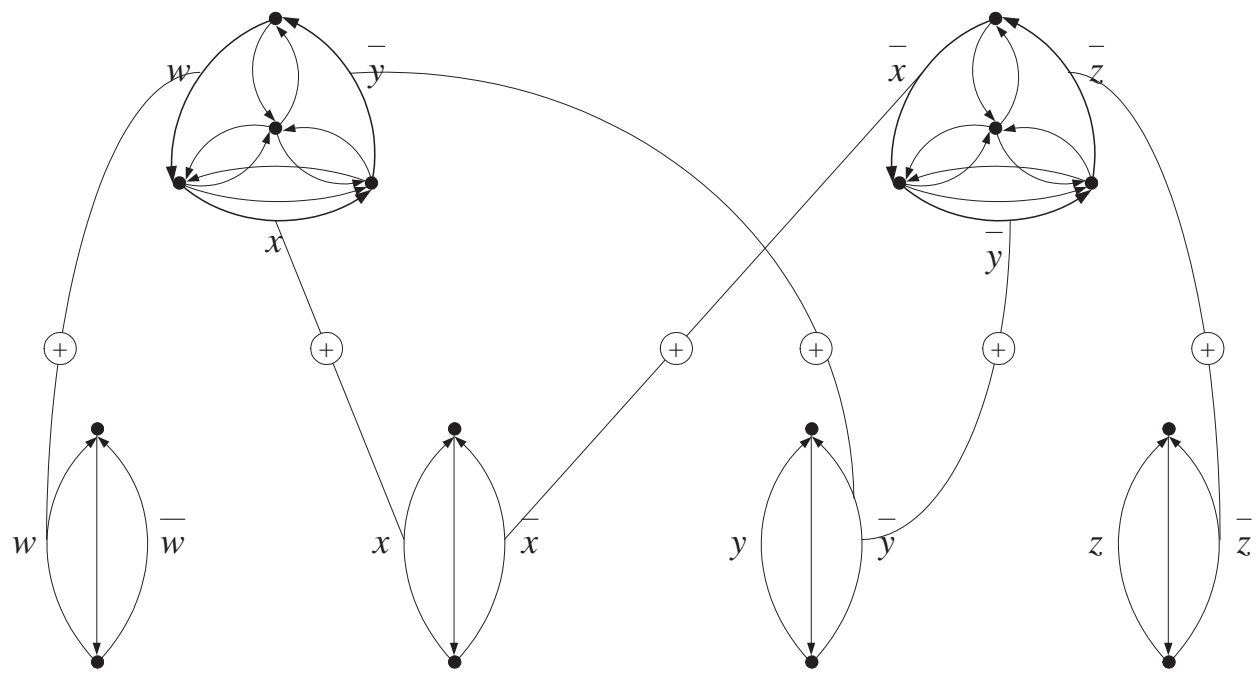
The Proof: the Choice Gadget (continued)

- One choice gadget (a schema) for each variable.

