| $\mathbf{0 3 6 8 . 4 1 6 3}$ Randomness and Computation | March 25, 2009 |
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## Today

- Uniform generation of DNF satisfying assignments
- Uniform generation and approximate counting


## 1 Disjunctive Normal Form

Definition 1 In Boolean logic, a disjunctive normal form (DNF) is a standardization (or normalization) of a logical formula which is a disjunction of conjunctive clauses, such as:

$$
F=x_{1} \overline{x_{2}} \vee x_{2} x_{4} \overline{x_{5}} \vee \ldots
$$

### 1.1 Questions

Question 1 Is the formula satisfiable?
Yes, unless $F=0$.
Question 2 The counting problem: How many assignments satisfy F?
Let $\# F$ denote the number of satisfying assignments to the formula $F$.
First we notice that

$$
F \text { is a DNF } \Longleftrightarrow \bar{F} \text { is a CNF }
$$

therefore

$$
\# F<2^{n} \Longleftrightarrow \bar{F} \text { is satisfiable }
$$

Since 'Is CNF formula is satisfiable?' know to be hard ( $N P$-complete) - the counting problem for DNF is also hard.

Question 3 Can we generate a uniformly random satisfying assignment for a DNF formula?

## 2 Generate a Random Satisfying Assignment

Naive algorithm: Pick a random assignment.

- If satisfies $F$, output it.
- Else, repeat.

Problem: run time: $\Omega\left(\frac{1}{p}\right)$, where $p=\frac{\# F}{2^{n}}$.

### 2.1 One-Term DNF

Example:

$$
F=x_{1} \overline{x_{2}}
$$

Random satisfying assignment: set $x_{1}=1, x_{2}=0$, set all other variables randomly.
In general: set the variables of the clause to satisfy it and all other variables randomly. For one-term DNF it easy to compute $\# F$ : if it's (only) clause has $k$ variables then $\# F=2^{n-k}$.

### 2.2 Two-Term DNF

Let $S_{i}$ denote the set of satisfying assignments of $F_{i}$.
2.2.1 Disjoint Sets: $S_{1} \cap S_{2}=\emptyset$

In this case: $\# F=\left|S_{1} \cup S_{2}\right|=2^{n-k_{1}}+2^{n-k_{2}}$. Uniform generation: Pick $S_{i}$ with probability $\frac{\left|S_{i}\right|}{\left|S_{1}\right|+\left|S_{2}\right|}$. Output random element of $S_{i}$.

### 2.2.2 Non Disjoint Sets: $S_{1} \cap S_{2} \neq \emptyset$

The previous algorithm is OK for assignments from $S_{1} \triangle S_{2}\left(=\left(S_{1} \backslash S_{2}\right) \cup\left(S_{2} \backslash S_{1}\right)\right)$, but assignments from $S_{1} \cap S_{2}$ get twice as much probability.

Uniform generation: Pick $S_{i}$ with probability $\frac{\left|S_{i}\right|}{\left|S_{1}\right|+\left|S_{2}\right|}$. Pick random element of $S_{i}$.

- If in $S_{1} \triangle S_{2}$ then output it.
- Else (it is in $S_{1} \cap S_{2}$ ): toss a coin. If 'Heads' - output, else do whole procedure again.


### 2.3 General Case: $F=F_{1} \vee F_{2} \vee \ldots \vee F_{m}$

## Algorithm A:

Step 1: $\left\{\right.$ Pretend $S_{i}$ 's disjoint to pick element $\}$
Pick clause $i \in[m]$ with probability $\frac{\left|S_{i}\right|}{\sum\left|S_{j}\right|}$.
Then pick a random satisfying assignment $\pi$ to clause $i$.
Step 2: \{Compensate for intersections $\}$
Compute $\ell=\left|\left\{j \in[m]: \pi \in S_{j}\right\}\right|$ ( $=$ number of clauses satisfied by $\pi$ ).
Then toss a coin with bias $\frac{1}{\ell}$.
If 'Heads' - output $\pi$ and halt.
Else, start over.

