# Approximation complexity of complex-weighted degree-two counting constraint satisfaction problems 

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## A R TICLE IN F O

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#### Abstract

Constraint satisfaction problems have been studied in numerous fields with practical and theoretical interests. In recent years, major breakthroughs have been made in a study of counting constraint satisfaction problems (or \#CSPs). In particular, a computational complexity classification of bounded-degree \#CSPs has been discovered for all degrees except for two, where the "degree" of an input instance is the maximal number of times that each input variable appears in a given set of constraints. Despite the efforts of recent studies, however, a complexity classification of degree-2 \#CSPs has eluded from our understandings. This paper challenges this open problem and gives its partial solution by applying two novel proof techniques - $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-constructibility and parametrized symmetrization - which are specifically designed to handle "arbitrary" constraints under randomized approximation-preserving reductions. We partition entire constraints into four sets and we classify the approximation complexity of all degree-2 \#CSPs whose constraints are drawn from two of the four sets into two categories: problems computable in polynomial-time or problems that are at least as hard as \#SAT. Our proof exploits a close relationship between complex-weighted degree-2 \#CSPs and Holant problems, which are a natural generalization of complex-weighted \#CSPs.


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## 1. Approximation complexity of bounded-degree \#CSPs

Constraint satisfaction problems (or CSPs, in short), which are composed of "variables" (on appropriate domains) and "constraints" among those variables, have been studied with practical and theoretical interests in various fields, including artificial intelligence, database theory, graph theory, and statistical physics. A decision version of CSP asks whether, given a list of constraints over variables, all the constraints are satisfied simultaneously. Schaefer [9] first charted a whole map of the computational complexity of Boolean CSPs (i.e., CSPs with constraints on the Boolean domain) according to a fixed list of constraints.

Of numerous variants of CSPs, in particular, a counting CSP (or \#CSP) asks how many variable assignments satisfy all the given constraints. As a typical \#CSP, the counting satisfiability problem (or \#SAT) is to count the total number of satisfiable assignments for each given logical formula. This counting problem \#SAT is known to be computationally hard for Valiant's class \#P of counting functions [10].

In the past two decades, a great progress has been observed in a study of \#CSPs and their variants. The first major leap came in 1996 when Creignou and Hermann [4] discovered a precise classification of all unweighted \#CSPs (i.e., \#CSPs with Boolean-valued constraints). Their classification theorem asserts that every \#CSP whose constraints are all taken from a fixed set $\mathcal{F}$ (denoted $\# \operatorname{CSP}(\mathcal{F})$ ) can be classified into one of the following two categories: polynomial-time computable problems or \#P-hard problems. This statement is known as a dichotomy theorem for unweighted \#CSPs.

[^0]In many real-life problems, however, natural constraints often take real or complex values rather than Boolean values. It is therefore quite natural to expand the scope of constraints from Boolean values to real values and beyond. An early extension was made by Dyer, Goldberg, and Jerrum [7] to nonnegative rational numbers. After a series of vigorous work, Cai, Lu, and Xia [3] finally gave a most general form of classification theorem for complex-weighted \#CSPs (i.e., \#CSPs with complexvalued constraints), provided that arbitrary unary constraints can be freely added to input instances. For succinctness, hereafter, we use " $*$ (star)" as in "\#CSP*" to indicate this extra use of free unary constraints.

Another major progress has been recently reported in an area of the approximation complexity of \#CSPs. Using a notion of randomized approximation-preserving reducibility (or AP-reducibility, in short) [5], Dyer et al. [8] discovered a complete classification of the approximation complexity of unweighted \#CSPs. Unlike the aforementioned exact complexity case, unweighted \#CSPs are classified into three categories, which include an intermediate level between polynomialtime computable problems and \#P-hard problems. This trichotomy theorem therefore draws a clear contrast between the approximation complexity and the exact complexity of the unweighted \#CSPs. Later in 2010, this result was further extended into complex-weighted \#CSP*s [14]. A recent extensive study has also targeted another important refinement of \#CSPs - bounded-degree \#CSPs - where the "degree" is the maximal number of times that any variable appears in a given set of constraints. A complete classification was recently given by Dyer et al. [6] to unweighted bounded-degree \#CSP*s when their degree exceeds 2 . Subsequently, Yamakami [15] extended their result to complex-weighted bounded-degree \#CSP* . We conveniently say that counting problems $A$ and $B$ are "AP-equivalent (in complexity)" when they have the same computational complexity under the aforementioned AP-reductions. With a help of this notion, for any set $\mathcal{F}$ of constraints, \#CSP ${ }^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ 's and \#CSP ${ }_{3}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ 's become AP-equivalent [15], where the subscript " 3 " in \# $\operatorname{CSP}_{3}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ indicates that the maximum degree is at most 3 . Nevertheless, degree-2 \#CSPs have eluded from our understandings and it has remained open to discover a complete classification of the approximation complexity of degree-2 \#CSPs.

