# On $\epsilon$-sensitive monotone computations 

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#### Abstract

We show that strong-enough lower bounds on monotone arithmetic circuits or the non-negative rank of a matrix imply unconditional lower bounds in arithmetic or Boolean circuit complexity. First, we show that if a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{R}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ of degree $d$ has an arithmetic circuit of size $s$ then $\left(x_{1}+\cdots+x_{n}+1\right)^{d}+\epsilon f$ has a monotone arithmetic circuit of size $O\left(s d^{2}+n \log n\right)$, for some $\epsilon>0$. Second, if $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow$ $\{0,1\}$ is a Boolean function, we associate with $f$ an explicit exponentialsize matrix $M(f)$ such that the Boolean circuit size of $f$ is at least $\Omega\left(\min _{\epsilon>0}\left(\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J)\right)-2 n\right)$, where $J$ is the all-ones matrix and $\mathrm{rk}_{+}$denotes the non-negative rank of a matrix. In fact, the quantity $\min _{\epsilon>0}\left(\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J)\right)$ characterizes how hard is it to distinguish rejecting and accepting inputs of $f$ by means of a linear program. Finally, we introduce a proof system resembling the monotone calculus of Atserias et al. [2] and show that similar $\epsilon$-sensitive lower bounds on monotone arithmetic circuits imply lower bounds on proof-size in the system.


## 1 Introduction

The paper investigates three topics connected by one underlying theme. We show that strong-enough monotone lower bounds imply lower bounds on arithmetic circuit size, Boolean circuit size, and in proof complexity. In contrast to similar earlier results, the unique feature of our "strong-enough" monotone lower bounds is that they are highly discontinuous: in each case, we are required to have a hard polynomial/matrix which is $\epsilon$-close to an easy one.

Arithmetic circuits. In arithmetic circuit complexity, the major open problem is to find an explicit polynomial which requires arithmetic circuits of superpolynomial size. See, for example, [22, 6, 23] for more details. On the other hand, it is comparatively easy to prove such a lower bound for monotone arithmetic circuits - circuits over the reals where we allow non-negative constants only. For example, the permanent polynomial requires monotone circuits

[^0]of size $2^{\Omega(n)}$ and the central symmetric polynomial requires monotone depth $\Omega\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$. This can be found in the works of Valiant 24] and Shamir and Snir [20], see also [22, 14, 12. This creates the impression that monotone arithmetic lower bounds are easy in all cases. However, we observe that in general, monotone lower bounds are essentially as hard as unrestricted ones. Given a polynomial $f$ of degree $d$, we show that if $f$ has a small arithmetic circuit then $g_{\epsilon}:=\left(x_{1}+\cdots+x_{n}+1\right)^{d}+\epsilon f$ has a small monotone arithmetic circuit, for some $\epsilon>0$. In other words, a monotone lower bound on $g_{\epsilon}$ which works for every $\epsilon>0$ gives an unconditional lower bound for $f$. This result is reminiscent of a similar result of Valiant in Boolean circuit complexity concerning the so-called slice functions [26, 28]. Observe that $g_{0}$ has a small monotone arithmetic circuit and hence hardness of $f$ requires that monotone circuit size of $g_{\epsilon}$ displays significant discontinuity as $\epsilon$ approaches zero. Our current techniques for obtaining monotone lower bounds seem inapplicable in this situation, and an improvement of these techniques would be desirable.

Boolean circuits and linear programs. In Boolean circuit complexity, we point out that lower bounds on the non-negative rank of a matrix imply circuit lower bounds. The non-negative rank of a matrix, $\mathrm{rk}_{+}$, is a quantity which has found several applications in communication complexity and extension complexity of polytopes. See, for example, the seminal paper of Yannakakis [29] or [19, 8. Given a Boolean function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$, we associate with $f$ an explicit exponential-size matrix $M(f)$ with positive integer entries. Basically, $M(f)$ records Hamming distances between rejecting and accepting inputs of $f$. Given $\epsilon>0, M_{\epsilon}(f)$ is obtained by subtracting $\epsilon$ from every entry of $M(f)$. We show that the quantity $\min _{\epsilon>0} \mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M_{\epsilon}(f)\right)$ is a lower bound on the Boolean circuit size of $f$. We again note that $M_{0}(f)=M(f)$ itself has small non-negative rank and hence, for our estimate to be interesting, there must be a large gap between $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M_{0}(f)\right)$ and $\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} \mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M_{\epsilon}(f)\right)$. It therefore seems that understanding possible discontinuities of the non-negative rank would give some insight into circuit complexity; we also give some results in this direction.

A similar phenomenon has been noted earlier: in [10] and [9, it was observed that $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M_{1}(f)\right)$ (the case of $\epsilon=1$ ) is a lower bound on Boolean formula size. Furthermore, Goos et al. in [9] used this strategy to obtain new lower bounds on monotone formula size. Given the connection between non-negative rank and extension complexity of polytopes, it is not surprising that $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M_{\epsilon}(f)\right)$ has a geometric interpretation: it captures how hard it is to distinguish accepting and rejecting inputs of $f$ by means of a linear program. This intuition is used extensively in our arguments. Among other things, it implies that there exists a (non-explicit) $f$ such that $\min _{\epsilon>0} \mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M_{\epsilon}(f)\right)$ is exponential. Therefore, at least in principle, $\mathrm{rk}_{+}$can yield exponential circuit lower bounds. One can compare this with the result of Razborov [17] which says that the usual matrix rank cannot give non-trivial circuit lower bounds. In contrast, we assert here that non-negative rank can - the price being that $\mathrm{rk}_{+}$is way less understood (and $N P$-hard to compute [27]).

Proof complexity. The major open problem in proof complexity is to obtain superpolynomial lower bounds on proof-size in the Frege proof system (see, e.g., [13]). In [2], Atserias et al. consider the so-called monotone calculus, MLK. In its inference rules, MLK resembles the Frege system except that it proves implications $A \rightarrow B$ where $A, B$ are monotone Boolean formulas. Nevertheless, it was shown in [2] that this restricted system quasipolynomially simulates the full Frege system. In this paper, we introduce a proof system called algebraic monotone calculus, AMC. The system proves inequalities of the form $f \preceq g$, where $f$ and $g$ are monotone polynomials. The intended interpretation of a line $f \preceq g$ is that every monomial which appears in $f$ with a non-zero coefficient appears also in $g$. The system AMC can be viewed as a weakening of the Boolean monotone calculus MLK, in the same way that an arithmetic circuit can be seen as weakening of a Boolean circuit. We will show that the size of an AMC-proof of $f \preceq g$ can be characterized by the minimum monotone circuit size of $g-\epsilon f$, over all $\epsilon>0$. This means that monotone arithmetic lower bounds of this form imply AMC lower bounds. It is however not clear how this reflects on the complexity of MLK or Frege proofs: we do not know whether AMC is actually weaker than MLK, or whether they might simulate each other, at least on inputs of a specific form.

## 2 Overview of main results

### 2.1 Monotone arithmetic circuits

Unless stated otherwise, an arithmetic circuit will always be an arithmetic circuit over $\mathbb{R}$ with binary operations addition and multiplication (see, e.g., 22, 12 for an exact definition). The size of a circuit is the number of its gates. A monotone arithmetic circuit is one in which all the constants are non-negative. As the first main result, we prove in Section 4 .

Theorem 1. Let $f \in \mathbb{R}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ be a polynomial of degree $d$ which can be computed by an arithmetic circuit of size $s$. Then there exists $\epsilon_{0}>0$ such for every $0<\epsilon<\epsilon_{0},\left(x_{1}+\cdots+x_{n}+1\right)^{d}+\epsilon f$ can be computed by a monotone arithmetic circuit of size $O\left(s d^{2}+n \log n\right)$.

In other words, in order to prove a lower bound on arithmetic circuit size of $f$, it is enough to prove a monotone circuit lower bound on $g_{\epsilon}=\left(\sum_{i} x_{i}+1\right)^{d}+\epsilon f$, for $\epsilon>0$ sufficiently small. Observe that the "universal polynomial" $U=$ $\left(\sum_{i} x_{i}+1\right)^{d}$ itself has a small monotone circuit (of size $O(n+\log d)$ ). Hence, the bound of Theorem 1 is qualitatively tight for small $d$ : if $g_{\epsilon}$ can be computed by a small monotone circuit for some $\epsilon>0$ then $f=\left(g_{\epsilon}-U\right) \epsilon^{-1}$ has a small arithmetic circuit as well.

Another way to interpret the result is as follows. It is well-known that every arithmetic circuit can be simulated by an arithmetic circuit with only one subtraction (see [24] or Lemma 23 below). That is, if $f$ has a circuit of size $s$ then $f$ can be written as $f=f_{+}-f_{-}$, where $f_{+}, f_{-}$are monotone polynomials
of monotone circuit size $O(s)$. Then Theorem 1 simply asserts that $f_{-}$can be chosen as a scalar multiple of a fixed universal polynomial independent of $f$. Theorem 1 is also reminiscent of the so-called slice functions in Boolean complexity. Recall that a Boolean function $h$ is a slice function, if there exists a $k$ such that $h$ accepts on all inputs of Hamming weight $>k$, rejects on inputs of Hamming weight $<k$, and is arbitrary on inputs with weight $k$. In [26], Valiant has shown that for slice functions, general and monotone Boolean circuits are of essentially the same power. This resembles Theorem 1 because the universal polynomial $U$ is constant on inputs with fixed $\sum x_{i}$.

Let us mention that the classical lower bounds [24, 20] are insufficient to prove monotone lower bounds for polynomials of the form required by Theorem 1. These lower bounds take into account only the monomial structure of a polynomial. For example, not only that the permanent is hard but any polynomial which has the same set of monomials with non-zero coefficients is hard for monotone circuits. However, the polynomial $\left(1+\sum_{i} x_{i}\right)^{d}$ contains all monomials of degree $d$ with a non-zero coefficient. There is at least one recent lower bound which goes beyond monomial counting due to Yehudayoff 30]. However, the bound is continuous in the coefficients of the polynomial in focus.

In Section 4, we also note that Theorem 1 holds in several other settings we can choose a different universal polynomial, or consider restricted algebraic models of computation.

