

## KNAPSACK Has an Approximation Threshold of Zero<sup>a</sup>

**Theorem 85** *For any  $\epsilon$ , there is a polynomial-time  $\epsilon$ -approximation algorithm for KNAPSACK.*

- We have  $n$  weights  $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , a weight limit  $W$ , and  $n$  values  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .<sup>b</sup>
- We must find an  $I \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  such that  $\sum_{i \in I} w_i \leq W$  and  $\sum_{i \in I} v_i$  is the largest possible.

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<sup>a</sup>Ibarra & Kim (1975). This algorithm can be used to derive good approximation algorithms for some NP-complete scheduling problems (Bansal & Sviridenko, 2006).

<sup>b</sup>If the values are fractional, the result is slightly messier, but the main conclusion remains correct. Contributed by Mr. Jr-Ben Tian (B89902011, R93922045) on December 29, 2004.

## The Proof (continued)

- Let

$$V = \max\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}.$$

- Clearly,  $\sum_{i \in I} v_i \leq nV$ .
- Let  $0 \leq i \leq n$  and  $0 \leq v \leq nV$ .
- $W(i, v)$  is the minimum weight attainable by selecting only from the *first*  $i$  items and with a total value of  $v$ .
  - It is an  $(n + 1) \times (nV + 1)$  table.

## The Proof (continued)

- Set  $W(0, v) = \infty$  for  $v \in \{1, 2, \dots, nV\}$  and  $W(i, 0) = 0$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ .<sup>a</sup>
- Then, for  $0 \leq i < n$  and  $1 \leq v \leq nV$ ,<sup>b</sup>

$$W(i+1, v) = \begin{cases} \min\{W(i, v), W(i, v - v_{i+1}) + w_{i+1}\}, & \text{if } v_{i+1} \leq v, \\ W(i, v), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- Finally, pick the largest  $v$  such that  $W(n, v) \leq W$ .<sup>c</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>Contributed by Mr. Ren-Shuo Liu (D98922016) and Mr. Yen-Wei Wu (D98922013) on December 28, 2009.

<sup>b</sup>The textbook's formula has an error here.

<sup>c</sup>Lawler (1979).

$0$                        $v$                        $nV$

	$\leq W$	

## The Proof (continued)

With 6 items, values  $(4, 3, 3, 3, 2, 3)$ , weights  $(3, 3, 1, 3, 2, 1)$ , and  $W = 12$ , the maximum total value 16 is achieved with  $I = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 6\}$ ;  $I$ 's weight is 11.

0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
0	∞	∞	∞	3	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
0	∞	∞	3	3	∞	∞	6	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
0	∞	∞	1	3	∞	4	4	∞	∞	7	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
0	∞	∞	1	3	∞	4	4	∞	7	7	∞	∞	10	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
0	∞	2	1	3	3	4	4	6	6	7	9	9	10	∞	12	∞	∞	∞
0	∞	2	1	3	3	2	4	4	5	5	7	7	8	10	10	11	∞	13

## The Proof (continued)

- The running time  $O(n^2V)$  is not polynomial.
- Call the problem instance

$$x = (w_1, \dots, w_n, W, v_1, \dots, v_n).$$

- Additional idea: Limit the number of precision bits.
- Define

$$v'_i = \left\lfloor \frac{v_i}{2^b} \right\rfloor.$$

- Note that

$$v_i - 2^b < 2^b v'_i \leq v_i. \quad (23)$$

## The Proof (continued)

- Call the approximate instance

$$x' = (w_1, \dots, w_n, W, v'_1, \dots, v'_n).$$

- Solving  $x'$  takes time  $O(n^2V/2^b)$ .
  - Use  $v'_i = \lfloor v_i/2^b \rfloor$  and  $V' = \max(v'_1, v'_2, \dots, v'_n)$  in the dynamic programming.
  - It is now an  $(n + 1) \times (nV + 1)/2^b$  table.
- The selection  $I'$  is optimal for  $x'$ .
- But  $I'$  may not be optimal for  $x$ , although it still satisfies the weight budget  $W$ .