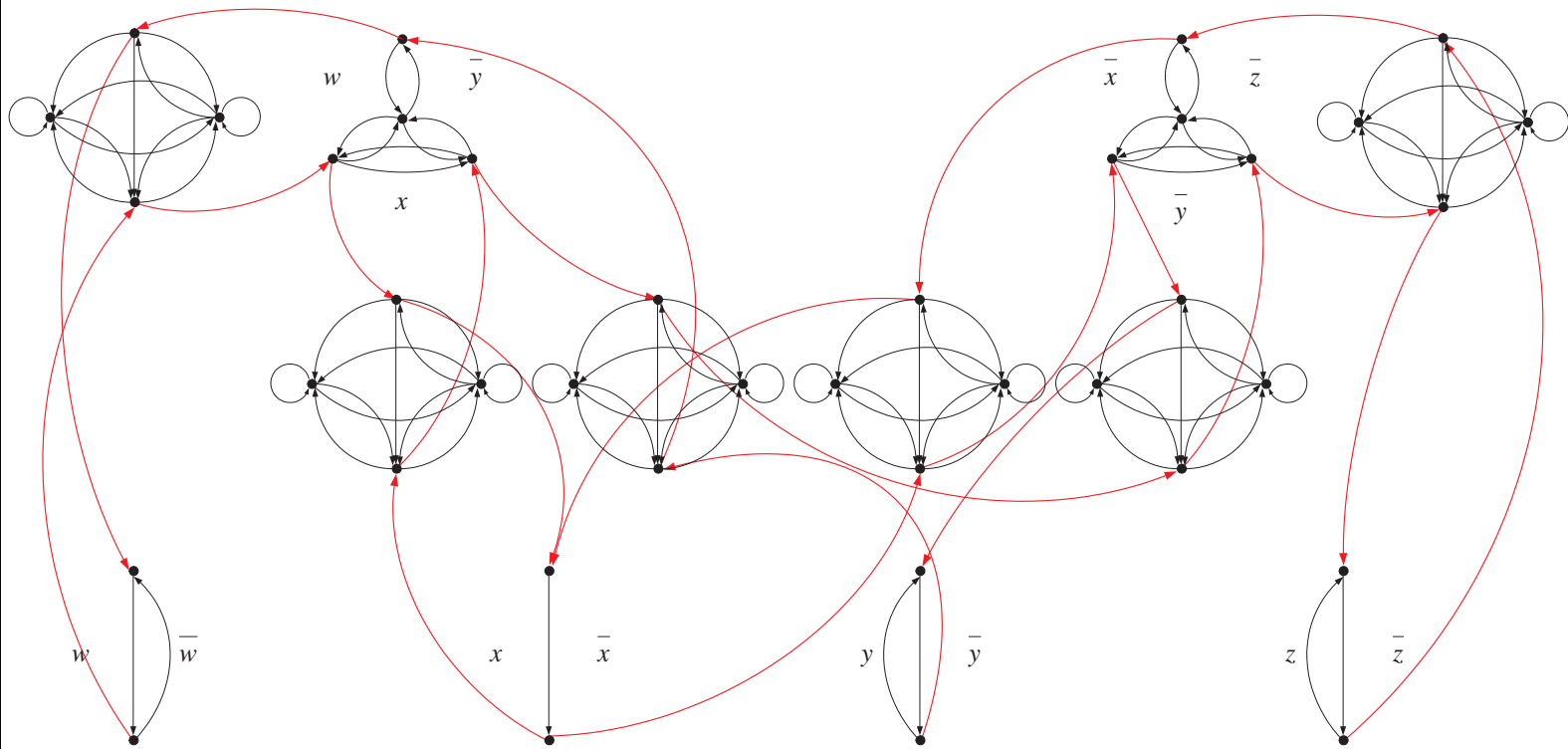


- It gives the truth assignment for the variable.
- Use it with the XOR gadget to enforce consistency.