Claim 2 Algorithm $A$ outputs each satisfying assignment $\pi$ with same probability.
Proof
$\operatorname{Pr}\left[\right.$ pick $\pi$ in Step 1] $=\sum_{\text {clause i that satisfied by } \pi} \operatorname{Pr[\text {pickclausei}]\cdot \operatorname {Pr}[\text {output}\pi |\text {picked}i]}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
= & \sum_{i} \frac{\left|S_{i}\right|}{\sum\left|S_{j}\right|} \cdot \frac{1}{\left|S_{i}\right|}=\frac{\ell}{\sum\left|S_{j}\right|} \\
& \operatorname{Pr}[\text { output } \pi]=\frac{\ell}{\sum\left|S_{j}\right|} \cdot \frac{1}{\ell}=\frac{1}{\sum\left|S_{j}\right|}
\end{aligned}
$$

So the probability to pick a random assignment is a constant, moreover it does not depend on the number of clauses it satisfied.

## Claim 3

$$
E[\# \text { loops until output something }] \leq m .
$$

Proof Idea Since all biases in Step 2 are $\geq \frac{1}{m}$.

## 3 P-relation

Definition $4 R \subseteq\{0,1\}^{*} \times\{0,1\}^{*}$ binary relation on strings. $R$ is a p-relation if

- $\forall(x, y) \in R:|y|=\operatorname{poly}(|x|)$.
- $\exists$ poly-time decision procedure for deciding whether $(x, y) \in R$.

Examples:

- $R_{S A T}=\{(x, y) \mid x$ is a formula, $y$ is a satisfying assignment to $x\}$
- $R_{\text {matching }}=\{(x, y) \mid x$ is a graph, $y$ is a perfect matching in $x\}$

Theorem $5 L \in N P$ iff $\exists p$-relation $R$ s.t.

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow \exists y \text { s.t. }(x, y) \in R
$$

Definition 6 A function $f:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is in $\# P$ iff $\exists$ p-relation R s.t. $\forall x, f(x)=|\{y \mid(x, y) \in R\}|$.


Figure 1: \#P complexity class
$f(x)$ is the number of witnesses for an input $x$, which can each be validated in polynomial time.
It was shown that the counting problem for DNF (i.e. How many different variable assignments will satisfy a given DNF formula?) is \# $P$-complete.
Examples:

- \#SAT - The number of satisfying assignments to a given formula
- \#Matching - The number of perfect matches ${ }^{1}$ in a given graph

Definition $7 A$ is an approximate counter for $f$ if

$$
\forall x \operatorname{Pr}[f(x) /(1+\epsilon) \leq A(x) \leq f(x)(1+\epsilon)] \geq 3 / 4
$$

If the runtime of $A$ is polynomial in $1 / \epsilon,|x|$, then $A$ is a fully polynomial randomized approximation scheme (FPRAS)

[^0]* Note that in Homework 1, we have shown that $3 / 4$ can be replaced by any $1-\delta(0<\delta<1)$, repeating $A(x) O(\log 1 / \delta)$ times.

Observation 8 There is no FPRAS for $\# C N F$ (assuming $N P \neq R P$ ). If there were, then we could give a randomized algorithm to solve $S A T$ in polynomial time.

- $S A T(x)=y e s \Rightarrow \# C N F(x)>0 \Rightarrow F P R A S(x)>0$, with probability $\geq 3 / 4$.
- $S A T(x)=n o \Rightarrow \# N F(x)=0 \Rightarrow F P R A S(x)=0$, with probability $\geq 3 / 4$.

Therefore, if we had an FPRAS for $\# C N F$, we could answer $S A T$ correctly with probability at least $3 / 4$.

Definition $9 R$ is a p-relation, $f:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $f(x)=|\{y \mid(x, y) \in R\}|$. $M$ is a uniform - generator for $R$ if on input $x$

- $M$ 's runtime is polynomial in $|x|$
- if $f(x)>0$ then $\forall y$ s.t. $(x, y) \in R \operatorname{Pr}[M$ outputs $y]=1 / f(x)$
- $M$ does not output $y$ s.t. $(x, y) \notin R$ ( $M$ might not output anything)

Example: The random assignment generator for DNF we saw. The probability the generator will return an assignment is equal for all the assignments, therefore it is equal to $1 / f(x)$, while $f(x)$ is the number of assignments.