## The Proof (continued)

With the same parameters as p. 782 and  $b = 1$ : Values are  $(2, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$  and the optimal selection  $I' = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 6\}$  for  $x'$  has a *smaller* maximum value  $4 + 3 + 3 + 2 + 3 = 15$  for  $x$  than  $I$ 's 16; its weight is  $10 < W = 12$ .<sup>a</sup>

0	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$
0	$\infty$	3	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$
0	3	3	6	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$
0	1	3	4	7	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$
0	1	3	4	7	10	$\infty$	$\infty$
0	1	3	4	6	9	12	$\infty$
0	1	2	4	5	7	10	13

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<sup>a</sup>The *original* optimal  $I = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 6\}$  on p. 782 has the same value 6 and but higher weight 11 for  $x'$ .



## The Proof (continued)

- The value of  $I'$  for  $x$  is close to that of the optimal  $I$  as

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i \in I'} v_i \\ & \geq \sum_{i \in I'} 2^b v'_i \quad \text{by inequalities (23) on p. 783} \\ & = 2^b \sum_{i \in I'} v'_i \geq 2^b \sum_{i \in I} v'_i = \sum_{i \in I} 2^b v'_i \\ & \geq \sum_{i \in I} (v_i - 2^b) \quad \text{by inequalities (23)} \\ & \geq \left( \sum_{i \in I} v_i \right) - n2^b. \end{aligned}$$

## The Proof (continued)

- In summary,

$$\sum_{i \in I'} v_i \geq \left( \sum_{i \in I} v_i \right) - n2^b.$$

- Without loss of generality, assume  $w_i \leq W$  for all  $i$ .
  - Otherwise, item  $i$  is redundant and can be removed early on.
- $V$  is a lower bound on OPT.
  - Picking one single item with value  $V$  is a legitimate choice.

## The Proof (concluded)

- The relative error from the optimum is:

$$\frac{\sum_{i \in I} v_i - \sum_{i \in I'} v_i}{\sum_{i \in I} v_i} \leq \frac{n2^b}{V}.$$

- Suppose we pick  $b = \lfloor \log_2 \frac{\epsilon V}{n} \rfloor$ .
- The algorithm becomes  $\epsilon$ -approximate.<sup>a</sup>
- The running time is then  $O(n^2 V / 2^b) = O(n^3 / \epsilon)$ , a polynomial in  $n$  and  $1/\epsilon$ .<sup>b</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>See Eq. (18) on p. 734.

<sup>b</sup>It hence depends on the *value* of  $1/\epsilon$ . Thanks to a lively class discussion on December 20, 2006. If we fix  $\epsilon$  and let the problem size increase, then the complexity is cubic. Contributed by Mr. Ren-Shan Luoh (D97922014) on December 23, 2008.

## Comments

- INDEPENDENT SET and NODE COVER are reducible to each other (Corollary 46, p. 382).
- NODE COVER has an approximation threshold at most 0.5 (p. 747).
- But INDEPENDENT SET is unapproximable (see the textbook).
- INDEPENDENT SET limited to graphs with degree  $\leq k$  is called  $k$ -DEGREE INDEPENDENT SET.
- $k$ -DEGREE INDEPENDENT SET is approximable (see the textbook).

*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.

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<sup>a</sup>Recall p. 320.

## 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. 321).
- 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 <sub>$n,k$</sub>

- CLIQUE <sub>$n,k$</sub>  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 <sub>$n,k$</sub>  is a monotone function.
- Thus it can be computed by a monotone circuit.
- This does not rule out that *nonmonotone* circuits for CLIQUE <sub>$n,k$</sub>  may use *fewer* gates.

## Crude Circuits

- One possible circuit for  $\text{CLIQUE}_{n,k}$  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  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{\binom{n}{k}}$ .
- 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**  $\text{CC}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m)$  tests if there is an  $X_i \subseteq V$  that forms a clique.
  - The above-mentioned circuit is  $\text{CC}(S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{\binom{n}{k}})$ .

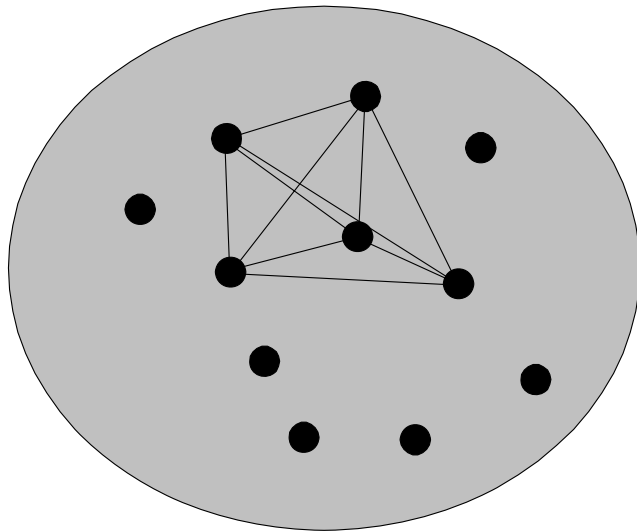
## The Proof: Positive Examples

- 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.
- They all should elicit a true output from  $\text{CLIQUE}_{n,k}$ .