Schema for $(w \vee x \vee \bar{y}) \wedge (\bar{x} \vee \bar{y} \vee \bar{z})$



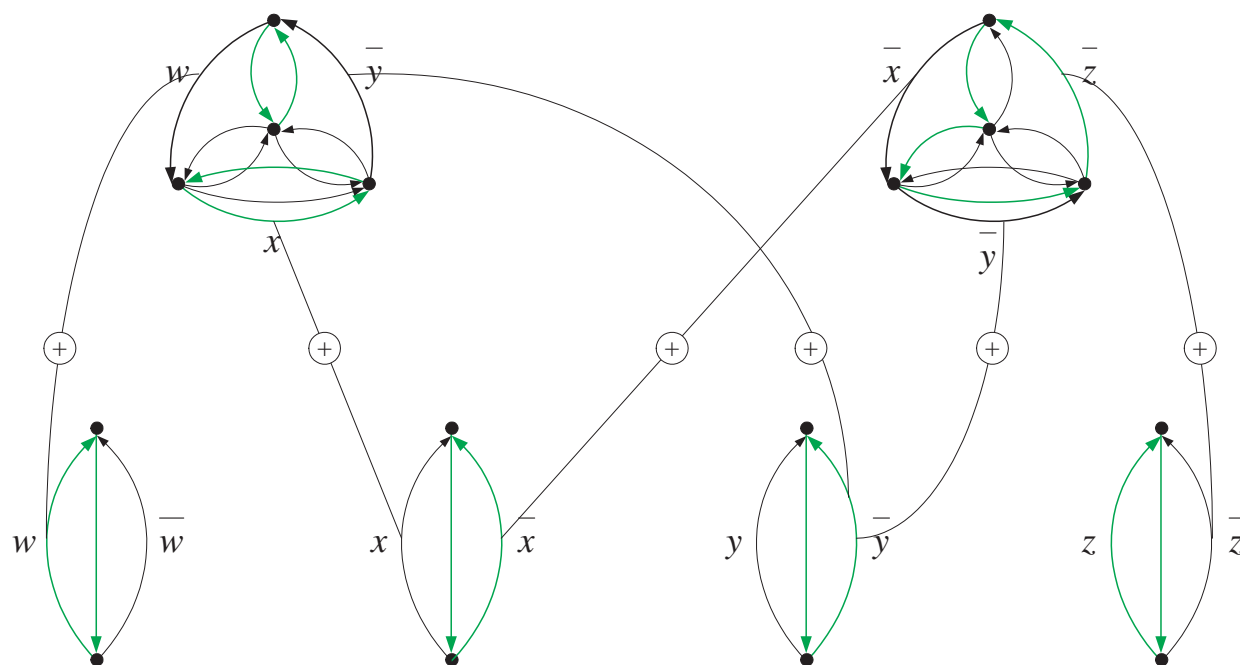
Full Graph $(w \vee x \vee \bar{y}) \wedge (\bar{x} \vee \bar{y} \vee \bar{z})$



The Proof: a Key Observation (continued)

Each satisfying truth assignment to ϕ corresponds to a schematic cycle cover that respects the XOR gadgets.