### 2.2 Boolean circuits and non-negative rank

Let $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be a non-negative matrix. The non-negative rank of $M, \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M)$, is defined as the smallest $k$ so that there exist non-negative matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times m}$ with $M=A B$. In other words, it is the smallest $k$ so that $M$ can be written as a sum of $k$ non-negative rank-one matrices. If $M$ contains a negative entry, we set $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M):=\infty$

Let $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a Boolean function. Let $f^{-1}(0)$ be the set of rejecting inputs of $f$ and $f^{-1}(1)$ the set of its accepting inputs. Based on $f$, we define the matrix $M(f)$ as follows. $M(f)$ is a $\left|f^{-1}(0)\right| \times\left|f^{-1}(1)\right|$ matrix whose rows are indexed by rejecting inputs and the columns by accepting inputs of $f$. For every $y \in f^{-1}(0), x \in f^{-1}(1)$,

$$
M(f)_{y, x}:=h(x, y),
$$

where $h(x, y)$ is the Hamming distance of $x$ and $y$.
Hence, $M(f)$ is an exponential size matrix with non-negative integer entries from $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Since every accepting input differs from every rejecting input, we emphasize that every entry of $M(f)$ is greater or equal to one. Let $J$ be the matrix of the same dimension as as $M$ whose every entry equals 1 . This means that for every $\epsilon \leq 1, M(f)-\epsilon J$ is non-negative.

Define $L(f)$ as the smallest number of leaves in a de Morgan formula computing $f$, and $C(f)$ the size of a smallest Boolean circuit computing $f$. In [10], it was observed

Proposition 2. [10] Let $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a Boolean function. Then $L(f) \geq r k_{+}(M(f)-J) /(2 n-1)$.

This was independently noted by Goos et al. 9. There, a similar strategy was applied to prove lower bounds on monotone formula size. In Section 3, we will present a similar connection with circuit size:

Theorem 3. Let $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a Boolean function. Then $\min _{\epsilon>0} r k_{+}(M(f)-$ $\epsilon J) \leq O(C(f)+n)$. Moreover, there exists a (non-explicit) $f$ with $\min _{\epsilon>0} r k_{+}(M(f)-$ $\epsilon J) \geq 2^{\Omega(n)}$.

Hence, Theorem 3 lower-bounds the circuit size of $f$ in terms of the smallest non-negative rank of $M(f)-\epsilon J$ with $\epsilon>0$. Let us give some comments on how the non-negative rank varies with $\epsilon$. First, one can see (cf. Observation 12)

$$
\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(f)) \leq 2 n
$$

and hence the non-negative rank is small if $\epsilon=0$. Since $M-\epsilon_{1} J=\left(M-\epsilon_{2} J\right)+$ $\left(\epsilon_{2}-\epsilon_{1}\right) J$ and $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(J)=1$, we can see that

$$
\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M(f)-\epsilon_{1} J\right) \leq \mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M(f)-\epsilon_{2} J\right)+1, \quad \text { if } \epsilon_{1} \leq \epsilon_{2}
$$

This means that as $\epsilon>0$ increases, $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J)$ can decrease at most by one. Moreover, it can be shown (cf. Observation 13) that $\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J)$ exists and differs from $\min _{\epsilon>0} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J)$ by at most one. Hence, Theorem 3 requires $\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J)$ to be much larger than $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(f))$ - the non-negative rank is heavily discontinuous at $\epsilon=0$.

Discontinuities of non-negative rank. In Section 3.2 we give some properties of possible discontinuites of non-negative rank. For example we, show that if $M$ is positive then

$$
\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M-\epsilon J) \leq O\left(2^{\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M)}\right)
$$

Strictly positive rank $\mathbf{r k}_{++}$. We introduce the concept of strictly positive rank, or simply strict rank. This is defined as non-negative rank, except that one needs to express $M$ in terms of positive rank one matrices. More exactly, let $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be a positive matrix. The strict rank of $M, \mathrm{rk}_{++}(M)$, is defined as the smallest $k$ so that there exist positive matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times m}$ with $M=A B$. In Section 3.3 we will outline some properties of $\mathrm{rk}_{++}$. In particular, we will see that

$$
\mathrm{rk}_{++}(M)-1 \leq \min _{\epsilon>0} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M-\epsilon J) \leq \mathrm{rk}_{++}(M)+1
$$

This also entails $\mathrm{rk}_{++}(M(f)) \leq O(C(f)+n)$.

### 2.2.1 Extended formulations and separation complexity

The lower bound in Theorem 3 is in fact a bound on a different quantity, which we call linear separation complexity. Informally, it captures how hard it is to distinguish rejecting and accepting inputs by means of linear programs.

Following [29, 19, 5], let us give some definitions from extension complexity of polytopes. A polyhedron is a subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ defined by a finite set of linear inequalities. A polytope is a bounded polyhedron. An extended formulation of a polyhedron $P$ is a linear system $L(x, y)$ in variables $x$ and $d$ new variables $y$

$$
\begin{equation*}
A x+B y \geq b, A_{0} x+B_{0} y=b_{0} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that $P=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: \exists y \in \mathbb{R}^{d} L(x, y)\right.$ holds $\}$. The size of the formulation is the number of inequalities in the system. Extension complexity of $P, \mathrm{xc}(P)$, is defined as the size of a smallest extended formulation of $P$.

Let $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a Boolean function. A polyhedron $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ will be called a separating polyhedron for $f$ if

$$
f^{-1}(1) \subseteq P, \text { and } f^{-1}(0) \cap P=\emptyset
$$

We define the linear separation complexity, or simply separation complexity, $\operatorname{sep}(f)$, as the minimum extension complexity of a separating polyhedron for $f$. In other words, $\operatorname{sep}(f)$ is the smallest $r$ so that there exists a linear system $L(x, y)$ with $r$ inequalities (and any number of equalities) so that

$$
f^{-1}(1)=\left\{x \in\{0,1\}^{n}: \exists y \in \mathbb{R}^{d} L(x, y) \text { holds }\right\}
$$

In Section 3, we give the following characterisation of $\operatorname{sep}(f)$ :
Theorem 4. Let $R:=\min _{\epsilon>0} r k_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J)$. Then $R-2 n-1 \leq \operatorname{sep}(f) \leq R$.
While the phrase "linear separation complexity" was introduced in [11], the same concept has appeared earlier. Already in [25], Valiant has observed that linear separation complexity is, up to a constant factor, a lower bound on the Boolean circuit complexity of $f$. This appears again in the seminal paper of Yannakakis [29]. In the context of proof complexity, Pudlák and Oliveira [15] investigated a host of related complexity measures, including monotone separation complexity. Recently, Atserias et al. 1] gave a lower bound on $\operatorname{sep}(f)$ under an additional symmetry assumption ${ }^{1}$.

Observe that the smallest separating polyhedron for $f$ is simply the polytope $P_{f}:=\operatorname{conv}\left(f^{-1}(1)\right)$, the convex hull of accepting inputs of $f$. The Yannakakis' paper started a fruitful direction of research into the extension complexity of $0 / 1$-polytopes. These polytopes are well-studied. Rothvoß 19 has shown that there exists an $f$ such that $P_{f}$ has extension complexity $2^{\Omega(n)}$. In an ensuing body of research, the same was proved for explicit functions (see, e.g., 18 ] and references within). However, $P_{f}$ is just one of infinitely many separating polytopes for $f$ and these results do not imply a lower bound on $\operatorname{sep}(f)$. The paper [11] has made a modest step in this direction: it was shown that there exists a (non-explicit) $f$ with $\operatorname{sep}(f) \geq 2^{\Omega(n)}$.

[^1]Monotone separation complexity sep sen $\left._{+} f\right)$. In Section 3.4, we focus on monotone Boolean functions and give an analogy of Theorem 4 for monotone $f$ and monotone separating polyhedra.

### 2.3 A related proof system

We define a new proof system AMC called Algebraic Monotone Calculus.
The lines of AMC are of the form $f \preceq g$ where $f, g$ are monotone polynomials. The axioms are

$$
f \preceq f \quad(A 1), \quad a \preceq b \quad(A 2), \quad \text { if } a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a \geq 0, b>0 .
$$

The rules are

$$
\frac{f_{1} \preceq g, g \preceq f_{2}}{f_{1} \preceq f_{2}}(R 1), \quad \frac{f_{1} \preceq g_{1}, f_{2} \preceq g_{2}}{f_{1} \circ f_{2} \preceq g_{1} \circ g_{2}} \quad(R 2), \quad \circ \in\{+, \times\}
$$

An AMC-proof of $f \preceq g$ is a sequence $f_{1} \preceq g_{1}, \ldots f_{m} \preceq g_{m}$ such that $f_{m}=f$, $g_{m}=g$ and every line in the sequence is either an axiom (A1) or (A2), or has been obtained from previous lines by means of the rules (R1) or (R2). The size of the proof is defined as the smallest $s \geq m$ so that there exists a monotone circuit of size $s$ which simultaneously computes the polynomials $f_{1}, g_{1}, \ldots, f_{m}, g_{m}$

Note that the axiom (A2) gives $a \preceq b$ and $b \preceq a$ for every $a, b>0$. This amounts to taking a homomorphism of $\mathbb{R}_{+}$into the Boolean semiring. The intended interpretation of lines $f \preceq g$ is as follows. For a polynomial $f$, let $\operatorname{supp}(f)$ denote the set of monomials which have a non-zero coefficient in $f$. For example, $\operatorname{supp}(2 x y+\sqrt{3} z)=\{x y, z\}$. We stipulate that $\operatorname{supp}(0)=\emptyset$ and $\operatorname{supp}(a)=\{\emptyset\}$, if $a \in \mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\}$. Then $f \preceq g$ can be interpreted as asserting $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(g)$. The system AMC is sound and complete in the following sense:

Proposition 5. Let $f, g$ be monotone polynomials. Then the following are equivalent.
(i). $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(g)$,
(ii). there exists $\epsilon>0$ such that $g-\epsilon f$ is monotone,
(iii). there exists an $A M C$-proof of $f \preceq g$.

Our main result concerning AMC is:
Theorem 6. Assume that $f \preceq g$ has an AMC-proof of size s. Then there exists $\epsilon>0$ such that $g-\epsilon f$ has a monotone arithmetic circuit of size $O(s)$. Conversely, assume that $\epsilon>0$ is such that $f, g$ and $g-\epsilon f$ have monotone circuits of size $\leq s$. Then $f \preceq g$ has an AMC-proof of size $O(s)$.

Our motivation for introducing the system AMC is manifold. First, the system arises quite naturally in the context of Theorem 1. As we remark in Section 5.1. Theorem 1 can be seen as an application of Theorem 6. Second, the theorem gives a concrete approach to proving lower bounds on the AMC
proof-size. Finally, AMC is related to the monotone calculus MLK from 2] and, by extension, to the Frege system (cf. Section 5.2). It is possible that understanding AMC would give some insight into the Frege system.

We prove Theorem 6 in Section 5. There, we also explain connections between AMC and other proof systems.

Some notation. As customary, $[m]=\{1, \ldots, m\}$. For a vector $v=\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right) \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{n}, \operatorname{supp}(v)=\left\{i \in[n]: v_{i} \neq 0\right\}$ is the set of non-zero coordinates of $v$. For a matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}, \operatorname{supp}(M)$ is defined similarly. A vector or a matrix will be called non-negative/positive if every entry is non-negative/positive. $J_{n, m}$ will denote the $n \times m$ matrix with every entry equal to one. We set $J_{n}:=J_{n, n}$ and sometimes drop the subscript if the dimension is clear from context. $\operatorname{rk}(M)$ will denote the usual linear algebraic rank of a matrix.