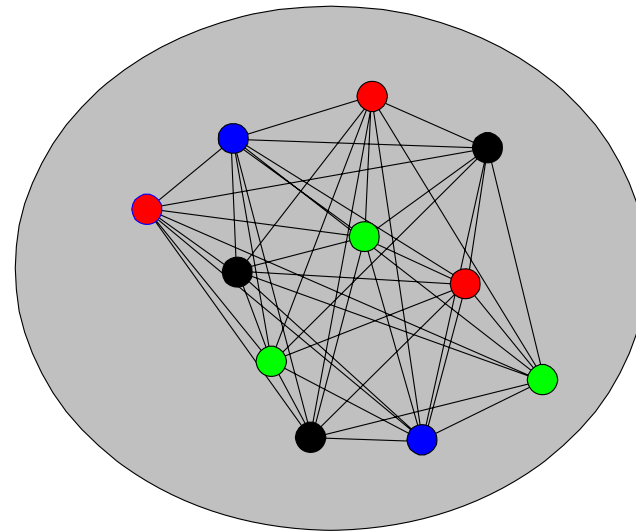
## The Proof: Negative Examples

- 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

## A Warmup to Razborov's (1985) Theorem<sup>a</sup>

**Lemma 86 (The birthday problem)** *The probability of collision,  $C(N, q)$ , when  $q$  balls are thrown randomly into  $N \geq q$  bins is at most*

$$\frac{q(q-1)}{2N}.$$

**Lemma 87** *If crude circuit  $CC(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m)$  computes  $\text{CLIQUE}_{n,k}$ , then  $m \geq n^{n^{1/8}/20}$  for  $n$  sufficiently large.*

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<sup>a</sup>Arora & Barak (2009).

## The Proof (continued)

- Let  $k = n^{1/4}$ .
- Let  $\ell = \sqrt{k}/10$ .
- Let  $X \subseteq V$ .

## The Proof (continued)

- Suppose  $|X| \leq \ell$ .
- A random  $f : X \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, k-1\}$  has collisions with probability less than 0.01 by Lemma 86 (p. 799).
- Hence  $f$  is one-to-one with probability 0.99.
- When  $f$  is one-to-one,  $f$  is a coloring of  $X$  with  $k-1$  colors without repeated colors.
- As a result, when  $f$  is one-to-one, it generates a clique on  $X$ .



## The Proof (continued)

- Note that a random negative example is simply a random  $g : V \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, k - 1\}$ .
- So our random  $f : X \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, k - 1\}$  is simply a random  $g$  restricted to  $X$ .
- In summary, the probability that  $X$  is not a clique when supplied with a random negative example is at most 0.01.

## The Proof (continued)

- Now suppose  $|X| > \ell$ .
- Consider the probability that  $X$  is a clique when supplied with a random positive example.
- It is the probability that  $X$  is part of the clique.
- Hence the desired probability is at most

$$\frac{\binom{n-\ell}{k-\ell}}{\binom{n}{k}}.$$

## The Proof (continued)

- Now,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\binom{n-\ell}{k-\ell}}{\binom{n}{k}} &= \frac{k(k-1)\cdots(k-\ell+1)}{n(n-1)\cdots(n-\ell+1)} \\ &\leq \left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^\ell \\ &\leq n^{-(3/4)\ell} \\ &\leq n^{-\sqrt{k}/20} \\ &= n^{-n^{1/8}/20}.\end{aligned}$$

## The Proof (concluded)

- In summary, the probability that  $X$  is a clique when supplied with a random positive example is at most

$$n^{-n^{1/8}}/20.$$

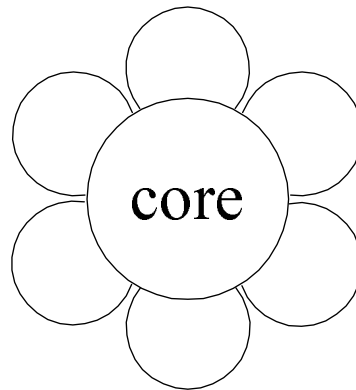
- So we need at least

$$n^{n^{1/8}}/20$$

$X$ s in the crude circuit.

