# Gap-Definable Counting Classes 

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#### Abstract

The function class \#P lacks an important closure property: it is not closed under subtraction. To remedy this problem, we introduce the function class Gap $\mathbf{P}$ as a natural alternative to \# $\mathbf{P}$. Gap $\mathbf{P}$ is the closure of $\# \mathbf{P}$ under subtraction, and has all the other useful closure properties of \#P as well. We show that most previously studied counting classes, including $P P, C=P$, and $\operatorname{Mod}_{k} P$, are "gap-definable," i.e., definable using the values of Gap $\mathbf{P}$ functions alone. We show that there is a smallest gap-definable class, $S P P$, which is still large enough to contain Few. We also show that $S P P$ consists of exactly those languages low for Gap $\mathbf{P}$, and thus $S P P$ languages are low for any gap-definable class. These results unify and improve earlier disparate results of Cai \& Hemachandra [7] and Köbler, Schöning, Toda, \& Torán [15]. We show further that any countable collection of languages is contained in a unique minimum gap-definable class, which implies that the gap-definable classes form a lattice under inclusion. Subtraction seems necessary for this result, since nothing similar is known for the \#P-definable classes.


## 1 Introduction

In 1979, Valiant [29] defined the class \#P , the class of functions definable as the number of accepting computations of some polynomial-time nondeterministic Turing machine. Valiant showed many natural problems complete for this class, including the permanent of a zero-one matrix. Toda [27] showed that these functions have more power than previously believed; he showed how to reduce any problem in the polynomial-time hierarchy to a single value of a $\# \mathbf{P}$ function.

The class \# $\mathbf{P}$ has its shortcomings, however. In particular, \# $\mathbf{P}$ functions cannot take on negative values and thus $\# \mathbf{P}$ is not closed under subtraction. Also, one cannot express as a $\# \mathbf{P}$ function the permanent of a matrix with arbitrary (possibly negative) integer entries, or even a simple polynomial-time function which outputs negative values.

In this paper, we analyze $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$, a function class consisting of differences- "gaps"—between the number of accepting and rejecting paths of $N P$ Turing machines. This class, introduced in section 3 , is exactly the closure of $\# \mathbf{P}$ under subtraction. Gap $\mathbf{P}$ also has all the other nice closure properties of $\# \mathbf{P}$, such as addition, multiplication, and binomial coefficients. Beigel, Reingold, \& Spielman first used gaps to great advantage in [6] to show that $P P$ is closed under intersection. Toda and Ogiwara have also formulated their results in [28] using Gap $\mathbf{P}$ instead of \# $\mathbf{P}$ (see section 3 ). We will argue that $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$ is the right way to think about \# $\mathbf{P}$-like functions.

Many complexity classes, such as $N P, U P, B P P, P P, C=P$, and $\oplus P$, have definitions based on the number of accepting paths of an $N P$ machine. In section 4 we will look at complexity classes defined in terms of the gap of an $N P$ machine. Some classes such as $P P, C=P$, and $\oplus P$ have very simple characterizations in this manner. In particular, in section 5 we study a class $S P P$, alluded to but not specifically named in [15]. This class has also been studied independently by Ogiwara \& Hemachandra [19] under the name $X P$, and by Gupta [12] under the name $Z U P$. We show that $S P P$, the gap analog of $U P$, is the smallest of all reasonable gap-definable classes. $S P P$ languages are exactly the low sets for $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$ (that is, $L \in S P P$ if and only if $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{L}=\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$ ), and thus are low for any gap-definable class. We also show that $S P P$ equals the gap analog of Few, and this gives us an alternate proof that Few is contained in $\oplus P([7,5,4,15])$. From containment and lowness considerations, we further conclude that $P, U P, N P$, and $B P P$ are unlikely to be gap-definable.

In section 6 we address the question, first asked in [28], of whether the polynomial hierarchy $(P H)$ is randomly reducible to $S P P$. We show that this question cannot be answered by relativizable techniques, that is, we show that there is an oracle relative to which $N P$ is not randomly reducible to $S P P$ (proposition 6.1), but with respect to a random oracle, $P H$ is low for $S P P$.

In section 7 , we consider the possibility that $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$ is closed under certain operations stronger than those discussed in section 3. We show that such closure is equivalent to certain unlikely complexity theoretic collapses. Similar, more extensive results were obtained independently for Gap $\mathbf{P}$ and $\# \mathbf{P}$ in [19, 12].

In section 8 , we determine structural properties of the collection of all gap-definable classes. We define GapCl , a simple, albeit nonconstructive, closure operation on sets (the 'gap-closure'). From this we show that any countable set of languages $\mathcal{C}$ has a unique minimum gap-definable class $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{C})$ containing it. We then show that the collection of all gap-definable classes is
closed under intersection and forms a lattice under inclusion. We also show that some classes which are not obviously gap-definable in fact have this property.

Finally, we look at alternatives to the notion of gap-definability in section 9. Narrower notions of gap-definability can be advantageous, especially in light of the results in [28]. We define nice gap-definable classes-those for which the proofs in [28] go through. Nice classes have several other desirable properties, and most of the usual gap-definable classes are nice. On the negative side, we show that the structural results of section 8 probably do not hold for nice classes: the intersection of two nice classes is almost always as small as possible-SPP.

We pose questions for further research in section 10.

## 2 Notation and Definitions

We let $\Sigma=\{0,1\}$ and let $\Sigma^{*}$ denote the set of binary strings, which we identify with the natural numbers via the usual binary representation. We let $Z$ denote the set of integers. In this section only, we will once or twice wish to emphasize that $\Sigma^{*} \subseteq Z$, so we will then write $Z^{+}$in place of $\Sigma^{*}$, and reserve $\Sigma^{*}$ to refer to the set of inputs to machines. For purposes of computation, we will also have occasion to identify $Z$ with $\Sigma^{*}$ in some standard way, e.g., via the usual binary representation together with an extra sign bit. For $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ we write $|x|$ for the length of $x$. A language is a subset of $\Sigma^{*}$, and unless stated otherwise, all functions have domain $\Sigma^{*}$. Following custom, we sometimes identify a language $L$ with its characteristic function $\chi_{L}$, so we have, for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
L(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} \chi_{L}(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } x \in L \\ 0 & \text { if } x \notin L\end{cases}
$$

If $A$ and $B$ are sets, we let $B-A$ denote the relative complement of $A$ in $B$. If $A \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, we usually use $\bar{A}$ as shorthand for $\Sigma^{*}-A$. If $A, B \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, we use $A \oplus B$ to denote the $j$ oin of $A$ and $B$ :

$$
A \oplus B \stackrel{d f}{=}\{2 x \mid x \in A\} \cup\{2 x+1 \mid x \in B\}
$$

We assume the reader is familiar with the basic concepts of computational complexity theory, including Turing machines, complexity classes, polynomial-time reductions ( $m$-reductions and Turing reductions, and to a lesser extent, tt-reductions), complete sets, nondeterminism, relativization, etc. We also assume that the reader has basic knowledge of computable functions and recursively enumerable (r.e.) sets. There are a number of good textbooks covering these subjects, including [13]. We use $P$ and $F P$ to denote the classes of all polynomial-time computable languages and functions respectively. We use $N P$ to denote the class of all languages computable in nondeterministic polynomial time, and $P H$ denotes the polynomial hierarchy (see [25]).

We say informally that a class of languages or functions is relativizable if its definition refersexplicitly or implicitly-to computation and/or computing machines. If $\mathcal{C}$ is a relativizable class and $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, we follow custom and define $\mathcal{C}^{L}$ by replacing each machine directly or indirectly referenced in the definition of $\mathcal{C}$ with an oracle machine with similar properties except that the new machine has access to $L$ as an oracle. We write $\mathcal{C}^{\emptyset}$ simply as $\mathcal{C}$ as is customary. If $\mathcal{D}$ is a language class, we write $\mathcal{C}^{\mathcal{D}}$ for the set $\bigcup_{L \in \mathcal{D}}\left\{\mathcal{C}^{L}\right\}$ as usual. We say $L$ is low for $\mathcal{C}$ if $\mathcal{C}^{L}=\mathcal{C}$.

A class of languages is low for $\mathcal{C}$ if every language in the class is low for $\mathcal{C}$. This notion was borrowed from recursion theory and was applied to complexity classes in, for example, [15] (see [15] for further references).

We now define the machines we will be considering.
Definition 2.1 A counting machine ( $C M$ ) is a nondeterministic Turing machine running in polynomial time with two halting states: accepting and rejecting, and every computation path must end in one of these states. An oracle machine having the above properties and running in polynomial time uniformly for all oracles is called an oracle counting machine (OCM).

A counting machine is simply an $N P$ machine. We use this alternate terminology to emphasize that the machine's acceptance criterion is based on the number of accepting and/or rejecting paths. The following notions all pertain to CM's.

Definition 2.2 Let $M$ be a CM. We define the function $\# M: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow Z^{+}$to be such that for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}, \# M(x)$ is the number of accepting computation paths of $M$ on input $x$. Similarly, Total ${ }_{M}: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow Z^{+}$is the total number of computation paths of $M$ on input $x$. The CM $\bar{M}$ is the machine identical to $M$ but with the accepting and rejecting states interchanged (thus $\bar{M}$ rejects whenever $M$ accepts and vice versa).

Notice that for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
\# M(x)+\# \bar{M}(x)=\operatorname{Total}_{M}(x)=\operatorname{Total}_{\bar{M}}(x),
$$

and $\# \bar{M}(x)$ is the number of rejecting paths of $M$ on input $x$.
If $M$ is a CM, we define the nondeterministic branching degree of $M$ to be the maximum number of possible successors to any instantaneous description (ID) of $M$. For any computation path $p$ of $M$, we define $\operatorname{rank}(p)$ (the rank of $p$ ) to be the number of nondeterministic moves made along $p$, that is, $\operatorname{rank}(p)$ is the number of ID's along $p$ with more than one successor (the halting ID's have no successors). A CM $M$ is in normal form if it has nondeterministic branching degree at most two, and the rank of any computation path of $M$ is always equal to a fixed positive polynomial in the length of the input. Thus if $M$ is in normal form, then $\operatorname{Total}_{M}(x)=2^{q(|x|)}$ for some positive polynomial $q$. ¿From now on, all machines will be denoted with the capital letters $M$ and $N$, possibly with primes or subscripts, and will be CM's unless stated otherwise.

We now define some of the usual counting classes. These are not always the original definitions, but can easily be shown to be equivalent to them. See [4] for more details.

## Definition 2.3

- (Valiant [29]) \# $\stackrel{d f}{=}\{\# M \mid M$ is a $C M\}$.
- (Gill [9]) $P P$ is the class of all languages $L$ such that there exists $M$ and an $F P$ function $f$ such that, for all $x$,

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow \# M(x)>f(x)
$$

The function $f$ is the threshold of $M$.