Organization. Theorem 1 is proved in Section 4. There, we also present some variants of the theorem. Section 3 contains proofs of Theorems 3 and 4 . Section 3.3 contains some results on the strict rank of a matrix, and Section 3.2 presents facts about discontinuities of non-negative rank. Section 3.4 deals with monotone polyhedra and monotone Boolean functions. In Section 5, we prove Theorem 6 as well as discuss the system AMC in some detail.

## 3 Linear separation complexity

In this section, we prove Theorems 3 and 4 . Recall the definition of separation complexity from Section 2.2. There, we also mentioned the following results:

Proposition 7. (i). [29, 25] For every Boolean function $f$, $\operatorname{sep}(f) \leq O(C(f))$.
(ii). [11] There exists $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ with $\operatorname{sep}(f) \geq 2^{\Omega(n)}$.

For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, let

$$
h(x, y):=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}\left(1-y_{i}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(1-x_{i}\right) y_{i} .
$$

If $x, y$ are Boolean vectors, $h(x, y)$ is simply their Hamming distance. Let $f$ : $\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a Boolean function. For a parameter $r$, let $S_{r}(f)$ be the polyhedron

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{r}(f):=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: \forall y \in f^{-1}(0), h(x, y) \geq r\right\} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that

$$
S_{r_{1}}(f) \supseteq S_{r_{2}}(f), \quad \text { if } r_{1} \leq r_{2}
$$

Let $r_{0}:=\min _{x \in f^{-1}(1), y \in f^{-1}(0)} h(x, y)$. Then $r_{0} \geq 1$. The key property of $S_{r}$ is the following:

Lemma 8. For every $0<r \leq r_{0}, S_{r}(f)$ is a separating polyhedron for $f$. Conversely, assume that $P$ is a separating polyhedron for $f$. Then there exists $0<\epsilon \leq r_{0}$ such that $P \cap[0,1]^{n} \subseteq S_{\epsilon}$.

Proof. If $0<r \leq r_{0}, S_{r}$ is a separating polyhedron for $f$ : $S_{r}$ contains all accepting inputs $x$ of $f$ since for every rejecting input $y$ of $f, h(x, y) \geq r_{0} \geq r$. $S_{r}(f)$ contains no rejecting input $y$ of $f$ since $h(y, y)=0<r$.

For the second part, assume that $P$ is a separating polyhedron for $f$. Fix $y \in f^{-1}(0)$. We claim that $h(x, y)>0$ for every $x \in P \cap[0,1]^{n}$. This is because $h(x, y)=0$ implies $x=y$ on $x \in[0,1]^{n}$. Since $P \cap[0,1]^{n}$ is compact, there exists $\epsilon_{y}>0$ such that $h(x, y)>\epsilon_{y}$ for every $x \in P$. Setting $\epsilon:=\min _{y \in f^{-1}(0)} \epsilon_{y}$ shows that $P \cap[0,1]^{n} \subseteq S_{\epsilon}$.

Following [29, 5], we now define slack matrices. Let $V$ be a sequence $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{m_{1}}$ of points in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $L(x)$ a system $\ell_{1}(x) \geq b_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{m_{2}}(x) \geq b_{m_{2}}$ of inequalities in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. The slack matrix with respect to $V$ and $L(x)$ is the $m_{2} \times m_{1}$ matrix $T$ such that

$$
T_{i, j}=\ell_{i}\left(v_{j}\right)-b_{i}
$$

Let $P_{0}:=\operatorname{conv}(V)$ be the convex hull of $V$ and $P_{1}:=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: L(x)\right.$ holds $\}$. If $P_{0} \subseteq P_{1}$ then $T$ is non-negative. In [5], we can find:

Lemma 9 (5]). Let $P_{0} \subseteq P_{1}$ and $T$ be as above. Define $x c\left(P_{0}, P_{1}\right)$ as the minimum $x c(P)$ over all polyhedra with $P_{0} \subseteq P \subseteq P_{1}$. Then

$$
r k_{+} T-1 \leq x c\left(P_{0}, P_{1}\right) \leq r k_{+} T .
$$

Theorem 4 (restated). Let $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a Boolean function. Let $R:=\min _{\epsilon>0} r k_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J)$. Then $R-2 n-1 \leq \operatorname{sep}(f) \leq R$.

Proof. We first observe that $M(f)-\epsilon J$ is a slack matrix defined by the points $\operatorname{conv}\left(f^{-1}(1)\right)$ and the inequalities in (2) defining $S_{\epsilon}$. Hence, if $M(f)-\epsilon J$ is non-negative then $S_{\epsilon}$ is a separating polyhedron by Lemma 8. By the previous lemma, $\operatorname{sep}(f) \leq \operatorname{xc}\left(S_{\epsilon}\right) \leq \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M-\epsilon J)$ and so $\operatorname{sep}(f) \leq R$. To prove the opposite inequality, assume that $P$ is a separating polyhedron for $f$ with $\operatorname{xc}(P)=$ $t$. Let $P^{\prime}:=P \cap[0,1]^{n}$. Then $x c\left(P^{\prime}\right) \leq t+2 n$. By Lemma 8 there exists $\epsilon>0$ such that $P^{\prime} \subseteq S_{\epsilon}$. Since $f^{-1}(1) \subseteq P^{\prime}$, Lemma 9 gives $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J) \leq$ $\mathrm{xc}\left(P^{\prime}\right)+1$. Therefore, $R \leq t+2 n+1$ and so $t \geq R-2 n-1$.

### 3.1 Consequences and comments

As a consequence of Theorem 4. Proposition 7 implies Theorem 3 ,
Corollary (Theorem 3 restated). Let $f$ be an n-variate Boolean function. Then $\min _{\epsilon>0} r k_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J) \leq O(C(f)+n)$. Furthermore, there exists an $f$ such that $\min _{\epsilon>0} r k_{+}(M(f)-\epsilon J) \geq 2^{\Omega(n)}$.

Moreover, we also obtain that non-negative rank is heavily discontinuous:

Corollary 10. For every $n$ there exists $n \times n$ matrix $M$ with positive integer entries such that $r k_{+}(M)=O(\log (n))$ but for every $\epsilon>0$, $r k_{+}(M-\epsilon J) \geq n^{\Omega(1)}$.

Another implication is that $\operatorname{sep}(f)$ and $\operatorname{sep}(\neg f)$ are almost the same, a fact not entirely apparent from the definition of $\operatorname{sep}(f)$ :

Corollary 11. $|\operatorname{sep}(f)-\operatorname{sep}(\neg f)| \leq 2 n+1$.
Proof. Note that $M(\neg f)$ is the transposition of $M(f)$ and apply Theorem 4 .
Let $H_{n}$ be the $2^{n} \times 2^{n}$ matrix whose rows and columns are indexed by Boolean strings of length $n$ and $\left(H_{n}\right)_{x, y}$ is the Hamming distance of $x$ and $y$. Note that $M(f)$ is a submatrix of $H_{n}$ for every $n$-variate Boolean function $f$.

Observation 12. (i). $r k\left(H_{n}+a J_{2^{n}}\right)=n+1$ whenever $a \geq 0$.
(ii). $n+\Omega(\log n) \leq r k_{+}\left(H_{n}\right) \leq 2 n$.

Proof. Let $V$ be the $2^{n} \times n$ matrix whose rows consist of all 0,1 -vectors of length $n$ and let $\jmath$ the all-ones column vector of length $2^{n}$. Then $H_{n}+a J_{2^{n}}=$ $\left(V, J_{2^{n}, n}-V, \jmath\right) \cdot\left(J_{2^{n}, n}-V, V, a \jmath\right)^{t}$. The $2 n+1$ columns of $\left(V, J_{2^{n}, n}-V, \jmath\right)$ lie in the linear span of the columns of $V$ and $\jmath$ which implies that $\operatorname{rk}\left(a J_{2^{n}}+H_{n}\right) \leq n+1$. Setting $a:=0$, this also show $\operatorname{rk}_{+}\left(H_{n}\right) \leq 2 n$. To see that $\operatorname{rk}\left(a J_{2^{n}}+H_{n}\right) \geq n+1$, consider the $(n+1) \times(n+1)$ submatrix of $H_{n}$ with rows and columns indexed by strings of hamming weight 0 or 1 . The matrix has full rank. The lower bound $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(H_{n}\right) \geq n+\Omega(\log n)$ follows by noting that $H_{n}$ has zero diagonal, is non-zero everywhere else, and applying the result [7] (see also [4]).

The following example shows that some dependency on $n$ in Theorem 4 is inevitable.

Example. Let $f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ be the Boolean function such that $f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=$ $x_{1}$. Then $\operatorname{sep}(f)=0$ because accepting and rejecting inputs can be distinguished by the equation $x_{1}=1$ (recall that equations do not contribute to separation complexity). On the other hand, $M(f)$ is the matrix $J_{2^{n-1}}+H_{n-1}$. Hence, $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M(f)-\epsilon J_{2^{n-1}}\right) \geq n$ for every $\epsilon>0$.

A different example would come from $f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right):=\bigvee_{i<j} x_{i} \wedge x_{j}$, which is more convincing in that $f$ depends on all its variables. The reason for the gap between $R-2 n-1$ and $R$ in Theorem 4 is the following. $R$ is an upper bound on the extension complexity of a separating polyhedron $P$, whereas $R-1$ is a lower bound on extension complexity of $P$ intersected with $[0,1]^{n}$. Indeed, the gap would disappear had we defined separation complexity differently, by explicitly requiring the separating polytope $P$ to satisfy $P \subseteq[0,1]^{n}$. This would be at the cost of replacing $M(f)$ and $J$ in Theorem 4 by more complicated matrices.

### 3.2 On continuity of non-negative rank

We now present some facts about the behavior of $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M+\epsilon N)$. We start with a general fact:

Observation 13. Let $M, N$ be matrices of the same dimension. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $T_{n}:=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}: r k_{+}(M+x N) \leq n\right\}$. Then $T_{n}$ is a finite union of closed intervals. In particular, if $M$ is non-negative and $\operatorname{supp}(N) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(M)$, then $\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} r k_{+}(M+\epsilon N)$ exists and $r k_{+}(M) \leq \lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} r k_{+}(M+\epsilon N)$.

Proof. That $T_{n}$ is a closed set follows from the definition of $\mathrm{rk}_{+}$. That it is a finite union of intervals follows from Tarski-Seidenberg theorem (see, e.g., [3]).