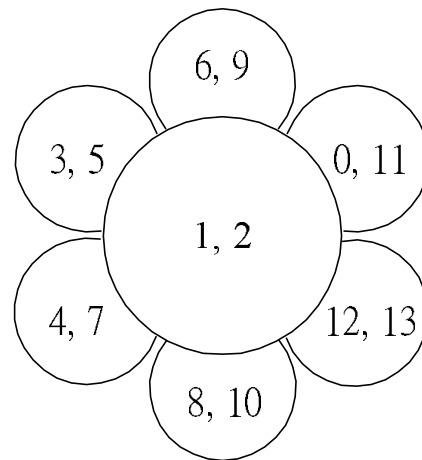
## Sunflowers

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



## A Sample Sunflower

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



## The Erdős-Rado Lemma

**Lemma 88** *Let  $\mathcal{Z}$  be a family of more than  $M \triangleq (p-1)^\ell \ell!$  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,

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



## 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  $\mathcal{D}$ .
  - $|C| \leq (p-1)\ell$ .
  - $C$  intersects every set in  $\mathcal{Z}$  by  $\mathcal{D}$ 's maximality.
  - There is a  $d \in C$  that intersects more than  $\frac{M}{(p-1)\ell} = (p-1)^{\ell-1}(\ell-1)!$  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  $M' \triangleq (p-1)^{\ell-1}(\ell-1)!$  sets.
- $M'$  is just  $M$  with  $\ell$  replaced with  $\ell-1$ .
- $\mathcal{Z}'$  contains a sunflower by induction, say

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

- 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  $\mathcal{Z}$  is a family of sets, the above result is denoted by  $\text{pluck}(\mathcal{Z})$ .
- $\text{pluck}(\mathcal{Z})$  is not unique.<sup>a</sup>

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<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. 807:

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

- Then

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

## Razborov's Theorem

**Theorem 89 (Razborov, 1985)** *There is a constant  $c$  such that for large enough  $n$ , all monotone circuits for  $\text{CLIQUE}_{n,k}$  with  $k = n^{1/4}$  have size at least  $n^{cn^{1/8}}$ .*

- We shall approximate any monotone circuit for  $\text{CLIQUE}_{n,k}$  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>

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

- $p$  will be fixed later to be  $n^{1/8} \log n$ .
- Fix  $M = (p - 1)^\ell \ell!$ .
  - Recall the Erdős-Rado lemma (p. 808).

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<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  $CC(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m)$ , where:
  - $X_i \subseteq V$ .
  - $|X_i| \leq \ell$ .
  - $m \leq M$ .
- 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

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

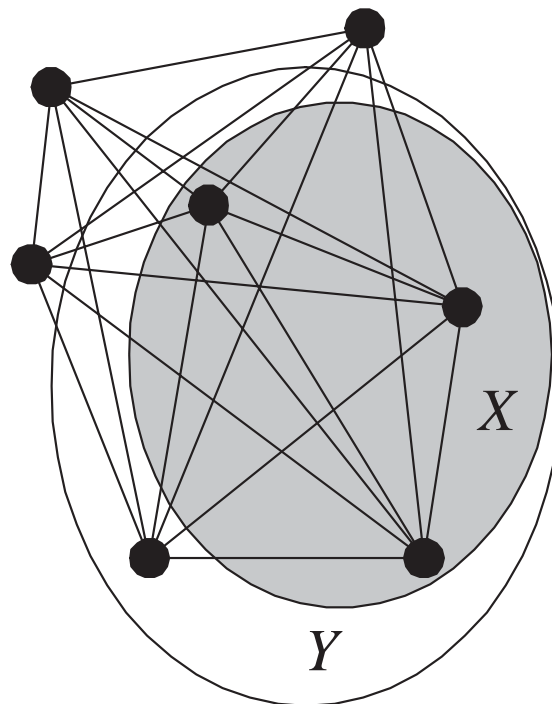
$$\text{CC}(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$$

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

## The Proof: OR (continued)

- If  $\text{CC}(\mathcal{Z})$  is true, then  $\text{CC}(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{Z}))$  must be true.
  - The quick reason: If  $Y$  is a clique, then a subset of  $Y$  must also be a clique.
  - Let  $Y \in \mathcal{Z}$  be a clique.
  - There must exist an  $X \in \text{pluck}(\mathcal{Z})$  such that  $X \subseteq Y$ .
  - This  $X$  is also a clique.