- (Wagner [307) $C_{=} P$ is the class of all languages $L$ such that there exists $M$ and an $F P$ function $f$ such that, for all $x$,

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow \# M(x)=f(x)
$$

- (Beigel, Gill, Hertrampf [5]) For $k \geq 2$, define $\operatorname{Mod}_{k} P$ to be the class of all languages $L$ such that there exists $M$ such that, for all $x$,

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow \# M(x) \not \equiv 0 \bmod k
$$

The class $\operatorname{Mod}_{2} P$ is also called $\oplus P$ ('Parity P '). This class was defined by Papadimitriou \& Zachos [20] and by Goldschlager \& Parberry [10] (see [4] for details). The following two classes will also be of interest to us:

## Definition 2.4

- (Allender [1]) For any language $L, L \in \boldsymbol{F e w P}$ if and only if there exist a CM $M$ and a polynomial $p$ such that for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}, \# M(x) \leq p(|x|)$ and

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow \# M(x)>0
$$

- (Cai \& Hemachandra [7]) For any language $L, L \in$ Few if and only if there exist a CM $M$, a polynomial $p$, and a polynomial-time computable predicate $A(x, y)$ such that for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}, \# M(x) \leq p(|x|)$ and

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow A(x, \# M(x))
$$

Clearly, FewP $\subseteq N P$. This is not known for Few, but it is well-known that Few $\subseteq P^{N P[\log ]}$, and in fact, Few $\subseteq P^{\text {Few }} \mathbf{~ [ 1 4 ] . ~}$

## 3 Gaps

Definition 3.1 If $M$ is a $C M$, define the function gap $p_{M}: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow Z$ as follows:

$$
\operatorname{gap}_{M} \stackrel{d f}{=} \# M-\# \bar{M}
$$

The function $\operatorname{gap}_{M}$ represents the "gap" between the number of accepting and the number of rejecting paths of $M$. We define the natural gap analog of the function class \# $\mathbf{P}$ :

## Definition 3.2

$$
\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P} \stackrel{d f}{=}\left\{\operatorname{gap}_{M} \mid M \text { is a } C M\right\}
$$

This class was defined independently in [12] and named $\mathbf{Z} \# \mathbf{P}$. From now on in this chapter, we follow the spirit of [6] and work almost exclusively with gaps. The advantages are that gap functions can take on positive and negative values, and we can subtract gaps without introducing the large offsets that we get when we are counting accepting paths only. We can add and multiply gaps as well, thus Gap $\mathbf{P}$ has a canonical ring structure.
Lemma 3.3 For every $C M M$, there is a $C M N$ such that gap $=\# M$. (That is, \# $\boldsymbol{P} \subseteq G a p \boldsymbol{P}$.)

Proof: Given an input $x$, the machine $N$ guesses a path $p$ of $M(x)$. If $p$ is accepting, $N$ accepts. Otherwise, $N$ branches once, accepting on one branch and rejecting on the other. We have, for all $x$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{gap}_{N}(x) & =\# N(x)-\# \bar{N}(x) \\
& =\# N(x)-\# \bar{M}(x) \\
& =\# M(x)+\# \bar{M}(x)-\# \bar{M}(x) \\
& =\# M(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is clear that gaps are no harder to compute than numbers of accepting paths. Proposition 3.5 gives (perhaps) the strongest statement of this fact.

Definition 3.4 If $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{D}$ are two function classes, define

$$
\mathcal{C} \diamond \mathcal{D} \stackrel{d f}{=}\{f \diamond g \mid f \in \mathcal{C} \& g \in \mathcal{D}\},
$$

where $\diamond$ is some appropriate binary operation, i.e., addition, subtraction, composition, etc.

## Proposition 3.5

$$
\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}=\# \boldsymbol{P}-\# \boldsymbol{P}=\# \boldsymbol{P}-F P=F P-\# \boldsymbol{P} .
$$

(Note that here the minus sign refers to elementwise subtraction, not to set theoretic complement.)

Proof: For any $M$ we have

$$
\operatorname{gap}_{M}=\# M-\# \bar{M}
$$

by definition, so $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P} \subseteq \# \mathbf{P}-\# \mathbf{P}$. To show that $\# \mathbf{P}-\# \mathbf{P} \subseteq \# \mathbf{P}-F P$, let $f$ and $g$ be \# $\mathbf{P}$ functions. We can assume that $f=\# M$ and $g=\# N$, where $M$ and $N$ are CM's, and $N$ is in normal form with polynomial $q$ (just pad $N$ with extra rejecting paths so that all paths have rank $q$; the result is a normal form machine with the same number of accepting paths). Let $M^{\prime}$ be the machine which first branches once, then simulates $M$ on one branch and $\bar{N}$ on the other. We have, for any $x$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x)-g(x) & =\# M(x)-\# N(x) \\
& =\# M(x)+\# \bar{N}(x)-2^{q(|x|)} \\
& =\# M^{\prime}(x)-2^{q(|x|)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $f-g \in \# \mathbf{P}-F P$, and the inclusion holds. To show that $\# \mathbf{P}-F P \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$, let $f$ be a \#P function and let $g \in F P$. By lemma 3.3 there is an $M$ such that $f=\operatorname{gap}_{M}$. Let $N$ be such that for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}, N(x)$ resembles $M(x)$ padded with $g(x)$ rejecting paths. Clearly, $\operatorname{gap}_{N}=f-g$. It now follows that the first two equalities hold. The last equality holds since $\# \mathbf{P}$ - \# $\mathbf{P}$ is closed under negation.

We might just as well have taken the first equality in proposition 3.5 as the definition of Gap $\mathbf{P}$, and altered the proofs below accordingly. This route was indeed taken in [28]. We nonetheless prefer to use our original definition in this chapter, if only for the conceptual ease of associating a single machine to every Gap $\mathbf{P}$ function.

We now list the closure properties of $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$, deferring the proofs until afterwards. It is well known that properties $1,3,4$, and 5 below are also shared by \#P. Property 2 clearly is not shared by $\# \mathbf{P}$. It is this property that gives $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$ its power. Property 6 seems to depend heavily on property 2 , so we don't believe it is shared with \#P either. From these properties, it is easy to see that the permanent of an arbitrary integer matrix can be computed in Gap $\mathbf{P}$, although it cannot be computed in $\# \mathbf{P}$.

Closure Property 1 Gap $\boldsymbol{P} \circ F P=G a p \boldsymbol{P}$ and $F P \subseteq G a p P$.
Closure Property 2 If $f \in \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$ then $-f \in \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
Closure Property 3 If $f \in \operatorname{Gap} P$ and $q$ is a polynomial, then the function

$$
g(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} \sum_{|y| \leq q(|x|)} f(\langle x, y\rangle)
$$

is in $\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
Closure Property 4 If $f \in \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$ and $q$ is a polynomial, then the function

$$
g(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} \prod_{0 \leq y \leq q(|x|)} f(\langle x, y\rangle)
$$

is in $\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
Closure Property 5 If $f \in \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}, k \in F P$, and $k(x)$ is bounded by a polynomial in $|x|$, then the function

$$
g(x) \stackrel{d f}{=}\binom{f(x)}{k(x)}
$$

is in $\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
Closure Property 6 If $f, g \in \operatorname{Gap} P$ and $0 \leq g(x) \leq q(|x|)$ for some polynomial $q$, then the function

$$
h(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} f(\langle x, g(x)\rangle)
$$

is in $\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
Corollary 3.6 Gap $\boldsymbol{P}$ is closed under addition, subtraction, and multiplication.

Proof: Let $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ be in Gap $\mathbf{P}$. Let $N$ be a CM such that for all $x, \operatorname{gap}_{N}(\langle x, 0\rangle)=f_{1}(x)$, $\operatorname{gap}_{N}(\langle x, 1\rangle)=f_{2}(x)$, and $\operatorname{gap}_{N}(\langle x, i\rangle)=0$ for $i \geq 2$. For addition and multiplication, apply closure properties 3 and 4, respectively, with $q(x) \geq 2$ arbitrary. Subtraction follows from addition and closure property 2.

Proof of Closure Property 1: Given a CM $M$ and $g \in F P$. Let $N$ be such that $N(x)$ simulates $M(g(x))$ for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$. Clearly, $N$ is a CM and $\operatorname{gap}_{N}=\operatorname{gap}_{M} \circ g$. The second statement follows immediately from lemma 3.3.

Proof of Closure Property 2: Immediate from proposition 3.5.

Proof of Closure Property 3: If $f=\operatorname{gap}_{M}$ for some CM $M$, then there is a CM $N$ which first guesses a $y$ of length not greater than $q(|x|)$, then simulates $M$ on input $\langle x, y\rangle$ for each $y$ guessed. Clearly, $g=\operatorname{gap}_{N}$.

Proof of Closure Property 4: Given $f=$ gap $_{M}$, the machine $N$ guesses, in sequence, computation paths of $M$ on the inputs $\langle x, 0\rangle,\langle x, 1\rangle,\langle x, 2\rangle$, and so on through $\langle x, q(|x|)\rangle . N$ accepts if an even number of these paths are rejecting, and $N$ rejects if an odd number of these paths are rejecting. $N$ is clearly a CM. The fact that $g=$ gap $_{N}$ can be shown by induction on the value $n=q(|x|)$ as follows: for $n=0$, we have $\operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)=f(\langle x, 0\rangle)=g(x)$ because $N(x)$ behaves just as $M(\langle x, 0\rangle)$ does. If $n>0$, assume true for $n-1$, and let $N^{\prime}$ be a machine that acts the same as $N$ except that $N^{\prime}$ only guesses paths of $M$ on inputs $\langle x, 0\rangle, \ldots,\langle x, n-1\rangle$. For convenience, let $a_{N^{\prime}} \stackrel{d f}{=} \# N^{\prime}(x), r_{N^{\prime}} \stackrel{d f}{=} \# \overline{N^{\prime}}(x), a_{M} \stackrel{d f}{=} \# M(\langle x, n\rangle)$, and $r_{M} \stackrel{d f}{=} \# \bar{M}(\langle x, n\rangle)$. By the inductive hypothesis, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(x) & =\operatorname{gap}_{N^{\prime}}(x) f(\langle x, n\rangle) \\
& =\operatorname{gap}_{N^{\prime}}(x) \operatorname{gap}_{M}(\langle x, n\rangle) \\
& =\left(a_{N^{\prime}}-r_{N^{\prime}}\right)\left(a_{M}-r_{M}\right) \\
& =\left(a_{N^{\prime}} a_{M}+r_{N^{\prime}} r_{M}\right)-\left(a_{N^{\prime}} r_{M}+r_{N^{\prime}} a_{M}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now $N(x)$ accepts whenever it guesses an even number of rejecting paths. This happens either when there are an even number of rejections through $\langle x, n-1\rangle$ and the last path is accepting, or when there are an odd number of rejections through $\langle x, n-1\rangle$ and the last path is rejecting. Thus by the definition of $N^{\prime}$, the total number of sequences accepted by $N(x)$ is exactly $a_{N^{\prime}} a_{M}+$ $r_{N^{\prime}} r_{M}$. Likewise, the total number of sequences rejected by $N(x)$ is $a_{N^{\prime}} r_{M}+r_{N^{\prime}} a_{M}$. Therefore $g(x)=\operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)$.