Recall that, by Corollary $10, \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M-\epsilon J)$ can be much larger than $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M)$, even if $J$ is a rank-one positive matrix. In the rest of this section, we want to estimate how large the gap between $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M)$ and $\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M+\epsilon N)$ can be. The following lemma is interesting in its own right. It asserts that we can add to $M$ a positive rank one matrix $V$ so that $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M+V)$ and $\operatorname{rk}(M+V)$ are virtually the same. Geometrically, this can be interpreted as saying that every finite set of points in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is contained inside a polytope with $n+1$ facets.

Lemma 14. Let $V, N \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ where $V$ is a positive rank-one matrix. Then for every $t \geq 0$ large enough, $r k_{+}(N+t V) \leq r k(N)+1$.

Proof. Let $r:=\operatorname{rk}(N)$. Fix $t_{0}$ such that $N_{1}:=N+t_{0} V$ is non-negative. We can write $V=v_{1} v_{2}^{t}$ where $v_{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}, v_{2} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ are column vectors. Since $\operatorname{rk}\left(N_{1}\right) \leq$ $r+1$, we can write $N_{1}=A B$ with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times(r+1)}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{(r+1) \times n}$. Furthermore, we can choose $A, B$ in such a way that $A$ is non-negative and $A w=v_{1}$, where $w$ is a positive vector. To see that, pick a basis $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{r}$ of the columns of $N$. Let the columns of $A$ consist of the vectors $v_{1}-\delta u_{1}, \ldots, v_{1}-\delta u_{r}, v_{1}+\delta \sum_{i=1}^{r} u_{i}$, where $\delta>0$ is small enough. Then $v_{1}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{r}$ lie in the span of columns of $A$ and $A \cdot(1, \ldots, 1)^{t}=(r+1) v_{1}$.

To proceed, let $t_{1}$ be such that $B+t_{1} w v_{2}^{t}$ is non-negative. Then $N_{2}:=$ $A\left(B+t_{1} w v_{2}^{t}\right)$ has non-negative rank at most $r+1$. Furthermore,

$$
N_{2}=A B+t_{1} A w v_{2}^{t}=N_{1}+t_{1} v_{1} v_{2}^{t}=N+t_{0} V+t_{1} V
$$

and hence $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(N+t V) \leq r+1$ for every $t$ large enough.
Theorem 15. Let $M, N$ be matrices of the same dimension with $M$ nonnegative and $\operatorname{supp}(N) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(M)$. Then
(i). $\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} r k_{+}(M+\epsilon N) \leq 2^{r k_{+}(M)}(r k(N)+2)$,
(ii). $\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} r k_{+}(M+\epsilon N) \leq 2^{r k_{+}(M)+2}+r k(N)$, assuming $M$ is positive.

Proof. We first note that (i) implies (ii) If $M$ is positive, write $M+\epsilon N=$ $\left(M-\epsilon^{1 / 2} V\right)+\epsilon^{1 / 2}\left(V+\epsilon^{1 / 2} N\right)$, where $V$ is a positive rank-one matrix. Using the previous lemma and part $(i)$ we obtain $\operatorname{rk}_{+}\left(V+\epsilon^{1 / 2} N\right) \leq \operatorname{rk}(N)+1$ and $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M-\epsilon^{1 / 2} V\right) \leq 3 \cdot 2^{\mathrm{rk}}{ }_{+}(M)$, if $\epsilon$ is small enough. This gives $\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M+$ $\epsilon N) \leq 3 \cdot 2^{\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M)}+\mathrm{rk}(N)+1 \leq 4 \cdot 2^{\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M)}+\operatorname{rk}(N)$.

Part (ii) is proved by induction on $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M)$. Fix $k \in \mathbb{N}$. For $r \in \mathbb{N}$, let $g(r)$ denote the smallest $s$ so that

$$
\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M+\epsilon N) \leq s
$$

for every $M, N$ with $\operatorname{rk}_{+}(M) \leq r, \operatorname{rk}(N) \leq k$, and $\operatorname{supp}(N) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(M)$. Lemma 14 implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(1) \leq k+1 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now want to bound $g(r+1)$ in terms of $g(r)$. Let $M, N \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be such that $\operatorname{supp}(N) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(M), \operatorname{rk}(N) \leq k, \operatorname{rk}_{+}(M)=r+1$. We have $M=V+M^{\prime}$, where $V$ is a non-negative rank-one matrix and $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M^{\prime}\right)=r$. We have $\operatorname{supp}(V)=$ $S \times T$, where $S \subseteq[n], T \subseteq[m]$. For a matrix $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, and $S^{\prime} \subseteq[n], T^{\prime} \subseteq[m]$ let $Q\left(S^{\prime}, T^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be obtained by replacing every row not in $S^{\prime}$ and every column not in $T^{\prime}$ by zero in $Q$. Furthermore, let

$$
Q(0):=Q(S, T), Q(1):=Q(S,[m] \backslash T), Q(2):=Q([n] \backslash S,[m])
$$

This guarantees that $Q(0), Q(1), Q(2)$ have disjoint support and $Q=Q_{0}+Q_{1}+$ $Q_{2}$. Hence,
$(M+\epsilon N)=\sum_{i=0}^{2}(M(i)+\epsilon N(i))$, and $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M+\epsilon N) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{2} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(i)+\epsilon N(i))$.
By definition, $V=V(0)$, and $M(0)+\epsilon N(0)$ can be written as $M^{\prime}(0)+(V+\epsilon N(0))$ where $\operatorname{supp}(N(0) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(V)$. Using Lemma 14, we have

$$
\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(0)+\epsilon N(0)) \leq r+k+1
$$

if $\epsilon$ is small enough. Furthermore, $V(1), V(2)$ are zero matrices, and we have $M(i)+\epsilon N(i)=M^{\prime}(i)+\epsilon N(i)$ for $i \in\{1,2\}$. Since, $\operatorname{rk}_{+}\left(M^{\prime}(i) \leq r\right.$ and $\operatorname{rk}\left(N_{i}\right) \leq$ $k$, we have

$$
\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(i)+\epsilon N(i)) \leq g(r), \text { for } i \in\{1,2\}
$$

We have therefore established that

$$
g(r+1) \leq r+k+1+2 g(r)
$$

Every such recursion has a solution $g(r) \leq a 2^{r}-r-k-2$. To meet the initial condition (3), it is enough to set $a:=k+2$. Hence we have proved $g(r) \leq(k+2) 2^{r}-r-k-2 \leq(k+2) 2^{r}$, as required.

### 3.3 Strict rank rk $_{++}$

Recall the definition of $\mathrm{rk}_{++}(M)$ in Section 2.2 We now explain that Theorem 4 can be stated in terms of the strict rank of $M(f)$. We also give some bounds on $\mathrm{rk}_{++}$in terms of $\mathrm{rk}_{+}$.

The following lemma gives some equivalent definitions of the strict rank:
Lemma 16. Let $M$ be an $m \times n$ positive matrix. Then the following are equivalent:
(i). $r k_{++}(M) \leq r$
(ii). $M$ can be written as $M=V_{1}+\cdots+V_{r}$ where $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{r}$ are non-negative rank-one matrices and $V_{1}$ is positive.
(iii). $M$ can be written as $M=A B$, where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times r}$ is non-negative and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$ is positive.

Proof. (i) implies (ii) and (iiii) by definition of $\mathrm{rk}_{++}(M)$.
$(i i) \Longrightarrow(i i i)$. If $M$ is as in (iii) then it can be written as $M=A B$ where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times r}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$ are non-negative and, moreover, the first column of $A$ and the first row of $B$ are positive. Let $E_{\delta}:=I_{r}+\delta v_{1}^{t} v_{2}$ where $v_{1}=(0,1, \ldots, 1)$, $v_{2}=(1,0, \ldots, 0)$. If $\delta>0$ then $E_{\delta} B$ is positive. If $\delta$ is small enough then $A E_{\delta}^{-1}$ is non-negative. Hence, $\left(A E_{\delta}^{-1}\right)\left(E_{\delta} B\right)$ is as required in (iii)
$\left[(i i i) \Longrightarrow\left[(i)\right.\right.$. Let $A, B$ be as in the assumption of $\left(\right.$ (iii) Let $D_{\delta}:=I_{r}+\delta J_{r}$. If $\delta$ is small enough then $D_{\delta}^{-1} B$ is positive. Since $M$ is positive, every row of $A$ is non-zero and so $A D_{\delta}$ is positive. Hence $M=\left(A D_{\delta}\right)\left(D_{\delta}^{-1} B\right)$ is a positive factorization of $M$.

For example, part $(i i i)$ of the proposition implies that $\mathrm{rk}_{++}(M) \leq \min (m, n)$. Furthermore:

Proposition 17. Let $M, V$ be positive matrices of the same dimension such that $V$ has rank one. Then

$$
\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}} r k_{+}(M-\epsilon V)-1 \leq r k_{++}(M) \leq \min _{\epsilon>0} r k_{+}(M-\epsilon V)+1 .
$$

Proof. Let $r:=\mathrm{rk}_{++}(M)$. By definition, $M=V_{1}+\cdots+V_{r}$, where $V_{i}$ are positive rank one matrices. By Lemma 14. $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(V_{1}-\epsilon V\right) \leq 2$, for every $\epsilon>0$ sufficiently small. This gives $\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0_{+}}(M-\epsilon V) \leq r+1$. Furthermore, $M=(M-\epsilon V)+\epsilon V$. Hence if $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M-\epsilon V)=s$, Lemma 16 part (ii) gives $r \leq s+1$.

Using Theorem 4, Proposition 17 implies:
Corollary 18. Let $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a Boolean function. Then $r k_{++}(M(f))-$ $2(n+1) \leq \operatorname{sep}(f) \leq r k_{++}(M(f))+1$.

We shall note below that the bound in Corollary 18 can be slightly improved. As for the connection between $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M)$ and $\mathrm{rk}_{++}(M)$, we observe:

Proposition 19. (i). If $M$ is positive then $r k_{++}(M) \leq O\left(2^{r k_{+}(M)}\right)$.
(ii). For every $n$, there exists $n \times n$ matrix $M$ with positive integer entries such that $r k_{+}(M)=O(\log (n))$ but $r k_{++}(M) \geq n^{\Omega(1)}$.

Proof. The first part follows from Theorem 15 and Proposition 17. The second part follows from Proposition 17 and Corollary 10.