## The Proof: OR (continued)



## 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.
- We next count the number of false positives and false negatives introduced<sup>a</sup> by  $CC(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$ .
- Let us work on false negatives for OR first.

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

## The Number of False Negatives<sup>a</sup>

**Lemma 90**  $CC(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$  *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>

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<sup>a</sup>Recall that  $CC(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$  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.

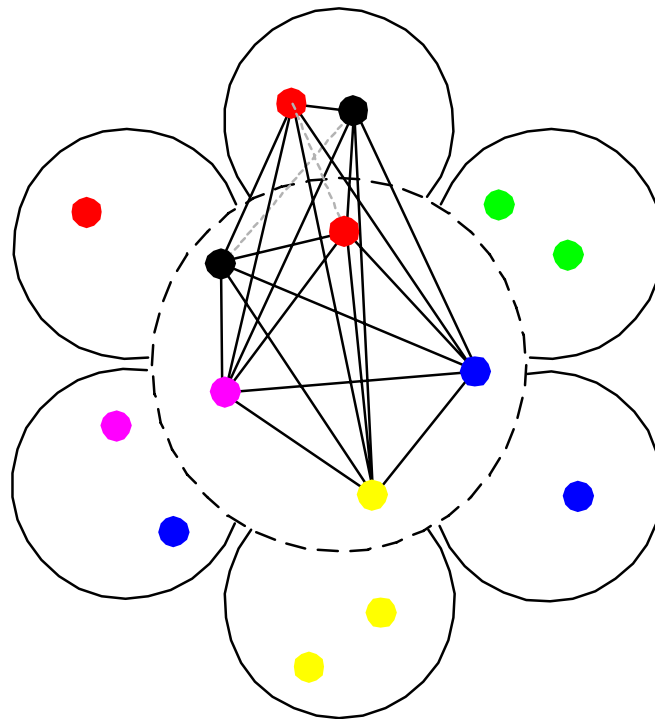
<sup>b</sup>The new crude circuit is at least as positive as the original one (p. 819).

## The Number of False Positives

**Lemma 91**  $\text{CC}(\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}))$  introduces at most  $\frac{2M}{p-1} 2^{-p} (k-1)^n$  false positives.

- Each plucking operation replaces the sunflower  $\{Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_p\}$  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  $\text{CC}(Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_p)$  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 91 (continued)



## Proof of Lemma 91 (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  $X$ .



## Proof of Lemma 91 (continued)

- Now

$$\text{prob}[ R(Z_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge R(Z_p) \wedge \neg R(Z) ] \quad (24)$$

$$\leq \text{prob}[ R(Z_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge R(Z_p) \mid \neg R(Z) ]$$

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

$$\leq \prod_{i=1}^p \text{prob}[ R(Z_i) ]. \quad (25)$$

- 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,  $Z$ .

## Proof of Lemma 91 (continued)

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

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

- Now

$$\text{prob}[R(Z_i)] \leq \frac{\binom{|Z_i|}{2}}{k-1} \leq \frac{\binom{\ell}{2}}{k-1} \leq \frac{1}{2}. \quad (26)$$

- So the probability<sup>a</sup> that a random coloring yields a *new* false positive is at most  $2^{-p}$  by inequality (25) on p. 826.

---

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

## Proof of Lemma 91 (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  $\text{pluck}(\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y})$  ends, the set system contains  $\leq M$  sets.

## Proof of Lemma 91 (concluded)

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

- At most

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

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

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<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

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

- 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.
- Introduction of errors means we ignore scenarios where the AND of  $CC(\mathcal{X})$  and  $CC(\mathcal{Y})$  is already wrong.

## The Proof: AND (continued)

- $\text{CC}(\{ X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y} \})$  introduces no false positives and no false negatives over our positive and negative examples.<sup>a</sup>
  - Suppose  $\text{CC}(\{ X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y} \})$  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  $\text{CC}(\mathcal{X})$  and  $\text{CC}(\mathcal{Y})$  return true.
  - So  $\text{CC}(\{ X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y} \})$  introduces no false positives.

---

<sup>a</sup>Unlike the OR case on p. 818, we are not claiming that  $\text{CC}(\{ X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y} \})$  is *equivalent to* the AND of  $\text{CC}(\mathcal{X})$  and  $\text{CC}(\mathcal{Y})$ . Equivalence is more than we need in either case.