$w = 1, x = 0, y = 0, z = 1 \Leftrightarrow$ One Cycle Cover



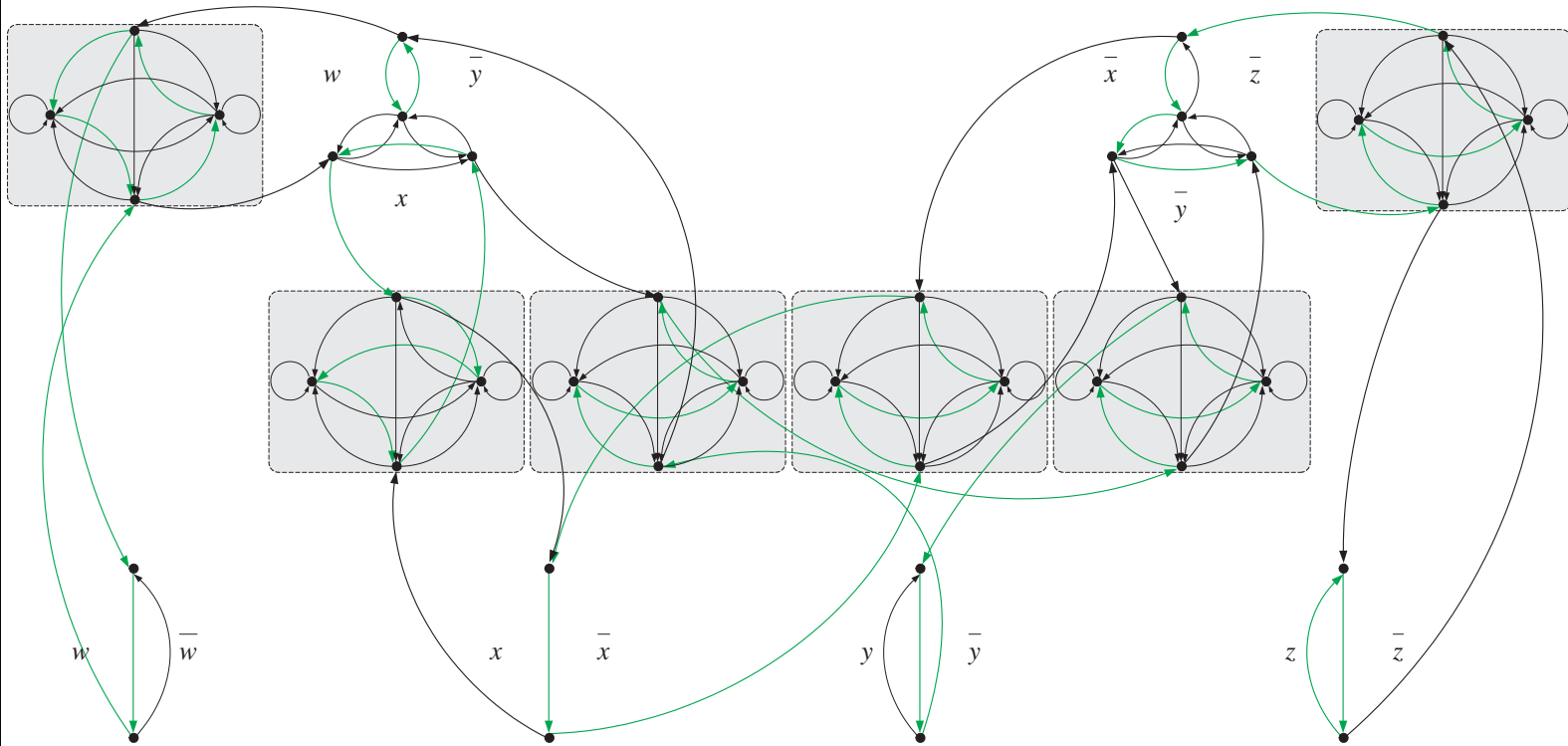
The Proof: a Key Corollary (continued)

- Recall that there are $3m$ XOR gadgets.
- Each satisfying truth assignment to ϕ contributes 4^{3m} to the cycle count $\#H$.
- Hence

$$\#H = 4^{3m} \times \#\phi,$$

as desired.

" $w = 1, x = 0, y = 0, z = 1$ " Adds 4^6 to Cycle Count



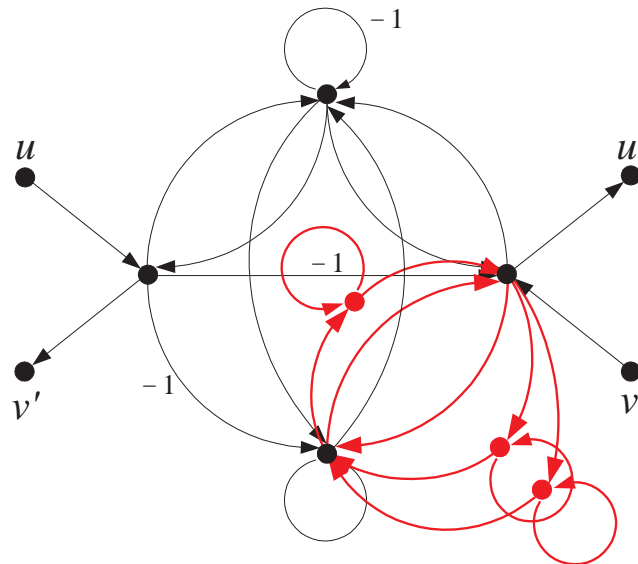
The Proof (continued)

- We are almost done.
- The weighted directed graph H needs to be *efficiently* replaced by some unweighted graph G .
- Furthermore, knowing $\#G$ should enable us to calculate $\#H$ *efficiently*.
 - This done, $\#\phi$ will have been Turing-reducible to $\#G$.^a
- We proceed to construct this graph G .