Strict rank can be interpreted geometrically. Let $P_{0}:=\operatorname{conv}\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{m_{1}}\right) \subseteq$ $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a polytope and $P_{1} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a set defined by strict inequalities $\ell_{1}(x)>$ $b_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{m_{2}}(x)>b_{m_{2}}$. Define the slack matrix $T \in \mathbb{R}^{m_{2} \times m_{1}}$ as above, i.e., $S_{i, j}=\ell_{i}\left(v_{j}\right)-b_{i}$. If $P_{0} \subseteq P_{1}, T$ is a positive matrix. Without a proof, we remark that Lemma 9 can be stated in terms of $\mathrm{rk}_{++}(T)$ :
(i). Assume $P_{0} \subseteq P_{1}$. Define $\mathrm{xc}\left(P_{0}, P_{1}\right)$ as the minimum $\mathrm{xc}(P)$ over all polyhedra $P_{0} \subseteq P \subseteq P_{1}$. Then $\mathrm{rk}_{++} T-1 \leq \mathrm{xc}\left(P_{0}, P_{1}\right) \leq \mathrm{rk}_{++} T$.
(ii). The proof of Theorem 4 could be carried out directly using $\mathrm{rk}_{++}(M(f))$ giving a slight improvement of Corollary 18

$$
\mathrm{rk}_{++}(M(f))-2 n-1 \leq \operatorname{sep}(f) \leq \mathrm{rk}_{++}(M(f)) .
$$

### 3.4 Monotone polyhedra

We now focus on monotone Boolean functions. We present an analogy of Theorem 4 for monotone functions and monotone polyhedra. We define monotone separation complexity of $f$ which captures how hard it is do distinguish accepting inputs of $f$ from rejecting inputs by means of a linear program in which the variables of $f$ have non-negative coefficients. This is interesting for at least two reasons. First, in this restricted version there is a greater hope to prove unconditional lower bounds for an explicit function $f$. Second, such lower bounds may have applications in proof complexity, see [15].

For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, we write $x \leq y$ if $y-x$ is non-negative. A polyhedron $P$ will be called monotone if for every $x \leq y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, x \in P$ implies $y \in P$. One can see that a monotone $P$ can be defined as $\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: A x \geq b\right\}$ where $A$ is non-negative. For a polyhedron $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$, let

$$
P^{*}:=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: \exists y \in P, x \geq y\right\}
$$

be the monotone closure of $P$. Recall that a Boolean function $f$ is monotone if for every $x \leq y \in\{0,1\}^{n}, f(x)=1$ implies $f(y)=1$. Given a monotone Boolean function $f$, we define its monotone separation complexity, $\operatorname{sep}_{+}(f)$, as the smallest $r$ so that there exists a polyhedron $P$ with $\mathrm{xc}(P)=r$ such that $P^{*}$ is a separating polyhedron for $f$. In other words, there exists a polyhedron $Q \subseteq$ $\mathbb{R}^{n+d}$ which can be defined using $r$ inequalities (and any number of equalities) such that

$$
f^{-1}(1)=\left\{x \in\{0,1\}^{n}: \exists y \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \exists z \in \mathbb{R}^{d}, x \geq y,(y, z) \in Q\right\}
$$

We do not include the inequalities $x \geq y$ as contributing to the complexity of the system. An equally reasonable definition would be to define $\operatorname{sep}_{+}(f)$ as the smallest extension complexity of a monotone separating polyhedron for $f$. But note that $\mathrm{xc}\left(P^{*}\right) \leq \mathrm{xc}(P)+n$ and hence the two alternatives are related:
$(i)$. If $P$ is a monotone separating polyhedron for $f$ then $\operatorname{sep}_{+}(f) \leq \operatorname{xc}(P)$,
(ii). There exists a monotone separating polyhedron $P$ for $f$ with $\operatorname{xc}(P) \leq$ $\operatorname{sep}_{+}(f)+n$.

For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, let

$$
h_{+}(x, y):=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}\left(1-y_{i}\right) .
$$

If $x, y$ are Boolean vectors, $h_{+}(x, y)$ equals the number of coordinates $i$ such that $x_{i}=1, y_{i}=0$. Define $M_{+}(f)$ as the $\left|f^{-1}(0)\right| \times\left|f^{-1}(1)\right|$ matrix whose rows are indexed by rejecting inputs and columns by accepting inputs of $f$ and, given $y \in f^{-1}(0), x \in f^{-1}(1)$,

$$
M_{+}(f)_{y, x}:=h_{+}(x, y)
$$

We note that $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M_{+}(f)\right) \leq n$. An analogy of Theorem 4 is the following:
Theorem 20. Let $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a monotone Boolean function. Then $\min _{\epsilon>0} r k_{+}\left(M_{+}(f)-\epsilon J\right)-2 n-1 \leq s e p_{+}(f) \leq \min _{\epsilon>0} r k_{+}\left(M_{+}(f)-\epsilon J\right)$.

Proof. For a parameter $r$, let $S_{r}(f)$ be the polyhedron

$$
S_{r}:=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: \forall y \in f^{-1}(0), h_{+}(x, y) \geq r\right\}
$$

Let $r_{0}$ be the minimum $h_{+}(x, y)$ over $x \in f^{-1}(1)$ and $y \in f^{-1}(0)$. Then $r_{0} \geq 1$.
Claim. For every $0<r \leq r_{0}, S_{r}$ is a monotone separating polyhedron for $f$. Conversely, assume $P$ is a polyhedron such that $P^{*}$ is separating for $f$. Then $P \cap[0,1]^{n} \subseteq S_{\epsilon}$ for some $\epsilon>0$.

Proof of the claim. $S_{r}$ is monotone because it is defined by inequalities with non-negative coefficients. If $r \leq r_{0}, S_{r} \supseteq f^{-1}(1)$ by the definition of $r_{0}$. If $r>0, S_{r}$ contains no rejecting input $y$ because $h_{+}(y, y)=0$. For the second part, assume that $P^{*}$ is a separating polyhedron for $f$. Fix $y \in f^{-1}(0)$. Then for every $x \in P \cap[0,1]^{n}, h_{+}(x, y)>0$. For otherwise, assume that $h_{+}(x, y)=0$. Since $x \in[0,1]^{n}$, we then have $x \leq y$ and so $y \in P^{*}$ - contradicting the assumption that $P^{*}$ is separating. Hence there exists $\epsilon_{y}>0$ such that for every $x \in P \cap[0,1]^{n}, h_{+}(x, y) \geq \epsilon_{y}$. Setting $\epsilon:=\min _{y} \epsilon_{y}$ gives $P \cap[0,1]^{n} \subseteq S_{\epsilon}$.

The rest of the proof proceeds using the Claim in the same manner as the proof of Theorem 4.

### 3.4.1 Gap between $\mathrm{rk}_{+}$and $\mathrm{rk}_{++}$implies a lower bound on sep ${ }_{+}$

As in Corollary 18, Theorem 20 could be stated in terms of $\mathrm{rk}_{++}\left(M_{+}(f)\right)$. Since $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(M_{+}(f)\right)$ is small, this shows that any lower bound on $\operatorname{sep}_{+}(f)$ implies a gap between $\mathrm{rk}_{++}(M(f))$ and $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M(f))$. We now note that the converse is also true: any separation between $\mathrm{rk}_{++}$and $\mathrm{rk}_{+}$yields a lower bound on $\operatorname{sep}_{+}(f)$ for some $f$.

Let $N \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be a positive matrix of non-negative rank $r$, together with its non-negative factorization $N=A \cdot B$, where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$. With $N$, we associate the following monotone Boolean function $f_{N}:\{0,1\}^{r} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$. Given $x \in\{0,1\}^{r}, f_{N}(x)=1$ iff there exists a column $u$ of $B$ with $\operatorname{supp}(u) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(x)$. In other words $f_{N}$ accepts $x$ if there is a column $u$ of $B$ and $a>0$ such that $a x \geq u$.

Observation 21. $\operatorname{sep}_{+}\left(f_{N}\right) \geq r k_{++}(N)-(4 r+2)$.
Proof. Let $A_{0}$ be the 0,1 -matrix with $\operatorname{supp}\left(A_{0}\right)=\operatorname{supp}(A)$ and similarly for $B_{0}$ and $B$. Let $N_{0}:=A_{0} \cdot B_{0}$. There exists $\delta>0$ such that $\mathrm{rk}_{+}\left(N-\delta N_{0}\right) \leq 2 r$. Since $N=\left(N-\delta N_{0}\right)+\delta N_{0}$, Lemma 16 part (ii) implies

$$
\mathrm{rk}_{++}(N) \leq 2 r+\mathrm{rk}_{++}\left(N_{0}\right)
$$

Let $N_{0}^{\prime}$ be the matrix obtained by removing from $N_{0}$ identical rows and columns. From definition of $f_{N}$, we obtain that $N_{0}^{\prime}$ is a submatrix of $M_{+}\left(f_{N}\right)$. Theorem 20 and Proposition 17 give that $\operatorname{sep}_{+}\left(f_{N}\right) \geq \mathrm{rk}_{++}\left(M_{+}\left(f_{N}\right)\right)-2(r+1)$. This gives $\operatorname{sep}_{+}\left(f_{N}\right) \geq \operatorname{rk}_{++}\left(N_{0}^{\prime}\right)-2(r+1) \geq \mathrm{rk}_{++}(N)-4 r-2$.

## 4 Monotone arithmetic circuits

We now want to prove Theorem 1. A polynomial $f$ will be called homogeneous, if every monomial in $f$ with non-zero coefficient has the same degree. If $f$ has degree $d$, we can always write $f=\sum_{k=0}^{d} f^{(k)}$ where $f^{(k)}$ is homogeneous of degree $k$. Let $C$ be an arithmetic circuit. Given a gate $u$ in $C$, let $\hat{u}$ be the polynomial computed by $u$ and $\operatorname{deg}(u):=\operatorname{deg}(\hat{u})$ be its degree. $C$ will be called homogeneous, if for every sum gate $u_{1}+u_{2}$ in $C$, we have $\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{1}\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{2}\right)$.

Theorem 1 relies on the following main lemma:
Lemma 22. Let $C$ be a monotone homogeneous circuit of size $s$ in variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. Then to every gate $u$ in $C$ we can assign $R_{u}>0$ such that for all gates

$$
R_{u} \cdot\left(\sum_{i \in[n]} x_{i}\right)^{\operatorname{deg}(u)}-\hat{u}
$$

can be simulateously computed by a monotone circuit of size $O(s+n \log n)$.
Proof. Let $L:=x_{1}+\cdots+x_{n}$. By induction on the depth of $u$, we construct $R_{u}$ as well as the circuit computing $h_{u}:=R_{u} \cdot L^{\operatorname{deg}(u)}-\hat{u}$.

If $u$ is an input gate, we let $R_{u}=u$, if $u$ is a constant, and $R_{u}=1$, if $u$ is a variable $x_{j}$. In the former case, $h_{u}=0$, and the latter, $h_{u}=L-x_{j}=$ $\sum_{i \in[n] \backslash\{j\}} x_{i}$.