Of all the closure properties, property 5 is perhaps the most useful and least obvious. It states that, like \#P, $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$ is closed under binomial coefficients. To prove this closure property, we will need a combinatorial lemma (lemma 3.7). We define the binomial coefficient as follows:

$$
\binom{x}{y} \stackrel{d f}{=} \frac{x(x-1)(x-2) \cdots(x-y+1)}{y!}
$$

which makes sense for all real numbers $x$ and all nonnegative integers $y$. (If $y=0$ then $\binom{x}{y} \stackrel{d f}{=} 1$ by convention.) Lemma 3.7 is proved using Vandermonde's convolution [11, page 174], which states that for integers $a, b$ and $k \geq 0$,

$$
\binom{a+b}{k}=\sum_{i=0}^{k}\binom{a}{i}\binom{b}{k-i} .
$$

An intuition behind this equality is that choosing a committee of $k$ people from a group of $a$ women and $b$ men is the same as first choosing $i$ women then $k-i$ men independently for each possible $i$.

Lemma 3.7 For all integers $r, j, k$ with $k \geq 0$,

$$
\binom{j}{k}=\sum_{i=0}^{k}(-1)^{i}\binom{r+i}{i}\binom{r+j+1}{k-i} .
$$

Proof: Negate the first binomial coefficient on the right hand side (see [11, page 174]) to get

$$
\text { (right hand side) }=\sum_{i=0}^{k}\binom{-r-1}{i}\binom{r+j+1}{k-i}
$$

Now apply Vandermonde's convolution to get

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{k}\binom{-r-1}{i}\binom{r+j+1}{k-i}=\binom{j}{k}
$$

It is important to note that the identity of lemma 3.7 holds for all integers $j$ and nonnegative integers $k$.

Proof of Closure Property 5: Note that if $M_{1}$ is a CM running in time $t \stackrel{d f}{=} t(n)$, and $k \stackrel{d f}{=} k(x)$ is a $F P$ function, then there is a nondeterministic machine $M_{2}$ running in time $O(k t)$ such that for all inputs $x$ of length $n$,

$$
\# M_{2}(x)=\binom{\# M_{1}(x)}{k(x)}
$$

The machine $M_{2}$ simply guesses a sequence of $k$ paths of $M_{1}$, and accepts if and only if the paths are in strictly increasing lexicographical order and all of them are accepting. Note further that if $k(x)$ and $t(n)$ are polynomially bounded, then $M_{2}$ is a CM.

Let $f=\operatorname{gap}_{M}$. By setting $r \stackrel{d f}{=} \# \bar{M}(x), j \stackrel{d f}{=} \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)$, and $k \stackrel{d f}{=} k(x)$ in lemma 3.7 above, we get

$$
\binom{f(x)}{k(x)}=\sum_{i=0}^{k(x)}(-1)^{i}\binom{\# \bar{M}(x)+i}{i}\binom{\# M(x)+1}{k(x)-i} .
$$

By the previous paragraph and lemma 3.3, there is a machine $N$ that can generate a gap equal to each of the binomial coefficients on the right-hand side. By lemma closure properties 1 through 4 , it can combine these gaps to generate the whole right-hand side as a gap. (The machine $N$ computes the factors by padding $M$ with one accepting path, padding $\bar{M}$ with $i$ accepting paths, then computing the resulting binomial coefficients.)

The following "delta" functions will be useful in many places later on: for integers $k$ and $B$ with $0 \leq k \leq B$, define

$$
\delta_{k}^{B}(x) \stackrel{d f}{=}\binom{x}{k}\binom{B-x}{B-k}
$$

for all $x \in Z$. Notice that

$$
\delta_{k}^{B}(x)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } 0 \leq x<k \\ 1 & \text { if } x=k \\ 0 & \text { if } k<x \leq B\end{cases}
$$

We now use these delta functions to prove closure property 6, which says that Gap $\mathbf{P}$ is closed under a limited form of composition.

Proof of Closure Property 6: Notice that for any $x$,

$$
f(\langle x, g(x)\rangle)=\sum_{i=0}^{q} f(\langle x, i\rangle) \delta_{i}^{q}(g(x))
$$

where $q=q(|x|)$. The statement follows by the previous closure properties.
Closure property 6 immediately gives a number of other limited closure properties, among them a strengthening of closure property 5 .
Corollary 3.8 If $f, g \in \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$ and $0 \leq g(x) \leq q(|x|)$ for some polynomial $q$, then the functions

$$
\binom{f(x)}{g(x)} \quad \text { and } \quad f(x)^{g(x)}
$$

are in Gap $\boldsymbol{P}$.
Proof: Apply closure property 6 with $\hat{f}$ and $g$, where

$$
\hat{f}(\langle x, i\rangle) \stackrel{d f}{=}\binom{f(x)}{i}
$$

for the first function, and

$$
\hat{f}(\langle x, i\rangle) \stackrel{d f}{=} f(x)^{i}
$$

for the second.

## 4 Counting Classes

Most counting classes that have been studied previously can be defined using the gap function alone. We will call such classes gap-definable.
Definition 4.1 A class $\mathcal{C}$ of languages is gap-definable if there exist disjoint sets $A, R \subseteq \Sigma^{*} \times Z$ such that, for any language $L, L \in \mathcal{C}$ if and only if there exists a $C M M$ with

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \in L & \Longrightarrow \quad\left(x, \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)\right) \in A \\
x \notin L \quad & \Longrightarrow\left(x, \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)\right) \in R
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$. We let $\operatorname{Gap}(A, R)$ denote the class $\mathcal{C}$.
We call $A$ and $R$ respectively the accepting and rejecting sets. We allow them to be completely arbitrary, perhaps nonrecursive. We say that a CM $M$ is $(A, R)$-proper if $\left(x, \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)\right) \in$ $A \cup R$ for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$, and we define

$$
L_{A, R}(M) \stackrel{d f}{=}\left\{x \in \Sigma^{*} \mid\left(x, \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)\right) \in A\right\}
$$

To relativize definition 4.1 to an arbitrary fixed oracle, we permit $M$ to be an OCM with access to that oracle. It must be noted, however, that $A$ and $R$ are arbitrary sets independent of any machine. Therefore we have two natural ways of defining gap-definability for a relativized class: we say that a relativized class is uniformly gap-definable if it is gap-definable with respect to any oracle, but with the sets $A$ and $R$ fixed and independent of the oracle; a relativized class is nonuniformly gap-definable if it is gap-definable with respect to any oracle, where $A$ and $R$ are chosen after the oracle and thus may vary depending on the oracle. This distinction will be important in section 5, especially for corollary 5.7. For now, unless otherwise stated, when we relativize a class $\operatorname{Gap}(A, R)$ to an oracle, $A$ and $R$ will remain fixed independent of the oracle, in accordance with our remarks at the beginning of section 2 .

There are other more restricted notions of gap-definability that are possible. For a discussion of some of these alternate definitions, see section 9 .

Proposition 4.2 The classes $P P, C=P$, and $\operatorname{Mod}_{k} P$ (for $k \geq 2$ ) are all (uniformly) gapdefinable; in fact, the following are true for any language $L$ :

1. $L \in P P \Longleftrightarrow(\exists M)(\forall x)\left[x \in L \leftrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)>0\right]$.
2. $L \in C_{=} P \Longleftrightarrow(\exists M)(\forall x)\left[x \in L \leftrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)=0\right]$.
3. $L \in \operatorname{Mod}_{k} P \Longleftrightarrow(\exists M)(\forall x)\left[x \in L \leftrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x) \not \equiv 0 \bmod k\right]$.

The proof of proposition 4.2, given below, is straightforward with the aid of a normal form lemma. Unlike the case with $\# \mathbf{P}$ machines, we cannot assume that Gap $\mathbf{P}$ machines are in normal form (a normal form machine always generates an even gap, for example). The following lemma is almost as good.

Lemma 4.3 Let $f$ be a function from $\Sigma^{*}$ to $Z$. Then $f=g^{\prime} p_{M}$ for some CM $M$ in normal form if and only if $f=2 g a p_{N}$ for some arbitrary $C M N$.

Proof: Suppose $M$ is a CM in normal form, and let $q(|x|)$ be the rank of any path of $M$ on input $x$. The machine $N$ guesses a partial path $p$ of $M(x)$ up through the first $q(|x|)-1$ nondeterministic choices. Let $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ be the two extensions of $p$ made by the last branch of $M$. If both $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ are accepting, then $N$ accepts; if they are both rejecting, $N$ rejects; otherwise, $N$ branches once to one accepting and one rejecting path. From this it is clear that $\operatorname{gap}_{M}=2$ gap $_{N}$.

Conversely, let $N$ be a CM (not necessarily in normal form). We can assume without loss of generality that $N$ has branching degree at most two. Let $q$ be a polynomial which is strictly greater than the running time of $N$. The machine $M$ simulates $N(x)$, branching as $N$ does, to guess a path $p$ of $N$. Then $M$ branches further, extending $p$ with $2^{q(|x|)-\operatorname{rank}(p)}$ paths, all of rank $q(|x|)$. If $p$ is an accepting path, $M$ makes exactly $2^{q(|x|)-\operatorname{rank}(p)-1}+1$ of these paths to be accepting; if $p$ rejects, then $M$ makes $2^{q(|x|)-\operatorname{rank}(p)-1}-1$ of these paths accepting. The contribution to $\operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)$ of the paths extending $p$ is respectively +2 or -2 , depending on whether $p$ accepts or rejects. Therefore, $M(x)$ generates twice the gap of $N(x)$, and $M$ is in normal form.

Proof of Proposition 4.2: All the left-to-right implications follow immediately from lemma 3.3 and the fact that we can subtract a polynomial time computable function from a gap. The first two right-to-left implications are clear by lemma 4.3; we take the threshold function $f$ to be $2^{q(|x|)-1}$, where $q$ is the polynomial associated with the normal form machine. We show the third right-to-left implication by building a CM whose number of accepting paths is congruent $\bmod k$ to the gap of a given CM as follows: given a CM $M$, let $N$ be a CM that first generates $k$ branches, then simulates $M$ on one branch and $\bar{M}$ on the other $k-1$ branches. Clearly,

$$
\# N=\# M+(k-1) \cdot \# \bar{M}=\operatorname{gap}_{M}+k \cdot \# \bar{M},
$$

so

$$
\# N \equiv \operatorname{gap}_{M} \bmod k .
$$

The implication follows.
This proof clearly relativizes, so all the classes mentioned in proposition 4.2 are uniformly gap-definable.