^aBy way of $\#H$ of course.

The Proof: Construction of G (continued)

- Replace edges with weights 2 and 3 as follows (note that the graph cannot have parallel edges):



- The cycle count $\#H$ remains *unchanged*.

The Proof: Construction of G (continued)

- We move on to edges with weight -1 .
- First, we count the number of nodes, M .
- Each clause gadget contains 4 nodes (p. 761), and there are m of them (one per clause).
- Each revised XOR gadget contains 7 nodes (p. 780), and there are $3m$ of them (one per literal).
- Each choice gadget contains 2 nodes (p. 772), and there are $n \leq 3m$ of them (one per variable).
- So

$$M \leq 4m + 21m + 6m = 31m.$$

The Proof: Construction of G (continued)

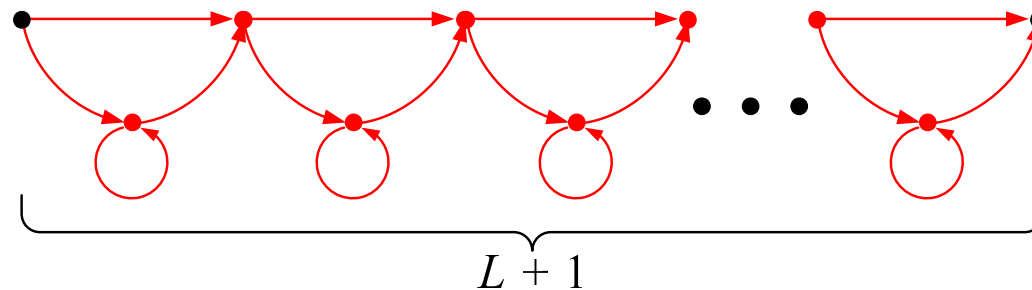
- $\#H \leq 2^L$ for some $L = O(m \log m)$.
 - The maximum absolute value of the edge weight is 1.
 - Hence each term in the permanent is at most 1.
 - There are $M! \leq (31m)!$ terms.
 - Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\#H &\leq \sqrt{2\pi(31m)} \left(\frac{31m}{e}\right)^{31m} e^{\frac{1}{12 \times (31m)}} \\ &= 2^{O(m \log m)}\end{aligned}\tag{13}$$

by a refined Stirling's formula.

The Proof: Construction of G (continued)

- Replace each edge with weight -1 with the following:



- Each increases the number of cycle covers 2^{L+1} -fold.
- The desired unweighted G has been obtained.

The Proof (continued)

- $\#G$ equals $\#H$ after replacing each appearance -1 in $\#H$ with 2^{L+1} :

$$\begin{aligned} \#H &= \cdots + \overbrace{1 \cdot 1 \cdots (-1) \cdots 1}^{\text{a cycle cover}} + \cdots, \\ \#G &= \cdots + \overbrace{1 \cdot 1 \cdots 2^{L+1} \cdots 1}^{\text{a cycle cover}} + \cdots. \end{aligned}$$

- Let $\#G = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \times (2^{L+1})^i$, where $0 \leq a_i < 2^{L+1}$.
- Recall that $\#H \leq 2^L$ (p. 782).
- So if we replace -1 by 1 , each a_i counts the number of cycle covers with i edges of weight -1 as there is no “overflow.”

The Proof (concluded)

- We conclude that

$$\#H = a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - \cdots + (-1)^n a_n,$$

indeed easily computable from $\#G$.

- We know $\#H = 4^{3m} \times \#\phi$ (p. 777).
- So

$$\#\phi = \frac{a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - \cdots + (-1)^n a_n}{4^{3m}}.$$

– Equivalently,

$$\#\phi = \frac{\#G \bmod (2^{L+1} + 1)}{4^{3m}}.$$

Finis