This paper presents a partial solution to this open problem by exploiting a fact that the computational complexity of \#CSP*s are closely linked to that of Holant problems, where Holant problems were introduced by Cai et al. [3] to generalize a framework of \#CSPs (motivated and influenced by Valiant's holographic reductions and algorithms [12,13]). In this framework, complex-valued constraints (on the Boolean domain) are simply called signatures. A Holant problem then asks to compute the total weights of the products of the values of signatures over all possible edge-assignments to an input graph. Conveniently, let Holant* $(\mathcal{F})$ denote a complex-weighted Holant problem whose signatures are limited to a given set $\mathcal{F}$ and unary signatures. A close link we exploit here is that \#CSP ${ }_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ 's and $\operatorname{Holant}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ 's are AP-equivalent [15], and this equivalence makes it possible for us to work on the Holant framework.

When any permutation of Boolean variables of a signature $f$ does not change the output value of $f$, the signature $f$ is called symmetric. Typical examples of symmetric signatures include $O R$ (where $O R\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ evaluates the logical formula " $x_{1} \vee x_{2}$ ") and NAND (which evaluates "not $\left(x_{1} \wedge x_{2}\right)$ "). All symmetric Holant* problems (where unary signatures are given for free) were neatly classified by Cai et al. [3] into two categories: those solvable in polynomial time and those at least as hard as the complex-weighted counting satisfiability problem (or $\# S A T_{\mathbb{C}}$ ). To obtain this dichotomy theorem, Cai et al. used a technique of Valiant [13], called a holographic transformation, which transforms signatures without changing solutions of the associated Holant* problems.

The difference between symmetric signatures and asymmetric ones in the case of approximation complexity of \#CSPs with Boolean constraints are quite striking. Even for a simple example of binary (i.e., arity-2) constraints, the symmetric signature $O R$ makes the corresponding counting problem \#CSP $(O R)$ \#P-hard, whereas the asymmetric signature Implies (where $\operatorname{Implies}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ evaluates the propositional formula " $x_{1} \supset x_{2}$ ") makes \#CSP(Implies) sit between the set of polynomialtime solvable problems and the set of \#P-hard problems [8] and \#CSP(Implies) has been speculated to be tractable.

In this paper, we give two approximation classification theorems for complex-weighted degree-2 \#CSP*s. Our major contributions are two fold: (1) we present a systematic technique of handling arbitrary signatures and (2) we demonstrate two classification theorems for approximation complexity of complex-weighted \#CSP*s associated with particular sets of signatures. To be more precise, in the first classification theorem (Theorem 3.4), we first define a ternary signature set SIG and prove that, for any signature $f$ outside of $\operatorname{SIG}, \# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f)$ is at least as hard as $\# \mathrm{SAT}_{\mathbb{C}}$. This result leaves the remaining task of focusing on ternary signatures residing within SIG. For our convenience, we will split SIG into three parts - SIG ${ }_{0}$, $S I G_{1}$, and $S I G_{2}$ - and, in the second classification theorem, when all signatures are drawn from SIG $_{1}$, we provide with a complete classification of all degree-2 \#CSP*s. The other two sets will be handled in separate papers due to their lengthy proofs. The second classification theorem (Theorem 3.5) is roughly stated as follows: for any set $\mathcal{F}$ of signatures in SIG , if $\mathcal{F}$ is included in a particular signature set, called DUP, then $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ is solvable in polynomial time; otherwise, \#CSP ${ }_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ is computationally hard for $\# P_{\mathbb{C}}$ under AP-reductions, where $\# P_{\mathbb{C}}$ is a complex-valued version of $\# P$ (see, e.g., [14]). In fact, we can precisely describe the requirements for asymmetric signatures to be $\# \mathrm{P}_{\mathbb{C}}$-hard. Proving these two theorems require novel ideas and new technical tools: $T_{2}$-constructibility and parametrized symmetrization scheme of asymmetric signatures.