If $u=u_{1}+u_{2}$ is a sum gate, let $R_{u}:=R_{u_{1}}+R_{u_{2}}$. Since $\operatorname{deg}(u)=\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{1}\right)=$ $\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{2}\right)$, this guarantees

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{u}=h_{u_{1}}+h_{u_{2}} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $u=u_{1} \times u_{2}$ is a product gate, let $R_{u}:=R_{u_{1}} R_{u_{2}}$. We have $\operatorname{deg}(u)=$ $\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{1}\right)+\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{2}\right)$, and hence

$$
\begin{align*}
h_{u} & =R_{u_{1}} R_{u_{2}} L^{\operatorname{deg}(u)}-\hat{u}_{1} \hat{u}_{2} \\
& =\left(R_{u_{1}} L^{\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{1}\right)}-\hat{u}_{1}\right) R_{u_{2}} L^{\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{2}\right)}+\hat{u}_{1}\left(R_{u_{2}} L^{\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{2}\right)}-\hat{u}_{2}\right) \\
& =h_{u_{1}} R_{u_{2}} L^{\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{2}\right)}+\hat{u}_{1} h_{u_{2}} \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

To construct the circuit, we first note that:
(i). $L-x_{1}, \ldots, L-x_{n}$ can be simultaneously computed by a monotone circuit of size $O(n \log n)$,
(ii). all powers $L^{k}$ such that $k$ is the degree of some gate in $C$ can be simultaneously computed by a circuit of size $O(s+n)$.

The circuit in (i) is easily constructed recursively (doubling $n$ at each step). For part (ii), remove from $C$ all its sum gates, by replacing each sum gate by one of its inputs. Next, replace each constant in the circuit by 1 and each variable by $L$.

Part (i) means that all $h_{u}$ 's corresponding to input gates can be simultaneously computed by a monotone circuit of size $O(n \log n)$. Equations (4) and (5) imply that, for a non-input gate $u$, we can compute $h_{u}$ using $h_{u_{1}}, h_{u_{2}}$, polynomials from (i) or (ii), plus a constant number of extra gates. This gives overall complexity $O(s+n \log n)$.

The following lemma is quite standard and we omit the proof:
Lemma 23. Assume that $f$ has degree $d$ and an arithmetic circuit of size $s$. Then $f$ can be written as $f=f_{+}-f_{-}$where $f_{+}, f_{-}$can both be computed by a monotone arithmetic circuit of size $O(s)$. Furthermore, the homogeneous parts $f_{+}^{(0)}, \ldots, f_{+}^{(d)}, f_{-}^{(0)}, \ldots, f_{-}^{(d)}$ can be simultaneously computed by a homogeneous monotone circuit of size $O\left(s d^{2}\right)$.
Theorem 1 (restated). Let $f \in \mathbb{R}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ be a polynomial of degree $d$ which can be computed by a circuit of size s. Then there exists $\epsilon_{0}>0$ such for every $0<\epsilon<\epsilon_{0}$, the polynomial $\left(1+\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_{i}\right)^{d}+\epsilon f$ has a monotone circuit of size $O\left(s d^{2}+n \log n\right)$.
Proof. Write $f=f_{+}-f_{-}$as in the previous lemma. Then also $f=f_{+}^{\prime}-f_{-}^{\prime}$, where $f_{+}^{\prime}=\sum_{k=0}^{d} f_{+}^{(k)}$ and $f_{-}^{\prime}=\sum_{k=0}^{d} f_{-}^{(k)}$. Setting $L:=\sum_{i \in[n]} x_{i}$, Lemma 22 gives a monotone circuit simultaneously computing $R_{k} L^{k}-f_{-}^{(k)}, 0 \leq k \leq d$, of
size $O\left(s d^{2}+n \log n\right)$. Let $R:=\sum_{k=0}^{d} R_{k}$. Then $R(L+1)^{d}-\sum_{k=0}^{d} R_{k} L^{k}$ has a monotone circuit of size $O(n+d)$. Hence we obtain a monotone circuit for

$$
\left(R(L+1)^{d}-\sum_{k=0}^{d} R_{k} L^{k}\right)+\left(\sum_{k=0}^{d} R_{k} L^{k}-f_{-}^{(k)}\right)=R(L+1)^{d}-f_{-}^{\prime}
$$

of size $O\left(s d^{2}+n \log n\right)$. This gives the required circuit for $R(L+1)^{d}+f=$ $f_{+}^{\prime}+\left(R(L+1)^{d}-f_{-}^{\prime}\right)$. The same holds for every $R^{\prime} \geq R$. To conclude the theorem, it is enough to set $\epsilon_{0}:=(R)^{-1}$.

### 4.1 Modifications of Theorem 1

The theorem can be reproduced in many shapes and forms, depending on the choice of the "universal polynomial" and the computational model one has in mind. The polynomial $\left(\sum_{i \in[n]} x_{i}+1\right)^{d}$ could be replaced by several other polynomials $U$ - the minimum requirements being that $U$ contains all monomials of degree $\leq d$ and that it has a small monotone circuit. In Proposition 25 below, we give an example of such an alternative choice. Moreover, the same argument applies to restricted models such as multilinear circuits or bounded-depth circuits, which we also discuss below.

Let

$$
H_{n}^{d}=\sum_{0 \leq k_{1}, \ldots, k_{n} \leq d: \sum k_{i} \leq d} x_{1}^{k_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{k_{n}}
$$

be the complete symmetric polynomial of degree $d$ in variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} . H_{n}^{d}$ contains all monomials of degree at most $d$ in $n$ variables with coefficient 1 . It has the same set of monomials as $\left(\sum_{i \in[n]} x_{i}+1\right)^{d}$, but $H_{n}^{d}$ has zero-one coefficients. We note that it can recursively defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{0}^{d}=1, H_{n}^{d}=\sum_{j=0}^{d} x_{n}^{j} \cdot H_{n-1}^{d-j}, \text { if } n>0 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

which shows that $H_{n}^{0}, \ldots, H_{n}^{d}$ can be simultaneously computed by a monotone circuit of size $O\left(n d^{2}\right)$.

Lemma 24. There exists $r=r(n, d)>0$ such that $r H_{n}^{d}-\left(1+\sum_{i \in[n]} x_{i}\right)^{d}$ has a monotone circuit of size $O\left(n d^{2}\right)$.

Proof. Let

$$
h_{n}^{k}(r):=r H_{n}^{k}-\left(1+\sum_{i \in[n]} x_{i}\right)^{k}
$$

We shall construct a sequence $r_{0}, r_{1}, \ldots$ of positive numbers such that for every $n$, the polynomials $h_{n}^{0}\left(r_{n}\right), \ldots, h_{n}^{d}\left(r_{n}\right)$ can be simultaneously computed by a monotone circuit of size $O\left(n d^{2}\right)$.

Let $r_{0}:=1$. Assume we have already constructed $r_{n-1}$. Setting $\ell:=$ $\sum_{i \in[n-1]} x_{i}+1, \sqrt{6}$ gives

$$
\begin{align*}
h_{n}^{k}(r) & =\sum_{j=0}^{k} x_{n}^{j}\left(r H_{n-1}^{k-j}-\binom{k}{j} \ell^{k-j}\right) \\
& =\sum_{j=0}^{k} x_{n}^{j}\binom{k}{j} h_{n-1}^{k-j}\left(r_{n-1}\right)+\sum_{j=0}^{d} x_{n}^{j} H_{n-1}^{k-j}\left(r-\binom{k}{j} r_{n-1}\right) . \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

It is now enough to set $r_{n}$ large enough so that all the terms $r_{n}-\binom{k}{j} r_{n-1}$ are non-negative. Then (7) allows to compute $h_{n}^{k}\left(r_{n}\right)$ from $h_{n}^{0}\left(r_{n-1}\right), \ldots, h_{n}^{d}\left(r_{n-1}\right)$ and $H_{n}^{0}, \ldots, H_{n}^{d}$ using $O(d)$ extra gates.

The following is an analogy of Theorem 1 :
Proposition 25. Let $f \in \mathbb{R}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ be a polynomial of degree $d$ which can be computed by a circuit of size s. Then there exists $\epsilon_{0}>0$ such for every $0<\epsilon<$ $\epsilon_{0}$, the polynomial $H_{n}^{d}+\epsilon f$ has a monotone circuit of size $O\left((s+n) d^{2}+n \log n\right)$.

Proof. By Theorem 1, we have a small monotone circuit for $U+\epsilon f$ for every $0<\epsilon<\epsilon_{0}^{\prime}$, where $U:=\left(1+\sum_{i \in[n]} x_{i}\right)^{d}$. Lemma 24 gives a small circuit for $r H_{n}^{d}-U$ for some $r>0$. Hence $r H_{n}^{d}+\epsilon f=r H_{n}^{d}-U+(U+\epsilon f)$ has a small circuit for every $\epsilon<\epsilon_{0}^{\prime}$ and it is enough to set $\epsilon_{0}:=\epsilon_{0}^{\prime} / R$.

As an illustration, we present other possible variants of Theorem 1 . We choose the examples of multilinear circuits, $\Sigma \Pi \Sigma$-circuits and high-degree computations. Recall that a syntactically multilinear circuit [16] is an arithmetic circuit $C$ such that for every product gate $u_{1} \times u_{2}$, the sub-circuits of $C$ rooted at $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$ share no common variable. We define $\Sigma \Pi \Sigma$-circuit of type ( $m, k$ ) to be an expression of the form

$$
\sum_{i \in[m]} \prod_{i \in[k]} f_{i, j}
$$

where $f_{i, j}$ are polynomials of degree at most one. We observe the following:
(i). Assume that $f$ has a syntactically multilinear circuit of size $s$. Then there is an $\epsilon>0$ such that $\prod_{i \in[n]}\left(x_{i}+1\right)+\epsilon f$ has a monotone circuit of size $O(s n)$.
(ii). Assume that $f$ has a $\Sigma \Pi \Sigma$ circuit of type $(m, k)$. Then there is an $\epsilon>$ 0 such that $\left(\sum_{i \in[n]} x_{i}+1\right)^{k}+\epsilon f$ has a monotone $\Sigma \Pi \Sigma$-circuit of type $\left(O\left(m k^{2}\right), k\right)$.
(iii). Assume $f \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ is a univariate polynomial with a circuit of size $s$. Then there is an $\epsilon>0$ such that $(1+x)^{2^{s}}+\epsilon f$ has a monotone circuit of size $O\left(s^{2}\right)$.

Observe that the bounds no longer depend on the degree of $f$. This is important especially in the case (iii) where the factor of $d^{2}$ in Theorem 1 would be quite meaningless. We take the liberty to omit the proofs of (i) (iii) they proceed in a similar way as Theorem 1. In the case of (ii), one must reproduce Lemma 23 in bounded depth - which can be achieved by the interpolation trick of Ben-Or (cf. [21]).