Lemma 4.3 allows us to characterize Gap $\mathbf{P}$ in terms of predicates in $P$.
Proposition 4.4 If $f: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow Z$ is any function, then $f \in G a p \boldsymbol{P}$ if and only if there is a predicate $R(x, y) \in P$ and a positive polynomial $q$ such that for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
f(x)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\left|\left\{y \in\{0,1\}^{q(|x|)}: R(x, y)\right\}\right|-\left|\left\{y \in\{0,1\}^{q(|x|)}:-R(x, y)\right\}\right|\right) .
$$

Proof: Immediate by lemma 4.3.
There is yet another characterization of $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$ as the class of functions computed by uniform families of retarded arithmetic programs as described by Babai and Fortnow [2, section 3].

Subtraction has been quite useful in simplifying many existing proofs about counting classes. As an easy example, consider the following proof that $C_{=} P \subseteq P P$ :

Proof: Given $L \in C_{=} P$ as witnessed by $f \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$, define

$$
g(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} 1-[f(x)]^{2} .
$$

Clearly, $g \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$, and for all $x$,

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow g(x)>0
$$

Thus $L \in P P$.
The reader may wish to compare the proof above with the one in [23].
More significantly, Toda and Ogiwara [28] have simplified their results using GapP. We state their main results here, using slightly altered notation. We first define a subfamily of the gap-definable classes.

Definition 4.5 Let $Q \subseteq Z$ be any set. Define

$$
\operatorname{Gap} \operatorname{In}[Q] \stackrel{d f}{=} \operatorname{Gap}\left(\Sigma^{*} \times Q, \Sigma^{*} \times(Z-Q)\right)
$$

Thus GapIn $[Q]$ identifies those gap-definable classes where the accepting and rejecting sets partition $\Sigma^{*} \times Z$ and the acceptance criterion is independent of the input. Next, we define the $\widehat{B P}$ operator from [28], which is a modification of the BP operator of Schöning [22]:
Definition 4.6 ([28], Definition 2.1) Let $\mathcal{K}$ be any class of languages. A language $L$ is in $\widehat{B P} \cdot \mathcal{K}$ if for every polynomial $e$, there exist a set $A \in \mathcal{K}$ and a polynomial $p$ such that for every $x \in \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
|\{w:|w|=p(|x|) \&(x \in L \leftrightarrow\langle x, w\rangle \in A)\}| \geq 2^{p(|x|)}\left(1-2^{-e(|x|)}\right)
$$

Remark: Schöning's BP operator is defined similarly, except that the polynomial $e$ is replaced with the constant 2. The class $B P P$ (bounded error probabilistic polynomial time) can be defined naturally as $B P \cdot P$.

Toda and Ogiwara showed the following technical lemma:
Lemma 4.7 ([28, Lemma 2.3]) Let $F$ be any function in $G a p \boldsymbol{P}^{P H}$ and let $e$ be any polynomial. Then there exist a function $H \in \operatorname{Gap} P$ and a polynomial $s$ such that for every $x \in \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
|\{w:|w|=s(|x|) \& H(\langle x, w\rangle)=F(x)\}| \geq 2^{s(|x|\rangle}\left(1-2^{-e(|x|)}\right)
$$

Their main theorem follows easily:
Theorem 4.8 ([28, Theorem 2.4]) Let $Q$ be an arbitrary subset of $Z$. Then

$$
\operatorname{Gap} \operatorname{In}[Q]^{-P H} \subseteq \widehat{B P} \cdot \operatorname{GapIn}[Q]
$$

This theorem states that $P H$ is "randomly low" for every gap-definable class of the form GapIn $[Q]$. One must bear in mind, however, that the result probably does not extend to all gap-definable classes. See section 6 below.

## 5 SPP

In definition 4.1, the accepting and rejecting sets need not partition $\Sigma^{*} \times Z$. That is, we can define new gap-definable counting classes by putting restrictions on the behavior of CM's. We will be interested chiefly in the following class:

Definition 5.1 SPP is the class of all languages $L$ such that there exists $M$ such that, for all $x$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \in L \quad \Longrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)=1 \\
& x \notin L \quad \Longrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

An $S P P$-like machine was first described in [15] , and as mentioned earlier, $S P P$ is the same class as $X P$ and $Z U P$, studied independently in [19] and [12] respectively. These papers study closure properties of \#P and GapP. Recently, Köbler, Schöning, \& Torán [17] showed that the Graph Automorphism problem (does a given graph have any nontrivial automorphisms) is in $S P P$. They also showed that the Graph Isomorphism problem is in the class $L W P P$, defined at the end of this section.

Clearly $S P P \subseteq C_{=} P \cap \operatorname{co-} C_{=} P$. It is also clear by lemma 3.3 that $U P \subseteq S P P \subseteq \operatorname{Mod}_{k} P$ for any $k$. Notice that if we replace gap $_{M}$ with $\# M$ in the definition of $S P P$, we get $\bar{U} P$. Thus on purely syntactic grounds, we might have called this class Gap- $U P$, although $U P$ bears little resemblance to its gap analog ( $S P P$ is closed under complements, for example). In the same spirit, we may define the gap analog of the class Few:

Definition 5.2 Gap-Few is the class of all languages $L$ such that there exists a $C M M$, a polynomial time predicate $A(x, k)$, and a polynomial $q$ such that, for all $x$ of length $n$,

$$
0 \leq \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x) \leq q(n)
$$

and

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow A\left(x, \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)\right)
$$

If we replace $\operatorname{gap}_{M}$ with $\# M$ above, we get the class Few. Clearly, Few $\subseteq$ Gap-Few by lemma 3.3. It is not obvious, however, that Gap-Few is a gap-definable class. The reason is that we must fix the accepting and rejecting sets in advance to work for all predicates $A(x, k)$. It is not clear how we can do this. Theorem 5.9, however, provides a relativizable proof that Gap-Few $=S P P$, which implies Gap-Few is gap-definable, and indeed uniformly gap-definable.

The sets $A$ and $R$ of definition 4.1 can be chosen arbitrarily (as long as they are disjoint). This freedom allows for many small, uninteresting gap-definable classes. For example, if $L$ is any language, then $\{L\}$ is clearly gap definable:

$$
\{L\}=\operatorname{Gap}(L \times Z, \bar{L} \times Z)
$$

To avoid these cases, we concentrate on reasonable gap-definable classes.
Definition 5.3 A gap-definable class $\mathcal{C}$ is reasonable if $\emptyset \in \mathcal{C}$ and $\Sigma^{*} \in \mathcal{C}$.

All the gap-definable classes introduced above are clearly reasonable. The next theorem implies that $S P P$ is the smallest reasonable gap-definable class.

Theorem 5.4 Let $\mathcal{C} \stackrel{d f}{=} \operatorname{Gap}(A, R)$ be a gap-definable class. The following are equivalent:

1. $\mathcal{C}$ is reasonable.
2. $S P P \subseteq \mathcal{C}$.
3. There exist $f, g \in \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$ such that $(x, f(x)) \in A$ and $(x, g(x)) \in R$ for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$.

Proof: We show $1 \Longrightarrow 3 \Longrightarrow 2 \Longrightarrow 1$.
$(1 \Longrightarrow 3)$ : Let $M$ and $N$ be CM's recognizing $\emptyset$ and $\Sigma^{*}$, respectively. Let $f \stackrel{d f}{=} \operatorname{gap}_{N}$ and $g \stackrel{d f}{=} \operatorname{gap}_{M}$.
$(3 \Longrightarrow 2)$ : Suppose $L \in S P P$ is recognized by the CM $M$ with gap either 0 or 1 . By corollary 3.6 , there is a CM $N$ such that

$$
\operatorname{gap}_{N}=\operatorname{gap}_{M} \cdot(f-g)+g
$$

Thus $L \in \mathcal{C}$ as witnessed by the machine $N$.
( $2 \Longrightarrow 1$ ): Obvious.
We still have a great deal of freedom in choosing $A$ and $R$ to get reasonable gap-definable classes. In fact, it will be shown in section 8 that any countable collection of languages is contained in a reasonable gap-definable class, which in turn implies that there are uncountably many reasonable gap-definable classes.

The next theorem says that $S P P$ consists of exactly those languages which are low for Gap $\mathbf{P}$.

## Theorem 5.5

$$
S P P=\left\{L \mid G a p \boldsymbol{P}^{L}=\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}\right\} .
$$

Remark: It is unlikely that $\# \mathbf{P}^{S P P}=\# \mathbf{P}$, or even that $\# \mathbf{P}^{U P}=\# \mathbf{P}$. It follows immediately from arguments in [16] that the latter equality implies $U P=\operatorname{co}-U P$.

Proof of Theorem 5.5: We first show that $S P P$ contains all GapP-low languages. Suppose $L$ is a language such that $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{L}=\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$. Let $M$ be an OCM that, on input $x$, queries the oracle on $x$. If $x$ is in the oracle, $M$ accepts; if $x$ is not in the oracle, $M$ generates one accepting and one rejecting path. Clearly,

$$
\operatorname{gap}_{M^{L}}(x)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } x \in L \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

By hypothesis, there is a CM $N$ which computes the same gap as $M^{L}$ but without an oracle. Thus $L \in S P P$ as witnessed by $N$.

Conversely, we show that if $M$ is an OCM and $L$ is a language in $S P P$, there is a CM $N$ (without an oracle) such that

$$
\operatorname{gap}_{N}=\operatorname{gap}_{M^{L}}
$$

This part of the proof has the same flavor as the proof that $\oplus P^{\oplus} P=\oplus P$ in [20]. Let $M_{1}$ be an $S P P$ machine recognizing $L$. We may assume without loss of generality that for any oracle $A$ and input $x$ of length $n, M^{A}(x)$ makes exactly $k\left(1^{n}\right)$ oracle queries on each path, where $k \in F P$.