Our proofs of the aforementioned main theorems proceed in the following way. From an arbitrary ternary signature $f$, we nicely construct a new "ternary" signature, denoted Sym $(f)$, so that $\operatorname{Sym}(f)$ becomes symmetric. This process, which is a form of (simple) symmetrization scheme, is carried out by $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-construction, and this construction ensures that the corresponding problem \#CSP ${ }_{2}^{*}(f)$ is AP-equivalent to \#CSP ${ }_{2}^{*}(\operatorname{Sym}(f))$. When $f$ is outside of $\operatorname{SIG}$, $\operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(\operatorname{Sym}(f))$ further becomes APequivalent to certain symmetric Holant* problems, and thus we can appeal to the dichotomy theorem of Cai et al. for symmetric Holant* problems. When $f$ is in SIG $_{1}$, on the contrary, we need another symmetric "binary" signature alongside
$\operatorname{Sym}(f)$. Employing another symmetrization scheme, we $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-construct such a signature, denoted $\operatorname{SymL}(f)$, from $f$. Moreover, this new signature is "parametrized" so that we can discuss an infinite number of similar signatures simultaneously. To apply Cai et al. 's dichotomy theorem, the two symmetrized signatures must fail to meet a few special conditions. To prove that this is indeed the case, we falsely assume that those conditions are met. Now, we translate the conditions into a set of certain low-degree multivariate polynomial equations that have a common solution in $\mathbb{C}$. We then try to argue that there is no such common solution, contradicting our initial assumption. Notably, this argument requires only an elementary analysis of lowdegree polynomial equations and the whole analysis is easy and straightforward to follow. This nice feature is an advantage and strength of our argument.

To prove the two main theorems, the rest of this paper is organized as follows. First, we describe fundamental notions and notations in Section 2, including signatures, Holant problems, \#CSPs, AP-reduction, and holographic transformation. We then introduce two new technical tools - $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-constructibility and parametrized symmetrization - for the description of the proofs of our main theorems (Theorems 3.4-3.5). The notion of $T_{2}$-constructibility is explained in Section 4.1, and the notions of (simple) symmetrization scheme and parametrized symmetrization scheme appear respectively in Sections 3.2 and 5.1. Many fundamental properties of those symmetrization schemes are presented in Section 6. Theorem 3.4 relies on Proposition 4.3 and its proof appears in Section 4.2. In contrast, the proof of Theorem 3.5 uses two key propositions, Propositions 4.4-4.5, where Proposition 4.4 is proven in Section 4.3, and the proof of Proposition 4.5 is given in Section 5.2 based on Propositions 5.1-5.4. Finally, Proposition 5.1 is proven in Section 7, and Propositions 5.2-5.4 are explained in Sections 8-10, completing the proof of Proposition 4.5.

## 2. Fundamental notions and notations

We briefly present fundamental notions and notations, which will be used in later sections. Let $\mathbb{N}$ denote the set of all natural numbers (i.e., non-negative integers). For convenience, the notation $\mathbb{N}^{+}$expresses $\mathbb{N}-\{0\}$. Moreover, $\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{C}$ denote respectively the sets of all real numbers and of all complex numbers. For any complex number $\alpha,|\alpha| \operatorname{and} \arg (\alpha)$ denote the absolute value and the argument of $\alpha$, respectively. For each number $n \in \mathbb{N}^{+},[n]$ denotes the integer set $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. For a positive integer $k$, let $S_{k}$ denote the set of all permutations over [ $k$ ]. For brevity, we express each permutation $\sigma \in S_{k}$ as $\left(a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{k}\right)$ to mean that $\sigma(i)=a_{i}$ for every index $i \in[k]$. We always treat vectors as row vectors, unless stated otherwise. To simplify descriptions of compound conditions and requirements among Boolean variables, we informally use logical connectives, such as " $\wedge$ " (AND), " $\vee$ " (OR), and "not" (NOT). An example of such usage is: $\left(g_{1}=0 \wedge g_{0}+g_{2}=0\right) \vee \operatorname{not}\left(g_{0}=\right.$ $g_{2}=0$ ).