Definition $10 R$ is a p-relation, $f:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $f(x)=|\{y \mid(x, y) \in R\}| . M$ is an almost uniform generator (AUG) for $R$ if on input $x$

- $M$ 's runtime is polynomial in $|x|,[1 / \epsilon]$
- if $f(x)>0$ then $\forall y$ s.t. $(x, y) \in R 1 / f(x)(1+\epsilon) \leq \operatorname{Pr}[M$ outputs $y] \leq(1+\epsilon) / f(x)$
- $M$ does not output $y$ s.t. $(x, y) \notin R$ ( $M$ might not output anything in this case)

Definition 11 (Jerrum, Valiant, Vazirani) A problem is called self-reducible if it can be solved via recursion on smaller problems of the same type.

The formal definition can be found in Jerrum, Valiant and Vazirani's work.
Example: SAT - $\varphi\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ is satisfiable if $\varphi\left(0, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ or $\varphi\left(1, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ is satisfiable.
Note: the running time of each recursive step must be polynomial but the number of recursions can be large (even exponential).

## 4 FPRAS and AUG for SAT

Theorem 12 (Jerrum, Valiant, Vazirani) $R$ is a self-reducible p-relation, then $\exists$ FPRAS for $R$ iff $\exists A U G$ for $R$.

This theorem implies that if one can approximate the number of solutions of a problem, he can also generate uniformly a random solution for the problem and vice versa.

Proof Idea We will prove the theorem for the \#SAT problem

### 4.1 Building an AUG from a FPRAS

First we will assume that there is an exact counter for \#SAT, and we will use it to build an AUG for \#SAT.

We will use the fact that SAT is self-reducible, and define a self-recursion tree for a SAT formula: Let $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j}$ be the index of the node with setting of prefix of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{j}$ s.t. $x_{i}=b_{i} \forall i \in[j]$. $F_{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j}}$ is a new formula on $n-j$ variables.


Figure 2: Self-Reducibility Tree

We will use the \#SAT exact counter to guide a "random walk" from the root to a leaf. Let $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}$ be the current node.

- Use the exact counter and compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{0}=F_{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}, 0} \\
&=\# \operatorname{SAT} \varphi\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}, 0, x_{k+2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \\
& f_{1}=F_{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}, 1}
\end{aligned}=\# \operatorname{SAT} \varphi\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}, 1, x_{k+2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)
$$

- Go left with probability $f_{0} /\left(f_{0}+f_{1}\right)$, right with probability $f_{1} /\left(f_{0}+f_{1}\right)$
- If $f_{0}=0$ and $f_{1}=0$ stop and output nothing
- If reached a leaf output it

Notice that if there are satisfying assignments the counter will return a number that is bigger than zero for at least one of the sides, therefore the algorithm will always choose a sub-tree which contains satisfying assignments, and will eventually output one.

The result is a proper AUG since:

- The counter's runtime is polynomial in $|x|, 1 / \epsilon$, it is called $2 * n$ times, so the total runtime is polynomial in $|x|, 1 / \epsilon$
- $\forall$ SAT assignment $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$,
$\operatorname{Pr}\left[\right.$ output $\left.b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right]=\frac{F_{b_{1}}}{F_{b_{1}}+F_{\overline{b_{1}}}} \cdot \frac{F_{b_{1} b_{2}}}{F_{b_{1} b_{2}}+F_{b_{1} \overline{b_{2}}}} \cdot \frac{F_{b_{1} b_{2} b_{3}}}{F_{b_{1} b_{2} b_{3}}+F_{b_{1} b_{2} \overline{b_{3}}}} \cdot \ldots=\frac{1}{F}$
- If the formula has no assignments both $f_{0}$ and $f_{1}$ will be zero and M will stop and return nothing