Fix $n$ and let $k \stackrel{d f}{=} k\left(1^{n}\right)$. The CM $N$ does the following-in sequence-on input $x$ of length $n$ :

1. Guesses a sequence $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}$ of bits (oracle query answers).
2. Guesses a legal path of $M$, substituting $a_{i}$ for the answer to the $i$ th oracle query $q_{i}$ of $M$. (Let $p$ be the computation path of $N$ defined thus far.)
3. Generates a gap $G_{p}$ extending $p$, where $G_{p}$ is defined as follows: for $1 \leq i \leq k$ let

$$
g_{i} \stackrel{d f}{=} \begin{cases}\operatorname{gap}_{M_{1}}\left(q_{i}\right) & \text { if } a_{i}=1, \\ 1-\operatorname{gap}_{M_{1}}\left(q_{i}\right) & \text { if } a_{i}=0 .\end{cases}
$$

If $p$ ends in an accepting state of $M, G_{p} \stackrel{d f}{=} \prod_{i=1}^{k} g_{i}$. If $p$ ends in a rejecting state, $G_{p} \stackrel{d f}{=}-\prod_{i=1}^{k} g_{i}$.
For each path $p$ above, $N$ can clearly generate the corresponding gap $G_{p}$ by simulating $M_{1}$ in polynomial time, as is evident by the expressions for $G_{p}$ and the closure properties of Gap $\mathbf{P}$.

We have

$$
g_{i}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } a_{i}=L\left(q_{i}\right) \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Thus for any path $p$ above, $G_{p}= \pm 1$ if all of $M_{1}$ 's queries were answered correctly along $p$ (i.e., according to the language $L$ ), and $G_{p}=0$ otherwise. Thus paths with incorrectly answered queries do not contribute anything to the gap of $N$, and the remaining gap is simply that of $M^{L}$.

More carefully, the gap generated by $M$ on input $x$ is the sum of the gaps generated for each path $p$, i.e.,

$$
\operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)=\sum_{p}(\text { gap generated from path } p)=\sum_{p} G_{p}
$$

The sum on the right can be divided into three parts depending on the type of the path $p$. Let $A$ be the set of all paths $p$ ending in an accepting state of $M$ where all of $M$ 's oracle queries along $p$ are answered according to $L$. Let $R$ be the set of all $p$ ending in a rejecting state of $M$ with all oracle queries answered according to $L$. Let $E$ consist of the remaining paths, i.e., the ones where some query along $p$ is not answered according to $L$. We have, for any $x$,

$$
\operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)=\sum_{p \in A} G_{p}+\sum_{p \in R} G_{p}+\sum_{p \in E} G_{p}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\sum_{p \in A} 1+\sum_{p \in R}(-1)+\sum_{p \in E} 0 \\
& =\# M^{L}(x)-\# \bar{M}^{L}(x)+0 \\
& =\operatorname{gap}_{M^{L}}(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Corollary 5.6

$$
G a p \boldsymbol{P}^{S P P}=G a p \boldsymbol{P}
$$

Corollary 5.7 If $\mathcal{C}$ is any uniformly gap-definable class, then $\mathcal{C}^{S P P}=\mathcal{C}$.
Proof: Let $\mathcal{C}=\operatorname{Gap}(A, R)$ for some $A, R \subseteq Z$, let $L \in S P P$, and let $S \in \mathcal{C}^{L}$. By the remarks in section 4, there is an OCM $M$ such that for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \in S & \Longrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M^{L}}(x) \in A \\
x \notin S & \Longrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M^{L}}(x) \in R .
\end{aligned}
$$

By corollary 5.6, we have gap $M^{L}=$ gap $_{N}$ for some unrelativized CM $N$. Thus $N$ witnesses that $S \in \mathcal{C}$.

Corollary 5.8 SPP is closed under polynomial-time Turing reductions.

## Proof:

$$
S P P \subseteq P^{S P P} \subseteq S P P^{S P P} \subseteq S P P
$$

by corollary 5.7 . Thus $S P P=P^{S P P}$.
It should be noted that there may be languages not in $S P P$ which are low for some particular gap-definable classes. For example, Köbler, et al. [17] showed that Graph Isomorphism (GI) is low for $P P$ and $C_{=} P$ (see below), and it is not known that GI $\in S P P$. As another example, all $\oplus P$ sets are low for $\oplus P([20])$, and it is not likely that $S P P=\oplus P$. Also, the class $W P P$, defined later in this section, is low for $P P$ ([26]), and we don't believe that $S P P=W P P$. The same is true for $B P P$, defined in the remark following definition 4.6 (see later in this section). Köbler et al. [15] showed that $B P P$ is low for $P P$, and it is unlikely that $B P P \subseteq S P P$.

We now generalize [15] to theorem 5.9 below regarding gaps.

## Theorem 5.9

$$
S P P=\text { Gap-Few. }
$$

Proof: Clearly $S P P \subseteq$ Gap-Few. Let $L$ be in Gap-Few as witnessed by the CM $M$, the polynomial time predicate $A(x, k)$, and the polynomial $q$. Let $\tilde{A}(\langle x, k\rangle)$ be the 0 -1-valued function corresponding to the truth value of $A(x, k)$. Finally, let $f(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} \tilde{A}\left(x, \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)\right)$. By closure property $6, f \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$, furthermore, $f(x)=1$ if $x \in L$, and $f(x)=0$ otherwise. Thus $L \in S P P$ as witnessed by $f$.

## Corollary 5.10

$$
\boldsymbol{F e w} \subseteq S P P
$$

Corollary 5.11 Few is contained in any reasonable gap-definable class. In particular,

- Few $\subseteq C_{=} P([15,5,4])$.
- Few $\subseteq \operatorname{Mod}_{k} P$ for any $k \geq 2([7,5,4])$.

Proof: Immediate from theorem 5.4 and corollary 5.10.
Corollary 5.11 also follows from related work of Beigel, Gill, \& Hertrampf [5]: Few $\subseteq$ ${ }_{P} \mathbf{C P}_{Q(\alpha)}$ for any predicate $Q$ such that $Q(0)=0$ and $Q(1)=1$. See [4] for a definition of ${ }_{P} \mathbf{C P}_{Q(\alpha)}$. The next corollary subsumes all the lowness results in [15].

Corollary 5.12 Few is low for any uniformly gap-definable class. In particular, Few is low for each of the classes $P P, C_{=} P$, and $\oplus P$ ([15]).

Proof: Immediate from corollaries 5.7 and 5.10.
The proof of theorem 5.9 relativizes to show that $S P P^{X}=$ Gap-Few $^{X}$ for any oracle $X$, thus Gap-Few is uniformly gap-definable.

Because of theorem 5.4 and its corollaries, there are several counting classes that are not gapdefinable unless certain unlikely complexity theoretic inclusions hold. For example, if $B P P$ is gap-definable, then $U P \subseteq B P P$, and if $B P P$ is uniformly gap-definable, then $B P P^{U P}=B P P$. Of course, these facts about $B P P$ also hold for $P, U P$, and $N P$.

The following class is a simple generalization of $S P P$ :
Definition 5.13 WPP ("wide" $P P$ ) is the class of all languages $L$ such that there exists a $C M M$ and a function $f \in F P$ with $0 \notin \operatorname{range}(f)$ such that for all $x$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \in L & \Longrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)=f(x) \\
x \notin L & \Longrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Toda has studied this class, which he names $T w o$, and has a clever proof that $W P P$ is low for $P P$ ([26], see Appendix A). It is clear that $S P P \subseteq W P P \subseteq C_{=} P \cap$ co- $C=P$, and both inclusions appear to be proper. We may also define a restricted version of $W P P$, where the function $f$ in the definition can depend only on the length of $x$. We'll call this class $L W P P$.

It appears that $S P P \neq L W P P$ as well. The proof of theorem 5.5 can be modified easily to show that $L W P P$ is low for $P P$ and $C=P$. Köbler, et al. [17] show that GI and other related problems are low for these classes by showing that GI $\in L W P P$.

Unfortunately, we cannot modify the proof of theorem 5.5 to show that $L W P P$ is low for $W P P$ or for $L W P P$. The reason lies in the way these classes are relativized. If $L$ is a fixed language in $L W P P$, we say that $A \in W P P^{L}$ if and only if there exists an everywhere nonzero function $f: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow Z$, computable in polynomial time relative to $L$, and a $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{L}$ function $g$ such that, for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \in A \quad \Longrightarrow \quad g(x)=f(x) \\
& x \notin A \Longrightarrow g(x)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

The problem is that $L$ can be used in the computation of $f$. There is no reason to believe that $A$ is then in $W P P$ witnessed by a polynomial-time unrelativized function $f$. The same goes for the class $L W P P^{L W P P}$. We can, however, adapt the proof of theorem 5.5 to show that $S P P^{L W P P}=L W P P$. Thus $L W P P$ is closed under polynomial-time Turing reductions, and so any problem Turing reducible to GI is in $L W P P$.

At first blush, the classes $W P P$ and $L W P P$ appear not to be gap-definable, since the accepting and rejecting sets cannot be fixed once and for all, but rather must vary depending on the choice of the function $f$. We show in section 8.1, however, that $W P P$ and $L W P P$ are indeed nonuniformly gap-definable. The nonuniformity appears necessary, because to relativize the definitions of the two classes properly to an oracle $X$, one must allow $f$ to be a function in $F P^{X}$ as above, thus the accepting set depends on the oracle.

## 6 Randomized Counting

One might wonder whether theorem 4.8 holds for a class such as $S P P$, i.e., is it true that $S P P^{P H} \subseteq \widehat{B P} \cdot S P P$, or even that $P H \subseteq \widehat{B P} \cdot S P P$ ? Toda \& Ogiwara address this question in [28] and conclude that this is probably not the case since the definition of any $S P P$ language includes a promise that the gap of some machine is either 0 or 1, and the proof of theorem 4.8 relies on there being no such promise for a language in GapIn $[Q]$. As further evidence that $S P P$ is not as hard as $P H$, we now show that there is an oracle relative to which $N P \nsubseteq \widehat{B P} \cdot S P P$. (An observation in [28] implies that $\widehat{B P} \cdot S P P=B P \cdot S P P$ since $S P P$ is closed under majority-tt-reductions.) In fact, the oracle constructed in [3] will do.
Proposition 6.1 There exists an oracle $A$ such that $N P^{A} \nsubseteq(\widehat{B P} \cdot S P P)^{A}$.
Proof: The following implications all relativize:

$$
\begin{aligned}
N P \subseteq \widehat{B P} \cdot S P P & \Longrightarrow P^{N P} \subseteq P^{\widehat{B P} \cdot S P P} \\
& \Longrightarrow P^{N P} \subseteq P^{B P P^{S P P}} \\
& \Longrightarrow P^{N P} \subseteq B P P^{S P P} \\
& \Longrightarrow P^{N P} \subseteq P P^{S P P} \\
& \Longrightarrow P^{N P} \subseteq P P .
\end{aligned}
$$

The last implication follows from corollary 5.7. Beigel [3] constructed an oracle relative to which $P^{N P} \nsubseteq P P$. Relative to this same oracle then, $N P \nsubseteq \widehat{B P} \cdot S P P$.