### 2.1. Signatures and relations

The most fundamental concept in this paper is "signature" on the Boolean domain. Instead of the conventional term "constraint," we intend in this paper to use this term "signature." A signature of arity $k$ is a complex-valued function of arity $k$; that is, $f$ is a map from $\{0,1\}^{k}$ to $\mathbb{C}$. Assuming the standard lexicographic order on $\{0,1\}^{k}$, we conveniently express $f$ as a row-vector consisting of its output values, which can be identified with an element in the space $\mathbb{C}^{2^{k}}$. For instance, if $f$ has arity 2 , then $f$ is expressed as $(f(00), f(01), f(10), f(11))$. A signature $f$ is called symmetric if $f$ 's values depend only on the Hamming weight of inputs. An asymmetric signature, on the contrary, is a signature that is not symmetric. When $f$ is an arity- $k$ symmetric function, we use another succinct notation $f=\left[f_{0}, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{k}\right]$, where each $f_{i}$ is the value of $f$ on inputs of Hamming weight $i$. For example, the equality function $\left(E Q_{k}\right)$ of arity $k$ is expressed as $[1,0, \ldots, 0,1]$ ( $k-1$ zeros). Unary signatures (i.e., signatures of arity 1 ), in particular, play an essential role in this paper.

A relation of arity $k$ is a subset of $\{0,1\}^{k}$. Such a relation can be also viewed as a function mapping Boolean variables to $\{0,1\}$ (i.e., $x \in R$ iff $R(x)=1$, for every $x \in\{0,1\}^{k}$ ) and it can be treated as a "Boolean" signature. For instance, logical relations $O R, N A N D$, and Implies are expressed as "signatures" in the following obvious manner: $O R=[0,1,1]$, $N A N D=[1,1,0]$, and Implies $=(1,1,0,1)$. In addition, we define $O N E_{3}=[1,1,0,0]$, which means that the total number of 1 s in any satisfying assignment should equal one.

To simplify our further descriptions, it is useful to introduce the following two special sets of signatures. First, let $U$ denote the set of all unary signatures. Next, let $\mathscr{D} \mathscr{g}$ denote the set of all signatures $f$ of arity $k$ that are expressed by products of $k$ unary functions, which are applied respectively to $k$ variables. A signature in $\mathscr{D} \mathcal{g}$ is called degenerate. Note that, for ternary symmetric signature $f=\left[a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right], f$ is non-degenerate if and only if the rank of $\binom{a_{0} a_{1} \cdots a_{k-1}}{a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{k}}$ is exactly two (see, e.g., [3]).

## 2.2. \#CSPs and Holant problems

In an undirected bipartite graph $G=\left(V_{1} \mid V_{2}, E\right)$ (where $V_{1}, V_{2}$ are vertex sets and $E$ is an edge set), all nodes in $V_{1}$ appear on the left-hand side and all nodes in $V_{2}$ appear on the right-hand side of the graph. For any vertex $v$, the incident set $E(v)$ of $v$ is a set of all edges incident on $v$, and $\operatorname{deg}(v)$ is the degree of $v$. For any matrix $A$, the notation $A^{T}$ denotes the transposed matrix of $A$.

Let us define complex-weighted (Boolean) \#CSP problems. Throughout this paper, the notation $\mathcal{F}$ often denotes an arbitrary set of signatures of arity at least 1 . Conventionally, the term "constraint" is used to describe a function mapping variables on a certain domain; nonetheless, as we have stated in the previous subsection, we wish to use the term "signature" instead. Limited to a given set $\mathcal{F}$, a complex-weighted \#CSP problem, denoted \#CSP $(\mathcal{F})$, takes as an input instance a finite subset $H$ of all elements of the form $\left\langle h,\left(x_{i_{1}}, x_{i_{2}}, \ldots, x_{i_{k}}\right)\right\rangle$, where a signature $h \in \mathcal{F}$ is defined on $\left(x_{i_{1}}, x_{i_{2}}, \ldots, x_{i_{k}}\right)$ of Boolean variables $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ with $i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k} \in[n]$, and the problem outputs the complex value:

$$
\sum_{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n} \in\{0,1\}} \prod_{\left\langle h, x^{\prime}\right\rangle \in H} h\left(x_{i_{1}}, x_{i_{2}}, \ldots, x_{i_{k}}\right)
$$

where $x^{\prime}=\left(x_{i_{1}}, x_{i_{2}}, \ldots, x_{i_{k}}\right)$. For brevity, we often express $h\left(x_{i_{1}}, x_{i_{2}}, \ldots, x_{i_{k}}\right)$ to mean $\left\langle h,\left(x_{i_{1}}, x_{i_{2}}, \ldots, x_{i_{k}}\right)\right\rangle$ whenever it is clear from the context. The degree of an input instance to $\# \operatorname{CSP}(\mathcal{F})$ is the greatest number of times that any variable appears among its signatures. For any positive integer $d, \# \operatorname{CSP}_{d}(\mathcal{F})$ expresses the restriction of $\# \operatorname{CSP}(\mathcal{F})$ to instances of degrees at most $d$.