We proved that using an exact counter we can build a proper AUG. What if we use a FPRAS with parameter $\epsilon^{\prime}$ ? In this case each multiplicand in the equation will be multiplied by $\left(1+\epsilon^{\prime}\right)^{2}$ at most
(the numerator can be multiplies by $\left(1+\epsilon^{\prime}\right)$ at most and the denominator can be multiplied by $\frac{1}{\left(1+\epsilon^{\prime}\right)}$ at least), and by $\frac{1}{\left(1+\epsilon^{\prime}\right)^{2}}$ at least. So an approximate counter yields each satisfying assignment with probability $\forall y$ s.t. $(x, y) \in R$

$$
\frac{1}{\left(1+\epsilon^{\prime}\right)^{2 n} F} \leq \operatorname{Pr}[M \text { outputs } y] \leq \frac{\left(1+\epsilon^{\prime}\right)^{2 n}}{F}
$$

Thus, if we want an $\epsilon$-FPRAS for uniform generation, then it is sufficient to call the uniform counting $\epsilon^{\prime}$-FPRAS where $\epsilon^{\prime}<\epsilon / 2 n$.

### 4.2 Building a FPRAS from an AUG

We want to estimate the number of satisfying assignments using an almost uniform generator. We only need an accuracy of $(1+\epsilon)$ multiplication factor, so even if one of the sub-problems, say $F_{1}$, has only one member and the AUG will always return assignments which belong to $F_{0}$, this will still fit the required accuracy.

We will use an AUG to estimate the number of satisfying assignments:

- Pick $k$ random satisfying assignments using the AUG
- Compute
$S_{b_{1}}=$ the fraction of samples beginning with $b_{1}$
$S_{b_{1} b_{2}}=$ the fraction of samples beginning with $b_{1} b_{2}$
$S_{b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{n}}=$ the fraction of samples beginning with $b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{n}$
- Estimate $F$ via $\frac{F_{b_{1}}}{S_{b_{1}}}\left(S_{b_{1}} \approx \frac{F_{b_{1}}}{F}\right)$ :

$$
\hat{F}=\frac{\hat{F_{b_{1}}}}{S_{b_{1}}}=\frac{F_{\hat{b_{1} b_{2}}}}{S_{b_{1}} S_{b_{1} b_{2}}}=\frac{F_{b_{1} \hat{b}_{2} b_{3}}}{S_{b_{1}} S_{b_{1} b_{2}} S_{b_{1} b_{2} b_{3}}}=\ldots=\frac{1}{S_{b_{1}} S_{b_{1} b_{2}} \ldots S_{b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{n}}}
$$



Figure 3: A "Random Walk" Illustration

This is a recursive process which simulates a "walk" on the recursion tree of the formula. In each step of the recursion the algorithm should choose a "direction"- on which sub-tree to continue the computation. We will choose $b_{i} \in\{0,1\}$ in each step such that maximizes the fraction of samples in its sub-tree $S_{b_{1} \ldots b_{i}}$. In order to ensure a good estimation of $F$ we need:

1. to reach a satisfying leaf - We will always reach a satisfying leaf (unless the formula is unsatisfiable) since we always recurse on the sub-tree with maximum samples.
2. $S_{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}}$ to be a good approximation - We always recurse on the sub-tree with maximum samples. When one side has probability $1 / 2-\alpha$ and the other side has probability $1 / 2+\alpha$ (for small $\alpha$ ), we can show that the probability for sampling error is less then $e^{-2 k \alpha^{2}}$ (by Chernoff bound). Therefore, for greater $\alpha$ we have smaller probability for picking the wrong sub-tree, and if $\alpha$ is very small then both sides has probability close to $1 / 2$ and picking each side will generate good approximation.

The result is a FPRAS with $\epsilon^{\prime}=\frac{\epsilon}{2 n}$.
Conclusion: We showed a way to generate a random satisfying assignment for DNF. Using the above theorem we proved that we have an approximate algorithm for \#DNF.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ A matching is a set of pairwise non-adjacent edges; that is, no two edges share a common vertex. A perfect matching is a matching which matches all vertices of the graph.