The most we can say at present is that the statement $P H \subseteq S P P$ is "almost" true. If we let $F$ be the characteristic function of some $P H$ language $L$ in lemma 4.7, we get the following corollary:

Corollary 6.2 (to Lemma 4.7) For every $L \in P H$ and polynomial e, there exist a function $H \in G a p \boldsymbol{P}$ and a polynomial s such that, for all $x$,

$$
\left|\left\{w:|w|=s(|x|) \& H(\langle x, w\rangle)=\chi_{L}(x)\right\}\right| \geq 2^{s(|x|)}\left(1-2^{-\epsilon(|x|)}\right)
$$

We may make the following definition: for any relativizable class $\mathcal{C}$, a language $L$ is in Almost $(\mathcal{C})$ if and only if

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{A}\left[L \in \mathcal{C}^{A}\right]=1 .
$$

Here, the probability is taken over all oracles $A$ where each $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ is independently put into $A$ with probability $1 / 2$. The next proposition follows by standard techniques from a relativization of lemma 4.7.

Proposition 6.3 With respect to a random oracle, PH is low for Gap $\boldsymbol{P}$, i.e.,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{R}\left[\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}^{P H^{R}}=\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}^{R}\right]=1
$$

Proof: Lemma 4.7 can be relativized to any oracle categorically. That is, given any function $F^{X}$ computed by some appropriate oracle machine $M^{X}$ so that $F^{X} \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{P H^{X}}$ for all $X$ uniformly, and given any polynomial $e$, there exist a polynomial $s$ and an OCM $N$ such that for all $x$ of length $n$ and all oracles $A$,

$$
\left|\left\{w:|w|=s(n) \& G^{A}(\langle x, w\rangle)=F^{A}(x)\right\}\right| \geq 2^{s(n)}\left(1-2^{-e(n)}\right)
$$

where $G^{A} \stackrel{d f}{=} \operatorname{gap}_{N^{A}}$. We may also assume that all queries to $A$ in the computation of $G^{A}(\langle x, w\rangle)$ are bounded by the running time of $M$. Let $r$ be a polynomial bounding the running time of $M$. Define, for any oracle $A$ and any $x$ of length $n$,

$$
\hat{G}^{A}(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} G^{A}\left(\left\langle x, w_{A}\right\rangle\right)
$$

where

$$
w_{A} \stackrel{d f}{=} A\left(x 0^{r(n)+1}\right) A\left(x 0^{r(n)+2}\right) \cdots A\left(x 0^{r(n)+s(n)}\right)
$$

Clearly there is an OCM $\hat{N}$ such that $\hat{G}^{A}=\operatorname{gap}_{\hat{N}^{A}}$ for all $A$. Fix $x$ of length $n$. The string $w_{A}$ is made up of bits consisting of the values of $A$ on arguments which are not used in either the computation of $F^{A}(x)$ or the computation of $G^{A}(\langle x, w\rangle)$ for any $w$ of length $s(n)$. Because of this independence, we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{R}\left[\hat{G}^{R}(x) \neq F^{R}(x)\right] \leq 2^{-\epsilon(n)}
$$

Letting $c$ be any natural number and letting $\epsilon(n) \stackrel{d f}{=} 2 n+c+1$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
&{\underset{R}{P}}_{\operatorname{Pr}_{R}}\left[\hat{G}^{R} \neq F^{R}\right] \\
&={\underset{R}{R}}_{\operatorname{Pr}\left[(\exists x) \hat{G}^{R}(x) \neq F^{R}(x)\right]} \\
& \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{x:|x|=n}{\underset{R}{R}}^{\operatorname{Pr}^{2}}\left[\hat{G}^{R}(x) \neq F^{R}(x)\right] \\
& \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{x:|x|=n} 2^{-2 n-c-1} \\
&=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^{-n-c-1} \\
&=2^{-c}
\end{aligned}
$$

which in turn implies that

$$
\begin{aligned}
1-2^{-c} & \leq \operatorname{Pr}_{R}\left[F^{R}=\hat{G}^{R}\right] \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}_{R}\left[F^{R} \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{R}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\operatorname{Pr}_{R}\left[F^{R} \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{R}\right]$ is independent of $c$, we may take $c$ arbitrarily large to get

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{R}\left[F^{R} \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{R}\right]=1
$$

Since $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{P H^{X}}=\bigcup_{F} F^{X}$ where the $F$ 's are computed by only countably many machines $M$ described above, we obtain

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{R}\left[\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{P H^{R}}=\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{R}\right]=1
$$

Corollary 6.4 Almost $\left(S P P^{P H}\right)=\operatorname{Almost}(S P P)$.
Proof: Let $L$ be any language. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
L & \in S P P^{P H^{A}} \text { for a.e. } A \\
& \Longleftrightarrow \chi_{L} \in \operatorname{Gap}^{P H^{A}} \text { for a.e. } A \\
& \Longleftrightarrow \chi_{L} \in \operatorname{Gap}^{A} \text { for a.e. } A
\end{aligned}
$$

by proposition 6.3.
Subsequent research [8] implies that Almost $(S P P)$ is also nonuniformly gap-definable.
For the next corollary, a natural way to relativize $\operatorname{Almost}(\mathcal{C})$ to an oracle $A$ is to say that $L \in(\operatorname{Almost}(\mathcal{C}))^{A}$ if and only if $\operatorname{Pr}_{R}\left[L \in \mathcal{C}^{R \oplus A}\right]=1$. With this definition, $\operatorname{Almost}(P)$ relativizes the same way as $B P P$ with the usual machine-based definition.

Corollary 6.5 $P H$ is low for Almost $(S P P)$.

Proof: It can be easily shown that $(\operatorname{Almost}(S P P))^{P H}$ is a subclass of $\operatorname{Almost}\left(S P P^{P H}\right)$ and a superclass of $\operatorname{Almost}(S P P)$. The corollary follows from the equality of the two latter classes.

Corollary 6.6 $P H \subseteq \operatorname{Almost}(S P P)$.
Corollary 6.7 With respect to a random oracle, $P H \subseteq S P P$, in fact, $P H$ is low for $S P P$.
Proof: For a.e. $A$ we have

$$
P H^{A} \subseteq S P P^{P H^{A}}=\left\{L \mid \chi_{L} \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{P H^{A}}\right\}=\left\{L \mid \chi_{L} \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}^{A}\right\}=S P P^{A} .
$$

## 7 Closure Properties of GapP

It is natural to ask if, in addition to the closure properties enumerated in section 3, Gap $\mathbf{P}$ has any other closure properties. For example, is Gap $\mathbf{P}$ closed under unrestricted composition with itself? Is Gap $\mathbf{P}$ closed under left composition with functions in $F P$ ? We know from section 3 that $\operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$ is closed under left composition with the "bounded" delta function $\delta_{k}^{B}$. Is Gap $\mathbf{P}$ also closed under left composition with the "unbounded" delta function

$$
\delta(x) \stackrel{d j}{\stackrel{ }{f}} \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } x=0, \\ 0 & \text { otherwise },\end{cases}
$$

defined for all $x \in Z$ ?
The answer to all of these questions is no, unless certain unlikely complexity theoretic identities hold. Ogiwara \& Hemachandra [19] have studied closure questions such as these in detail, primarily for the class \#P. They and Gupta [12] also address closure properties of GapP. We obtained theorem 7.1 independently of their work. See [19] for a nice, unified treatment of these questions.

In theorem 7.1 below, if $P(\vec{x})$ is any predicate, we define the function

$$
[P(\vec{x})] \stackrel{d j}{\stackrel{j}{f}} \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } P(\vec{x}) \text { is true }, \\ 0 & \text { otherwise. } .\end{cases}
$$

For example, $[x=0]=\delta(x)$ as defined above. Also recall that we have identified $\Sigma^{*}$ with $Z$ for computational purposes.

Theorem 7.1 The following are equivalent:

1. $\{\delta\} \circ \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P} \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
2. $\{\lambda x y .[x=y]\} \circ(\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P} \times \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}) \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
3. $\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P} \circ \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P} \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
4. $\{\lambda x \cdot[0<x]\} \circ \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P} \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
5. $\{\lambda x y \cdot[x<y]\} \circ(\operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P} \times \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}) \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
6. $S P P=P P$.
7. $S P P=C_{=} P$.
8. $(\lambda x y \cdot[x=y]) \circ(\# \boldsymbol{P} \times \# \boldsymbol{P}) \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \boldsymbol{P}$.
9. $F P \circ G a p \boldsymbol{P} \subseteq G a p \boldsymbol{P}$.

Proof Sketch: In what follows, $f$ and $g$ are arbitrary functions in Gap $\mathbf{P}$.
$\mathbf{1} \Longrightarrow 2:[f(x)=g(x)]=\delta(f(x)-g(x))$.
$\mathbf{2} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{3 :} g(f(x))=\sum_{y \in Z} g(y) \cdot[y=f(x)]$.
$\mathbf{3} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{1}$ : Follows from the fact that $\delta \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$.
$2 \Longrightarrow 4:[0<f(x)]=\sum_{y>0}[y=f(x)]$.
$4 \Longrightarrow 5:[f(x)<g(x)]=[0<g(x)-f(x)]$.
$\mathbf{5} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{1}: \delta(f(x))=1-[0<f(x)]-[f(x)<0]$.
$4 \Longrightarrow 6$ : If $L \in P P$ witnessed by $f \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$, then $L \in S P P$ witnessed by $[0<f(x)]$.
$6 \Longrightarrow$ 7: Follows from the fact that $C_{=} P \subseteq P P$.
$7 \Longrightarrow$ 1: The $C_{=} P$ set $\{x \mid f(x)=0\}$ is in $S P P$ witnessed by the function $[f(x)=0]=\delta(f(x))$. Hence $\delta \circ f \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$.
$\mathbf{2} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{8 :}$ Follows from the fact that $\# \mathbf{P} \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$.
$\mathbf{8} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{1}$ : If $f=f_{1}-f_{2}$ where $f_{1}, f_{2} \in \# \mathbf{P}$, then $[f(x)=0]=\left[f_{1}(x)=f_{2}(x)\right]$.
$\mathbf{3} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{9 :}$ Follows from the fact that $F P \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$.
$\mathbf{9} \Longrightarrow 1$ : Follows from the fact that $\delta \in F P$.

Ogiwara \& Hemachandra [19] and independently Gupta [12] show further that statements 6 and 7 are equivalent to the polynomial counting hierarchy collapsing to $S P P$ (see either source for definitions).

## 8 Structure of the Gap-Definable Classes

In this section we examine the collection $\mathcal{G}$ of all gap-definable classes, partially ordered by inclusion. We show that any countable class of languages is contained in a unique minimum gap-definable class (its 'gap-closure'). From this we show that $\mathcal{G}$ is closed under intersection, and further that $\mathcal{G}$ is a lattice under inclusion, i.e., any two gap-definable classes have a gap-definable least-upper-bound and a gap-definable greatest-lower-bound.