## The Proof: AND (concluded)

- (continued)
  - On the other hand, suppose *both*  $\text{CC}(\mathcal{X})$  and  $\text{CC}(\mathcal{Y})$  accept a positive example with a clique  $\mathcal{C}$  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  $\mathcal{C}$  also contains  $X_i \cup Y_j$ ,<sup>a</sup> the new circuit returns true.
  - $\text{CC}(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$  introduces no false negatives.
- We now bound the number of false positives and false negatives introduced<sup>b</sup> by the approximate AND.

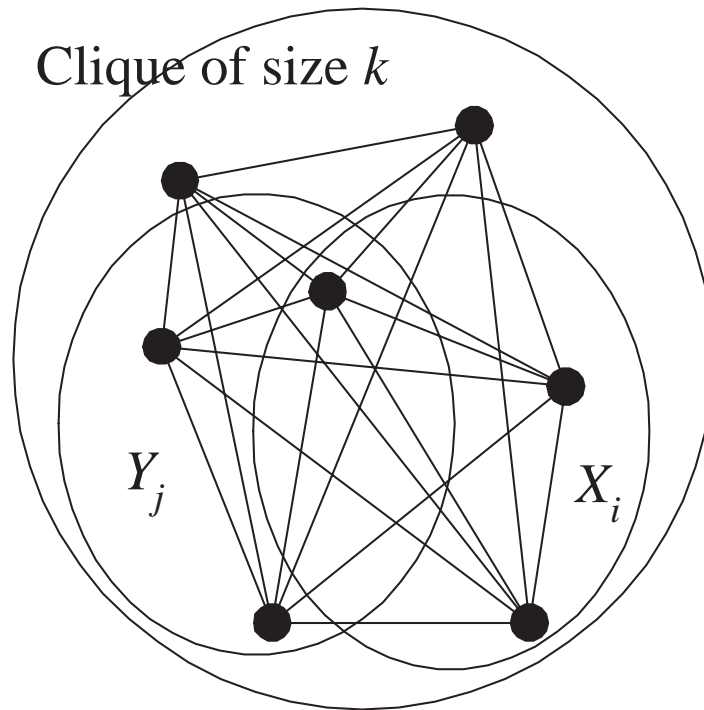
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<sup>a</sup>See next page.

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



Clique of size  $k$



## The Number of False Positives

**Lemma 92** *The approximate AND introduces at most  $M^2 2^{-p} (k - 1)^n$  false positives.*

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

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<sup>a</sup>Recall p. 832.

## Proof of Lemma 92 (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 91 (p. 823).
- 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 93** *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  $\text{CC}(\{X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}\})$  introduces no false negatives.<sup>a</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>Recall p. 832.

## Proof of Lemma 93 (continued)

- $\text{CC}(\{ X_i \cup Y_j : X_i \in \mathcal{X}, Y_j \in \mathcal{Y}, |X_i \cup Y_j| \leq \ell \})$  introduces  $\leq M^2 \binom{n-\ell-1}{k-\ell-1}$  false negatives.
  - Deletion of set  $Z \triangleq X_i \cup Y_j$  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  $Z$ .
  - $\binom{n-|Z|}{k-|Z|} \leq \binom{n-\ell-1}{k-\ell-1}$  as  $|Z| > \ell$ .
  - There are at most  $M^2$  such  $Z$ s.

## Proof of Lemma 93 (concluded)

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

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<sup>a</sup>Recall p. 819.

## Two Summarizing Lemmas

From Lemmas 91 (p. 823) and 92 (p. 835), we have:

**Lemma 94** *Each approximation step introduces at most  $M^2 2^{-p} (k-1)^n$  false positives.*

From Lemmas 90 (p. 822) and 93 (p. 837), we have:

**Lemma 95** *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 96** *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

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

## Proof of Lemma 96 (concluded)

- Inequality (26) (p. 827) 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. 815:

$$k \triangleq n^{1/4},$$

$$\ell \triangleq n^{1/8},$$

$$p \triangleq n^{1/8} \log n,$$

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

## The Proof (continued)

- Suppose the final crude circuit is identically false.
  - By Lemma 95 (p. 840), 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  $\text{CLIQUE}_{n,k}$  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 96 (p. 842) says that there are at least  $(k - 1)^n / 2$  false positives.
  - By Lemma 94 (p. 840), each approximation step introduces at most  $M^2 2^{-p} (k - 1)^n$  false positives
  - The original monotone 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.

## 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!