### 4.2 A comparison between Theorems 1 and 4

Let us now explain differences and similarities between the results of this section and Section 3. In order to do this, we need to bring them to a common language. For a polynomial $f$, denote $\mu(f)$ as the smallest number of non-scalar multiplications needed to compute $f$ by means of an arithmetic circuit, and similarly for $\mu_{+}(f)$ and a monotone arithmetic circuit. The results of this section could have been stated in terms of $\mu(f)$ instead of total circuit size: namely, if $\mu(f)$ is small then so is $\mu_{+}(U+\epsilon f)$, where $U$ is a suitable universal polynomial. Furthermore, let us assume that $f$ is a bilinear degree-two polynomial, $f=\sum_{i, j} M_{i, j} x_{i} y_{j}$, where $M$ is a real matrix. Observe that, up to a constant factor, $\mu(f)$ equals $\operatorname{rk}(M)$ and, if $M$ is non-negative, $\mu_{+}(f)=\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M)$. Taking the universal polynomial $U$ as $U:=\sum_{i, j} x_{i} y_{j}$, Theorem 1 could be rephrased as asserting $\mu_{+}(U+\epsilon f) \leq O(\mu(f))$ for some $\epsilon>0$. In the language of matrices, this means that $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(J+\epsilon M) \leq O(\operatorname{rk}(M))$. This is something we already know, for Lemma 14 gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{\epsilon>0} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(J+\epsilon M) \leq \operatorname{rk}(M)+1 . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this sense, we have obtained a lower bound on $\operatorname{rk}(M)$ in terms of $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(J+\epsilon M)$ - a rather paradoxical thing to say, since $\mathrm{rk}_{+}$is way harder to understand than rk. In contrast, Theorem 4 lower bounds $\operatorname{sep}(f)$ in terms of $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M-\epsilon J)$. This is similar to the bound in (8), except that the roles of $M$ and $J$ are exchanged. But the difference is significant: in (8) we have a rank-one matrix $J$ which is $\epsilon$-perturbed by a complicated matrix $M$, whereas in $\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M-\epsilon J)$, we have a complicated matrix $M$ which is $\epsilon$-perturbed by a rank-one matrix $J$.

## 5 The system AMC

As an exercise on AMC proofs, we start with a lemma:
Lemma 26. (i). Assume that $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m}$ can be simultaneously computed by a monotone circuit of size $s$ and $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$ are non-negative vectors with $\operatorname{supp}(u) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(v)$. Then $\sum_{i \in[m]} u_{i} f_{i} \preceq \sum_{i \in[m]} v_{i} f_{i}$ has an AMC-proof of size $s+O(m)$.
(ii). Assume that $f_{1} \preceq g_{1}, \ldots, f_{m} \preceq g_{m}$ can be (simultanously) proved by a proof of size $s$. Then $\sum_{i \in[m]} f_{i} \preceq \sum_{i \in[m]} g_{i}$ and $\prod_{i \in[m]} f_{i} \preceq \prod_{i \in[m]} g_{i}$ have a proof of size $s+O(m)$.

Proof. Part (ii) is obtained by applying the rule (R2) $m$ times. For (i), first prove $u_{i} f_{i} \preceq v_{i} f_{i}$ using the axioms $f_{i} \preceq f_{i}, u_{i} \preceq v_{i}$ and the rule (R2). Then we can apply part (ii).

We now prove Proposition 5 and Theorem 6 .
Proof of Proposition 5, (i) $=(i i)$ is obvious.
(iii) $\Longrightarrow(i)$ can be directly proved by induction on the number of lines in a AMC-proof: $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(g)$ holds for an axiom $f \preceq g$ and the rules preserve this property.
$(i i) \Longrightarrow(i i i)$ We can write $g=h+\epsilon f$ where $h:=g-\epsilon f$. By Lemma 26 part (i) there is an AMC-proof of $f \preceq h+\epsilon f$ and hence of $f \preceq g$.

Proof of Theorem 6. The "converse" part has been explained in the proof of Proposition 5 and it remains to prove the main part of the theorem. In order to simplify the argument, it is convenient to restrict the rule (R2). We will call an application of the rule simple, if at least one of its assumptions is an axiom (A1). That is, we modify the rule as

$$
\frac{f_{1} \preceq g_{1}, f \preceq f}{f_{1} \circ f \preceq g_{1} \circ f}, \quad(\circ \in\{+, \times\}) .
$$

We note this does not affect proof size:
Claim. Assume that $f \preceq g$ has a AMC-proof of size $s$. Then it has an AMCproof with only simple applications of (R2) of size $O(s)$.

Proof. We want to derive $f_{1} \circ f_{2} \preceq g_{1} \circ g_{2}$ from $f_{1} \preceq g_{1}$ and $f_{2} \preceq g_{2}$ by means of simple applications of (R2). To do that, we may first derive $f_{1} \circ f_{2} \preceq f_{1} \circ g_{2}$ and $f_{1} \circ g_{2} \preceq g_{1} \circ g_{2}$, and then apply (R1).

Let $f_{1} \preceq g_{1}, \ldots, f_{m} \preceq g_{m}$ be an AMC-proof of size $s$. By the Claim, we can assume that all the applications of (R2) in the proof are simple. For every $j \in$ [ $m$ ], we will find $0<\epsilon_{j} \leq 1$ such that the polynomials $\left\{f_{i}, g_{i}, g_{i}-\epsilon_{i} f_{i}: i \leq m\right\}$ can be simultaneously computed by a monotone circuit of size $O(s)$. Let

$$
h_{i}(\epsilon):=g_{i}-\epsilon f_{i} .
$$

If $f_{i} \preceq g_{i}$ is an axiom (A1), we set $\epsilon_{i}:=1$. If it is an axiom of the form (A2), fix $\epsilon_{i}$ so that $b-\epsilon_{i} a$ is non-negative. Assume $f_{i} \preceq g_{i}$, was derived from $f_{p} \preceq g_{p}$ and $f_{q} \preceq g_{q}$ by means of (R1). Then $g_{p}=f_{q}$ and $f_{p}=f_{i}, g_{q}=g_{i}$. Set $\epsilon_{i}:=\epsilon_{p} \epsilon_{q}$. This gives

$$
\begin{align*}
h_{i}\left(\epsilon_{i}\right) & =\left(g_{i}-\epsilon_{q} f_{q}\right)+\epsilon_{q}\left(f_{q}-\epsilon_{p} f_{i}\right)=\left(g_{q}-\epsilon_{q} f_{q}\right)+\epsilon_{q}\left(g_{p}-\epsilon_{p} f_{p}\right) \\
& =h_{q}\left(\epsilon_{q}\right)+\epsilon_{q} h_{p}\left(\epsilon_{p}\right) . \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

Assume $f_{i} \preceq g_{i}$, was derived from $f_{p} \preceq g_{p}$ and an axiom $f_{q} \preceq f_{q}$ by means of (R2). Then let $\epsilon_{i}:=\epsilon_{p}$. If $\circ=+$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{i}\left(\epsilon_{i}\right)=h_{p}\left(\epsilon_{p}\right)+f_{q}\left(1-\epsilon_{p}\right) . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\circ=\times$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{i}\left(\epsilon_{i}\right)=h_{p}\left(\epsilon_{p}\right) \cdot f_{q} . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equations (9)-11) give a prescription how to compute $h_{i}\left(\epsilon_{i}\right)$ from the polynomials $f_{1}, g_{1}, \ldots, f_{m}, g_{m}$ and $h_{1}\left(\epsilon_{1}\right), \ldots, h_{i-1}\left(\epsilon_{i-1}\right)$ using a constant number of additional gates. Altogether, we have shown that $\left\{f_{i}, g_{i}, g_{i}-\epsilon_{i} f_{i}: i \leq m\right\}$ can be simultaneously computed by a monotone circuit of size $O(s+m)$. Since we have explicitly defined prooof size so that $m \leq s$, we obtain that $g_{m}-\epsilon_{m} f_{m}$ has a monotone circuit of size $O(s)$.

A comment on the power of AMC In the definition of size of AMC-proof, we care only about the circuit size of the polynomials in a line $f \preceq g$, ignoring the question whether the circuits computing $f$ and $g$ make sense in the rest of the proof. For example, we can derive $f \preceq f+g$ as in Lemma 24, but it may happen that the smallest circuit for $f+g$ will have nothing to do with $f$ or $g$. In other words, we gave AMC the power to decide polynomial identities for free. For this reason, the proof of Proposition 5 also shows that $f \preceq g$ has an AMC-proof with a constant number of lines (regardless the complexity of $f$ or $g$ ). If desired, the system could be made more realistic: we could require AMC to work with arithmetic circuits to begin with, and add more syntactic axioms such as $f\left(g_{1}+g_{2}\right) \preceq f g_{1}+f g_{2}$.

### 5.1 A comparison between Theorems 1,4 and 6

Observe that Theorem 1 can be seen as a corollary of Theorem 6. For, assume that $f$ is a homogeneous polynomial of degree $d$ with monotone arithmetic circuit of size $s$. Then, by induction on $s$, we can easily construct an AMCproof of $f \preceq\left(\sum_{i} x_{i}+1\right)^{d}$ of size $O(s+n \log n)$ - indeed, this is what Lemma 22 implicitly does. This by Theorem 6 gives that $\left(\sum_{i} x_{i}+1\right)^{d}-\epsilon f$ has a monotone circuit of size $O(s+n \log n)$. (For non-monotone or inhomogeneous $f$, we then invoke Lemma 23, Furthermore, the proof of Lemma 24 can be interpreted as constructing an AMC-proof of $\left(\sum_{i} x_{i}+1\right)^{d} \preceq H_{n}^{d}$.

For comparison with Theorem 4 recall the definition of $\mu$ and $\mu_{+}$from Section 4.2 and the discussion therein. Furthermore, given an AMC-proof $S$, define the $\mu_{+}$-complexity as the smallest $k$ so that all the polynomials in $S$ can be simultaneously computed by a monotone arithmetic with $k$ non-scalar multiplications. Then a lower bound on $\min _{\epsilon>0} \mathrm{rk}_{+}(M-\epsilon J)$, or on linear separation complexity, can be viewed as a rudimentary AMC lower bound:

Observation 27. For every $n$, there exist degree two polynomials $f, g$ with $\mu_{+}(f), \mu_{+}(g) \leq O(\log n)$ and $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(g)$ such that every AMC-proof of $f \preceq g$ has $\mu_{+}$-complexity $n^{\Omega(1)}$.