In section 8.1 we will define a gap-closure operator, GapCl, which maps countable classes of languages to other countable classes of languages. There we will show that GapCl satisfies the following axioms for any countable classes $\mathcal{D}$ and $\mathcal{E}$ :

1. $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$ is gap-definable.
2. $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \operatorname{Cl}(\mathcal{D})$.
3. If $\mathcal{D}$ is gap-definable, then $\operatorname{Gap} \operatorname{Cl}(\mathcal{D})=\mathcal{D}$.
4. $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{E} \Longrightarrow \operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D}) \subseteq \operatorname{Gap} \mathrm{Cl}(\mathcal{E})(\mathrm{GapCl}$ is monotone).

In order to prove these results, we must build accepting and rejecting sets that are not recursive (see section 8.1). (Despite this fact, the complexity of $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{C})$ is not a great deal higher that that of $\mathcal{C}$; in particular, if $\mathcal{C}$ consists only of recursive sets, than so does $\mathrm{GapCl}(\mathcal{C})$.) We use the same technique in section 8.1 to show that the classes $W P P$ and $L W P P$ are (nonuniformly) gap-definable.

We can use GapCl to get structural information about the gap-definable classes, summarized in the following theorem:

## Theorem 8.1

1. $\operatorname{GapCl}(\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D}))=\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})(G a p C l$ is idempotent $)$.
2. If $\mathcal{D}$ is a countable class, there is a unique minimum gap-definable class which contains $\mathcal{D}$.
3. Any countable collection of gap-definable classes has a gap-definable least-upper-bound (under inclusion).
4. The intersection of an arbitrary collection of gap-definable classes is gap-definable.
5. The gap-definable classes form a lattice (under inclusion).

## Proof:

1. Follows immediately from axioms 1 and 3 .
2. Clearly, $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$ by axiom 2 , and $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$ is gap-definable by axiom 1. If $\mathcal{E}$ is any gap-definable class containing $\mathcal{D}$, then by axioms 3 and $4, \operatorname{Gap} \operatorname{Cl}(\mathcal{D}) \subseteq \operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{E})=\mathcal{E}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$ is the least gap-definable class containing $\mathcal{D}$.
3. Let $\left\{\mathcal{D}_{i}\right\}_{i \in \Sigma^{*}}$ be a collection of gap-definable classes. All the $\mathcal{D}_{i}$ are countable, so $\mathcal{D}=$ $\bigcup_{i \in \Sigma^{*}} \mathcal{D}_{i}$ is countable, and $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$ is the required least-upper-bound.
4. Let $\left\{\mathcal{D}_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be an arbitrary collection of gap-definable classes, and let $\mathcal{D} \stackrel{d f}{=} \bigcap_{i \in I} \mathcal{D}_{i}$. For all $i \in I$, we have $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_{i}$, so by axioms 3 and 4 , we have $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D}) \subseteq \operatorname{GapCl}\left(\mathcal{D}_{i}\right)=\mathcal{D}_{i}$. Thus $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D}) \subseteq \mathcal{D}$, and so $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})=\mathcal{D}$ by axiom 2. Thus $\mathcal{D}$ is gap-definable by axiom 1.
5. This follows immediately from the previous two claims. The least-upper-bound of two classes is the gap-closure of their union, and the greatest-lower-bound is their intersection.

The operator GapCl satisfies some other nice properties besides axioms 1-4. For example, if $\mathcal{D}$ is closed downward under ptime $m$-reductions, then $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$ is similarly closed (theorem 8.5 in section 8.1). Thus we know immediately that $\operatorname{GapCl}(N P)$ is closed under ptime $m$-reductions, for instance.

### 8.1 The Gap-Closure Operator, GapCl

Let $W$ be an immune set, i.e., $W$ has the following two properties:

1. $W$ is infinite.
2. $W$ has no infinite recursively enumerable subsets.

It is well-known that such sets exist (see [21, 24]); for example, we can take

$$
W \stackrel{d f}{=}\left\{x \in \Sigma^{*}|K(x) \geq|x| / 2\}\right.
$$

where $K(x)$ is the Kolmogorov complexity of $x$ with respect to some fixed universal DTM (see [18]). We let $W=\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}, w_{3}, \ldots\right\}$, where $w_{1}<w_{2}<w_{3}<\ldots$.

Now suppose $\mathcal{D}=\left\{L_{1}, L_{2}, L_{3}, \ldots\right\}$ is a countable collection of languages. Define

$$
A_{\mathcal{D}} \stackrel{d f}{=}\left\{\left(x, w_{i}\right) \mid x \in L_{i}\right\}
$$

and

$$
R_{\mathcal{D}} \stackrel{d f}{=}\left\{\left(x, w_{i}\right) \mid x \notin L_{i}\right\},
$$

and define $\operatorname{Gap} \mathrm{Cl}(\mathcal{D}) \stackrel{d f}{=} \operatorname{Gap}\left(A_{\mathcal{D}}, R_{\mathcal{D}}\right)$.
Fact 8.2 If $M$ is an $\left(A_{\mathcal{D}}, R_{\mathcal{D}}\right)$-proper $C M$, then range $\left(g a p_{M}\right)$ is a finite subset of $W$.
Proof: Clearly, range $\left(\operatorname{gap}_{M}\right) \subseteq W$ by the definitions of $A_{\mathcal{D}}$ and $R_{\mathcal{D}}$. Since gap ${ }_{M}$ is a computable function, its range is recursively enumerable and hence finite by the second property of $W$.

Theorem 8.3 The operator GapCl satisfies axioms 1-4 above.

## Proof:

1. $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$ is gap-definable by definition.
2. If $L \in \mathcal{D}=\left\{L_{1}, L_{2}, \ldots\right\}$, then $L=L_{i}$ for some $i \geq 1$. Any CM $M$ that generates a constant gap of $w_{i}$ is $\left(A_{\mathcal{D}}, R_{\mathcal{D}}\right)$-proper, and $L=L_{A_{\mathcal{D}}, R_{\mathcal{D}}}(M)$. Thus $L \in \operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$.
3. Suppose $\mathcal{D}=\left\{L_{1}, L_{2}, \ldots\right\}=\operatorname{Gap}(A, R)$ for some $A$ and $R$, and let $M_{1}, M_{2}, \ldots$ be $(A, R)$ proper CM's such that $L_{i}=L_{A, R}\left(M_{i}\right)$ for all $i \geq 1$. Suppose $L$ is a language in $\operatorname{Gap} \operatorname{Cl}(\mathcal{D})$. We have

$$
L=L_{A_{\mathcal{D}}, R_{\mathcal{D}}}(M)
$$

for some $\left(A_{\mathcal{D}}, R_{\mathcal{D}}\right)$-proper CM $M$. By fact 8.2 above, there is some $k \geq 1$ such that range $\left(\operatorname{gap}_{M}\right) \subseteq\left\{w_{1}, \ldots, w_{k}\right\}$. Consider a CM $N$ such that

$$
\operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \delta_{w_{i}}^{w_{k}}\left(\operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)\right) \operatorname{gap}_{M_{i}}(x)
$$

where the $\delta_{w_{i}}^{w_{k}}$ are the delta functions defined in section 3 . Such an $N$ clearly exists. Given an input $x$, suppose $\operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)=w_{i_{0}}$ for some $1 \leq i_{0} \leq k$. Then $\operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)=\operatorname{gap}_{M_{i_{0}}}(x)$. Furthermore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \in L & \Longrightarrow\left(x, \operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)\right) \in A_{\mathcal{D}} \\
& \Longrightarrow\left(x, w_{i_{0}}\right) \in A_{\mathcal{D}} \\
& \Longrightarrow x \in L_{i_{0}} \\
& \Longrightarrow\left(x, \operatorname{gap}_{M_{i_{0}}}(x)\right) \in A \\
& \Longrightarrow\left(x, \operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)\right) \in A
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, $x \notin L \Longrightarrow\left(x, \operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)\right) \in R$. Thus $N$ is $(A, R)$-proper and $L=L_{A, R}(N)$, so $L \in \operatorname{Gap}(A, R)=\mathcal{D}$.
4. Suppose $\mathcal{D}=\left\{L_{1}, L_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ and $\mathcal{E}=\left\{L_{1}^{\prime}, L_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots\right\}$ are countable language classes and $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{E}$. Assume $L=L_{A_{\mathcal{D}}, R_{\mathcal{D}}}(M)$ for some $\left(A_{\mathcal{D}}, R_{\mathcal{D}}\right)$-proper CM $M$. We show that $L \in \operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{E})$. As before, there exists a $k$ such that range $\left(\operatorname{gap}_{M}\right) \subseteq\left\{w_{1}, \ldots, w_{k}\right\}$. Since $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{E}$, there exist $n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k}$ such that $L_{i}=L_{n_{i}}^{\prime}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Let $N$ be a CM such that

$$
\operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \delta_{u_{i}}^{w_{k}}\left(\operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)\right) w_{n_{i}}
$$

By an argument similar to the one above, we have that $N$ is $\left(A_{\mathcal{E}}, R_{\mathcal{E}}\right)$-proper and $L=$ $L_{A_{\mathcal{E}}, R_{\mathcal{E}}}(N)$. Thus $L \in \operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{E})$.

The preceding proof relativizes to any oracle, but only nonuniformly. This is because given an oracle, we must choose $W$ to be immune relative to that oracle. Thus the accepting and rejecting sets that we construct must depend on the oracle. This means that the gap-closure of a class is not necessarily uniformly gap-definable.

We now use the same technique to show that $W P P$ and $L W P P$ are nonuniformly gapdefinable.

Proposition 8.4 The classes WPP and LWPP are (nonuniformly) gap-definable.
Proof: We show that $W P P=\operatorname{GapCl}(W P P)$. The proof for $L W P P$ is similar. Let $W P P=$ $\left\{L_{1}, L_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ such that for all $i>0$ and $x \in \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \in L_{i} & \Longrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M_{i}}(x)=f_{i}(x) \\
x \notin L_{i} & \Longrightarrow \operatorname{gap}_{M_{i}}(x)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

for CM's $M_{1}, M_{2}, \ldots$ and $F P$ functions $f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots$ As in the proof of theorem 8.3, let $L \stackrel{d f}{=}$ $L_{A_{\mathbf{W P P}}, R_{\mathbf{W P P}}}(M)$ for some CM $M$, and let $k$ be as before. Define $F \in F P$ by

$$
F(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} \prod_{j=1}^{k} f_{j}(x)
$$

Let $N$ be a CM such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)= \\
& \quad \sum_{i=1}^{k}\left[\delta_{w_{i}}^{w_{k}}\left(\operatorname{gap}_{M}(x)\right) \cdot \operatorname{gap}_{M_{i}}(x) \cdot \prod_{1 \leq j \leq k \& j \neq i} f_{j}(x)\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

By arguments similar to theorem $8.3, L \in W P P$ as witnessed by the CM $N$ and $F P$ function $F$.

What closure properties of a class $\mathcal{D}$ are inherited by $\operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$ ? We can show the following:
Theorem 8.5 Let $\mathcal{D}$ be a countable class of languages.

1. If $\mathcal{D}$ is closed downward under ptime m-reductions, then $\operatorname{Gap} \operatorname{Cl}(\mathcal{D})$ is closed downward under ptime m-reductions.
2. If $\mathcal{D}$ is closed under complements, then $\operatorname{Gap} \operatorname{Cl}(\mathcal{D})$ is closed under complements.
3. If $\mathcal{D}$ is closed downward under ptime 1-tt-reductions, then $\operatorname{Gap} \operatorname{Cl}(\mathcal{D})$ is closed downward under ptime 1-tt-reductions.

Proof: We only prove the first statement. The other two are similar. Suppose $\mathcal{D}$, as above, is closed under ptime $m$-reductions, $L \in \operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$, and $f$ is any function in $F P$. We must show that $f^{-1}[L] \in \operatorname{GapCl}(\mathcal{D})$. Let $L=L_{A_{\mathcal{D}}, R_{\mathcal{D}}}(M)$ and $k$ be as before. Since $\mathcal{D}$ is closed under ptime $m$-reductions, there exist $n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k}$ such that $L_{n_{i}}=f^{-1}\left[L_{i}\right]$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Let $N$ be a CM such that

$$
\operatorname{gap}_{N}(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \delta_{w_{i}}^{w_{k}}\left(\operatorname{gap}_{M}(f(x))\right) w_{n_{i}}
$$

By arguments similar to those for theorem 8.3, we get $f^{-1}[L]=L_{A_{\mathcal{D}}, R_{\mathcal{D}}}(N)$.
Subsequent research [8] has shown that GapCl also preserves closure under union, intersection, join, and finite difference. Moreover, the definition of GapCl and gap-definability can be greatly simplified for classes closed under union and intersection.

## 9 Alternative Notions of Gap-Definability

There are three natural conditions one can add to the definition of gap-definability:

1. The accepting and rejecting sets $A$ and $R$ must partition $\Sigma^{*} \times Z$, i.e., $A \cup R=\Sigma^{*} \times Z$.
2. The criteria for acceptance/rejection must be independent of the input, i.e., $A=\Sigma^{*} \times A^{\prime}$ and $R=\Sigma^{*} \times R^{\prime}$ for disjoint sets $A^{\prime}, R^{\prime} \subseteq Z$.
3. The sets $A$ and $R$ must be of low complexity.

The second and third conditions both lead to proper restrictions of the notion of gap-definability, even when one considers only reasonable gap-definable classes (exercise). This is not known for the first condition, however (see section 10). Each restriction has its own advantages: the first restriction guarantees that all CM's are ( $A, R$ )-proper, and hence the resulting classes are all recursively presentable, at least relative to $A$ and $R$; the second restriction guarantees that the resulting classes are closed under joins, finite differences (provided the classes are reasonable), and polynomial-time $m$-reductions; the third restriction ensures that the resulting classes are of reasonably low complexity. The first two conditions taken together yield the classes GapIn $[Q]$ (see definition 4.5) considered by Toda \& Ogiwara [28], which we will call nice classes. As well as having all the properties mentioned above, nice classes also have complete sets (under polynomial time $m$-reductions). Despite these restrictions, all the well-known gap-definable classes- $P P, C_{=} P$, and $\operatorname{Mod}_{k} P$-are nice, and have simple acceptance/rejection criteria.

A disadvantage of these restrictions is that the theorems of section 8 apparently do not hold for any of them. At present, we see no way of getting around the use of (nonrecursive) immune sets to verify the properties of GapCl. It also appears that the intersection of two nice classes is most likely not nice, in fact, we have the following proposition:

Proposition 9.1 If $Q_{1}, Q_{2} \subseteq Z$ are chosen independently at random, then

$$
\operatorname{GapIn}\left[Q_{1}\right] \cap \operatorname{GapIn}\left[Q_{2}\right]=S P P
$$

with probability 1.
Proposition 9.1 follows immediately from lemmas 9.3 and 9.4 , below, with a simple application of Fubini's Theorem. Recall that we identify $\Sigma^{*}$ with $Z$.

Definition 9.2 Fix an oracle $A \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$. A set $S \subseteq Z$ is immune relative to $A$ if

1. $S$ is infinite, and
2. every $A$-r.e. subset of $S$ is finite.

The set $S$ is bi-immune relative to $A$ if both $S$ and $Z-S$ are immune relative to $A$.
Lemma 9.3 For every set $A \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{S}[S \text { is bi-immune relative to } A]=1
$$

Proof: Fix an $A$-r.e. set $W \subseteq Z$ and let $S \subseteq Z$ be chosen at random. Since there are only countably many finite and cofinite sets, $S$ and $Z-S$ are both infinite with probability 1. Clearly,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{S}[W \subseteq S \quad \vee \quad W \subseteq Z-S]=2^{-|W|+1}
$$

if $W$ is finite, and $\operatorname{Pr}_{S}[W \subseteq S \vee W \subseteq Z-S]=0$ if $W$ is infinite. Since there are only countably many infinite $A$-r.e. sets, we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{S}[S \text { is not bi-immune relative to } A]
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\operatorname{Pr}_{S}[(\exists W \text { infinite } A \text {-r.e. }) W \subseteq S \vee W \subseteq Z-S] \\
& \leq \sum_{W \inf A \text {-r.e. }} \operatorname{Pr}_{S}[W \subseteq S \vee W \subseteq Z-S] \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

so the lemma holds.

Lemma 9.4 For every $Q_{1}, Q_{2} \subseteq Z$, if $Q_{1} \notin\{\emptyset, Z\}$ and $Q_{2}$ is bi-immune relative to $Q_{1}$, then

$$
\operatorname{GapIn}\left[Q_{1}\right] \cap \operatorname{GapIn}\left[Q_{2}\right]=S P P
$$

Proof: Clearly, $S P P \subseteq \operatorname{GapIn}\left[Q_{1}\right] \cap \operatorname{GapIn}\left[Q_{2}\right]$ by theorem 5.4 and the fact that $\operatorname{GapIn}\left[Q_{1}\right]$ and Gap $\operatorname{In}\left[Q_{2}\right]$ are both reasonable gap-definable classes.

Let $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be a language in GapIn[ $\left.Q_{1}\right] \cap \operatorname{GapIn}\left[Q_{2}\right]$. There exist $f, g \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$ such that for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow f(x) \in Q_{1} \Longleftrightarrow g(x) \in Q_{2} .
$$

The first biconditional implies that $L$ is recursive in $Q_{1}$, which in turn implies that both $g[L]$ and $g[\bar{L}]$ are $Q_{1}$-r.e. But since $g[L] \subseteq Q_{2}$ and $g[\bar{L}] \subseteq Z-Q_{2}$, both sets are finite, and thus $g$ has finite range. It is then clear that $L \in$ Gap-Few, and so by theorem 5.9, $L \in S P P$.

## 10 Open Questions

There are several interesting questions regarding gap-definable classes.

- Because $W P P$ and $L W P P$ are only nonuniformly gap-definable, it is not at all clear that $W P P^{S P P}=W P P$. The best we are able to show is that $W P P^{S P P} \subseteq C=P \cap \operatorname{co}-C=P$.
- Is $W P P$ uniformly gap-definable?
- Does $W P P=S P P$, or even $L W P P=S P P$ ?
- Is $W P P$ closed under polynomial-time Turing reductions?
- Is there a Gap $\mathbf{P}$ function Turing equivalent to an $N P$-complete language?
- How does $B P P$ relate to the gap-definable classes? In particular, is it the case that $\operatorname{GapCl}(B P P)=P P$ ?
- Does GapCl preserve closure under less restricted reductions, e.g., ptime tt-reductions?
- Is there a reasonable gap-definable class which does not satisfy the first condition in section 9? Is $S P P$ such a class?
- Are there two nice classes whose intersection is known not to be nice?
- Are there other interesting gap-definable classes not previously studied?


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## A $W P P$

We reproduce here Toda's result [26] mentioned in section 5 .
Theorem A. 1 (Toda) $P P^{W P P}=P P$.
The theorem follows immediately from the following three lemmas:
Lemma A. $2 P P^{W P P}=C \cdot P_{c t t}^{W P P}$, where $C$. is Wagner's counting operator [30], and $P_{c t t}^{W P P}$ is the closure of $W P P$ under conjunctive tt-reductions.
Lemma A. $3 P_{c t t}^{W P P}=W P P$.
Proof Sketch: Suppose $L \leq_{c t t}^{p} S$ via the function $r(x) \stackrel{d f}{=}\left\langle q_{1}, \ldots, q_{m}\right\rangle$, and $S \in W P P$ witnessed by the FP function $f$ and GapP function $g$. Then $L \in W P P$ witnessed by the $F P$ function $h(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} \prod_{q \in r(x)} f(q)$ and the GapP function $k(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} \prod_{q \in r(x)} g(q)$.

Lemma A. $4 C \cdot W P P=P P$.
Proof Sketch: Obviously $P P=C \cdot P \subseteq C \cdot W P P$. Conversely, let $L$ be in $C \cdot W P P$. Then there exist $A \in W P P$ and a polynomial $p$ such that for all $x$ of length $n$,

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow\left|\left\{w \in\{0,1\}^{p(n)} \mid x \# w \in A\right\}\right|>2^{p(n)-1} .
$$

Moreover, there exist functions $F \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$ and $f \in F P$ such that for all $y, f(y) \neq 0$ and

1. $F(y)$ is either 0 or $f(y)$, and
2. $y \in A \Longleftrightarrow F(y)=f(y)$.

We can assume without loss of generality that $f(y)>0$ for all $y$. Let $q$ be a polynomial satisfying $q(n)>p(n)$ for all $n$, and $2^{q(n)}>f(x \# w)$ for all $x$ of length $n$ and $w$ of length $p(n)$. Then, define a function $G$ as follows: for all $x$ of length $n$,

$$
G(x) \stackrel{d f}{=} \sum_{w \in\{0,1\}^{p(n)}}\left[2^{2 q(n)} / f(x \# w)\right] \cdot F(x \# w)
$$

Obviously, $G \in \operatorname{Gap} \mathbf{P}$. It is now easy to show that for all $x$ of length $n$,

$$
x \in L \Longleftrightarrow G(x) \geq\left(2^{p(n)-1}+1\right) \cdot 2^{2 q(n)} .
$$

Therefore $L \in P P$.


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