Proof. Let $M$ be the matrix from Corollary 10 Let $f:=\sum_{i, j \in[n]} x_{i} y_{j}$ and $g:=\sum_{i, j \in[n]} M_{i, j} x_{i} y_{j}$. Then $\mu_{+}(f)=1, \mu_{+}(g)=\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M) \leq O(\log n)$, and $\mu_{+}(g-\epsilon f)=\mathrm{rk}_{+}(M-\epsilon J) \geq n^{\Omega(1)}$ for every $\epsilon>0$. We leave as an exercise to show that Theorem 6 remains valid when measuring the $\mu_{+}$-complexity: that
is, if $f \preceq g$ has a proof of $\mu_{+}$-complexity $s$ then $\mu_{+}(g-\epsilon f) \leq O(s)$. This gives the required bound.

### 5.2 Connections to other proof systems

Let $A$ be a DNF formula in variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. Namely,

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\bigvee_{j=1}^{m} A_{j}, \text { where } A_{j}=\bigwedge_{i \in S_{j}} x_{i} \wedge \bigwedge_{i \in \bar{S}_{j}} \neg x_{i} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $S_{j}, \bar{S}_{j}$ are some disjoint subsets of $[n]$. With $A$, we associate its characteristic polynomial, $\chi_{n}(A)$, as follows. $\chi_{n}(A)$ is in $2 n$ variables $x_{1}^{0}, x_{1}^{1}, \ldots, x_{n}^{0}, x_{n}^{1}$, representing the original variables and their negations. For $\sigma \in\{0,1\}^{n}$, let $x^{\sigma}:=\prod_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{\sigma_{i}}$. Then

$$
\chi_{n}(A):=\sum_{\sigma \in\{0,1\}^{n}} c_{\sigma} x^{\sigma}, \text { where } c_{\sigma}:=\mid\left\{j \in[m]: \sigma \text { satisfies } A_{j}\right\} \mid .
$$

In other words, the coefficient of $x^{\sigma}$ is the number of terms $A_{j}$ satisfied by $\sigma$. Hence, $\chi_{n}(A)$ is a homogeneous polynomial of degree $n$ with integer coefficients from $\{0, \ldots, m\}$.

Setting

$$
\chi_{n}(1):=\prod_{i \in[n]}\left(x_{i}^{0}+x_{i}^{1}\right)
$$

the definition of $\chi_{n}(A)$ guarantees:
Observation 28. $A$ is a tautology if and only if $\operatorname{supp}\left(\chi_{n}(1)\right) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}\left(\chi_{n}(A)\right)$.
Note that $\chi_{n}(A)$ has a monotone arithmetic circuit of size $O(n m)$ : given that no $A_{j}$ contains simultaneously a variable and its negation, we can write

$$
\chi_{n}(A)=\sum_{j=1}^{m}\left(\prod_{i \in S_{j}} x_{i}^{1} \prod_{i \in \bar{S}_{j}} x_{i}^{0} \prod_{i \in\left([n] \backslash\left(S_{j} \cup \bar{S}_{j}\right)\right)}\left(x_{i}^{0}+x_{i}^{1}\right)\right)
$$

Resolution. Recall that Resolution is a proof system designed to refute unsatisfiable CNFs, see, e.g., 13 for details. More exactly, a clause is a set of variables or their negations. A CNF formula can be viewed as a set of clauses $\mathcal{C}$. Resolution has a single rule of inference

$$
\frac{C \cup\{x\}, D \cup\{\neg x\}}{C \cup D}
$$

A resolution refutation starts from clauses in $\mathcal{C}$ and derives the empty clause by means of the resolution rule.
Proposition 29. Let $A$ be a DNF as in 12). Assume that $\neg A$ has a resolution refutation with $k$ lines. Then $\chi_{n}(1) \preceq \chi_{n}(\bar{A})$ has an AMC-proof of size $O((m+$ k) $n$ ).

Proof. Assume that $\mathcal{C}:=\neg A$ has a resolution refutation $R$ with $k$ lines. Without loss of generality, we can assume that no clause in $R$ contains both a variable and its negation, and that in the resolution rule above $C, D$ themselves do not contain $x$ or $\neg x$.

For a clause $C$, let

$$
\alpha_{i}(C)= \begin{cases}x_{i}^{0}, & x_{i} \in C \\ x_{i}^{1}, & \neg x_{i} \in C \\ x_{i}^{0}+x_{i}^{1}, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Let $\alpha(C):=\prod_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}(C)$. This guarantees that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\chi_{n}(A)=\sum_{j=1}^{m} \alpha\left(\neg A_{j}\right), \quad \chi_{n}(1)=\alpha(\emptyset) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Claim. Assuming $C, D$ do not contain $x_{i}$,

$$
\alpha(C \cup D) \preceq \alpha\left(C \cup x_{i}\right)+\alpha\left(D \cup \neg x_{i}\right)
$$

has an AMC-proof of size $O(n)$.
Proof of the Claim. By definition, $\alpha(C \cup D)=\alpha\left(C \cup D \cup\left\{x_{i}\right\}\right)+\alpha\left(C \cup D \cup\left\{\neg x_{i}\right\}\right)$. Hence, it is enough to construct proofs of $\alpha\left(C \cup D \cup\left\{x_{i}\right\}\right) \preceq \alpha\left(C \cup\left\{x_{i}\right\}\right)$ and $\alpha(C \cup$ $\left.D \cup\left\{\neg x_{i}\right\}\right) \preceq \alpha\left(D \cup\left\{\neg x_{i}\right\}\right)$. Both these inequalities are of the form $\alpha\left(D_{1}\right) \preceq \alpha\left(D_{2}\right)$ with $D_{2} \subseteq D_{1}$. But for every $i, \alpha_{i}\left(D_{1}\right) \preceq \alpha_{i}\left(D_{2}\right)$ has a constant size proof: either $\alpha_{i}\left(D_{1}\right)=\alpha_{i}\left(D_{2}\right)$, or $\alpha_{i}\left(D_{1}\right)=x_{i}^{e}, e \in\{0,1\}$ and $\alpha_{i}\left(D_{2}\right)=x_{i}^{0}+x_{i}^{1}$. Using Lemma 26 part (ii), we obtain a proof of $\prod_{i} \alpha_{i}\left(D_{1}\right) \preceq \prod_{i} \alpha_{i}\left(D_{2}\right)$ of size $O(n)$.

Using the Claim, we can construct a proof of $\alpha(C) \preceq \chi_{n}(A)$ for every clause $C$ in $R$. If $C=\neg A_{j}$ is an initial clause in $\mathcal{C}$, this follows from Lemma 26 and 13. If $C$ was obtained by resolving clauses $C^{\prime}, D^{\prime}$, we use the claim to derive $\alpha(C) \preceq \chi_{n}(A)$ from $\alpha\left(C^{\prime}\right) \leq \chi_{n}(A)$ and $\alpha\left(D^{\prime}\right) \preceq \chi_{n}(A)$. This will give an AMC-proof of $\alpha(\emptyset) \preceq \chi_{n}(A)$. Altogether, the proof will have size at most $O((m+k) n)$.
Corollary 30. Let $A$ be as in Proposition 29. Then there exists $\epsilon>0$ such that $\chi_{n}(A)-\epsilon \chi_{n}(1)$ has a monotone arithmetic circuit of size $O(n(k+m))$.

We believe that Proposition 29 and its corollary can be improved to give monotone $\Sigma \Pi \Sigma$-circuits (as defined in Section 4.1).

Monotone calculus. Recall the monotone calculus proof system, $M L K$, as considered by Atserias et al. in [2]. In this system, one proves tautologies $A \rightarrow B$ where $A, B$ are monotone formulas. The system starts from axioms such as $A \rightarrow A$, and derives new formulas by means of inference rules of the flavor

$$
\frac{A \rightarrow B}{A \rightarrow B \vee C}, \frac{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C}{A \rightarrow C} .
$$

In [2], it was shown that MLK quasipolynomially simulates the Frege system. Moreover, if we allow MLK to work with Boolean circuits rather than formulas, the system polynomially simulates the Extended Frege system.

For a monotone Boolean circuit $A$, let $A^{*}$ be the monotone arithmetic circuit obtained by replacing $\wedge, \vee$ in $A$ by $\times,+$, respectively. Let $F_{A}$ be the monotone polynomial computed by $A^{*}$. Observe that $\operatorname{supp}\left(F_{A}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}\left(F_{B}\right)$ implies that $A \rightarrow B$ is a tautology. The converse is not true: for example $x \wedge y \rightarrow y$ is a tautology, whereas $\operatorname{supp}\left(F_{x \wedge y}\right)=\{x y\}$ and $\operatorname{supp}\left(F_{x}\right)=\{x\}$. This means there exist tautologies $A \rightarrow B$ such that $F_{A} \preceq F_{B}$ is not even provable in AMC. We remark without a proof that one can simulate MLK by AMC augmented with the Boolean axioms $f \preceq 1$ and $f \preceq f^{2}$. In this sense, AMC can be seen as a weakening of the monotone calculus. It is, however, an open problem whether the Boolean axioms can help in proving $\chi_{n}(1) \preceq \chi_{n}(A)$.

## 6 Open problems

We end by giving some open problems. The first one asks for new monotone arithmetic lower bounds. Recall that the permanent polynomial is defined as $\operatorname{perm}_{n}=\sum_{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{n} x_{i, \sigma(i)}$, where $\sigma$ ranges over all permutations of $[n]$.
Open problem 1. Show that $\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{i, j}\right)-$ perm $_{n}$ requires a monotone arithmetic circuit of superpolynomial size. How about $\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{i, j}\right)+$ perm $_{n}$ ?

The next problem concerns continuity of non-negative rank as discussed in Section 3.2

Open problem 2. Given $M, V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ and $z \in \mathbb{R}$, let $r(z):=r k_{+}(M-z V)$. Assuming $M, V$ are positive and $V$ is a rank-one matrix, how many discontinuities can the function $r(z)$ have? How many times can $r(z)$ decrease as $z$ increases?

The next two questions concern monotone separation complexity and strict rank from Sections 3.4 and 3.3 . They are closely related due to the discussion in Section 3.4.1,

Open problem 3. Find an explicit monotone Boolean function $f$ such that sep $_{+}(f)$ is superpolynomial.

Open problem 4. Find an explicit positive matrix $M$ such that $r k_{++}(M)$ is superpolynomial in terms of $r k_{+}(M)$.

The final problems are related to the system AMC from Section 2.3 and 5
Open problem 5. Find a pair of monotone polynomials $f, g$ with $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq$ $\operatorname{supp}(g)$ such that for every $\epsilon>0, g-\epsilon f$ requires monotone arithmetic circuit of size superpolynomial in the monotone arithmetic circuit size of $f$ and $g$.

Open problem 6. Does AMC polynomially simulate the Frege system? More exactly, assume that a DNF A has a Frege proof of size s. Is there an AMC-proof of $\chi_{n}(1) \preceq \chi_{n}(A)$ of size polynomial in $s$ ?

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Moreover, they measure the complexity of a polytope differently: namely, as the size of the bit-representation of its defining constraints.