We can view a counting problem \#CSPs from a slightly different perspective, known as a Holant framework, and we pay our attention to so-called Holant problems. An input instance to a Holant problem is a signature grid that contains an undirected graph $G$, in which all nodes are labeled by signatures in $\mathcal{F}$. More formally, following the terminology developed in [2,1], we define a bipartite Holant problem $\operatorname{Holant}\left(\mathcal{F}_{1} \mid \mathcal{F}_{2}\right)$ as a counting problem that takes a (bipartite) signature grid $\Omega=\left(G, \mathcal{F}_{1}^{\prime} \mid \mathcal{F}_{2}^{\prime}, \pi\right)$, where $G=\left(V_{1} \mid V_{2}, E\right)$ is a finite undirected bipartite graph, two "finite" subsets $\mathcal{F}_{1}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{2}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_{2}$, and a labeling function $\pi: V_{1} \cup V_{2} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_{1}^{\prime} \cup \mathcal{F}_{2}^{\prime}$ such that $\pi\left(V_{1}\right) \subseteq \mathcal{F}_{1}^{\prime}$ and $\pi\left(V_{2}\right) \subseteq \mathcal{F}_{2}^{\prime}$, and each vertex $v \in V_{1} \cup V_{2}$ is labeled by a signature $\pi(v):\{0,1\}^{\operatorname{deg}(v)} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. For convenience, we often write $f_{v}$ for $\pi(v)$. Let $\operatorname{Asn}(E)$ be the set of all edge assignments $\sigma: E \rightarrow\{0,1\}$. The objective of this problem is to compute the following value Holant ${ }_{\Omega}$ :

$$
\text { Holant }_{\Omega}=\sum_{\sigma \in \operatorname{Asn}(E)} \prod_{v \in V} f_{v}(\sigma \mid E(v))
$$

where $\sigma \mid E(v)$ denotes the binary string $\left(\sigma\left(w_{1}\right), \sigma\left(w_{2}\right), \ldots, \sigma\left(w_{k}\right)\right)$ if $E(v)=\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{k}\right\}$, sorted in a certain prefixed order by $f$.

We often view $\# \operatorname{CSP}(\mathcal{F})$ (as well as $\#_{C S P_{d}}(\mathcal{F})$ ) as a special case of bipartite Holant problem of the following form: an instance to \# $\operatorname{CSP}(\mathcal{F})$ is a bipartite graph $G$, where all vertices on the left-hand side, each of which represents a variable, are labeled by equality functions $\left(E Q_{k}\right)$ and all vertices on the right-hand side are labeled by constraints. Whenever variables appear in constraints, edges are drawn between their corresponding nodes on each side of the graph. In terms of Holant problems, therefore, $\# \operatorname{CSP}(\mathcal{F})$ coincides with $\operatorname{Holant}\left(\left\{E Q_{k}\right\}_{k \geq 1} \mid \mathcal{F}\right)$. Throughout this paper, we interchangeably take these two different views of complex-weighted \#CSP problems. With this Holant viewpoint, the degree of an instance is just the maximum degree of nodes that appear on the left-hand side of a bipartite graph in the instance.

The following abbreviations are useful in this paper; we write $\# \operatorname{CSP}(f, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{g})$ to mean $\# \operatorname{CSP}(\{f\} \cup \mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{g})$ and $\operatorname{Holant}\left(f, \mathcal{F}_{1} \mid \mathcal{F}_{2}, \mathcal{G}\right)$ to mean $\operatorname{Holant}\left(\{f\} \cup \mathcal{F}_{1} \mid \mathcal{F}_{2} \cup \mathcal{G}\right)$, for example. In particular, we abbreviate $\# \operatorname{CSP}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F}), \# \operatorname{CSP}_{d}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F})$, and $\operatorname{Holant}\left(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F}_{1} \mid \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F}_{2}\right)$ as $\# \operatorname{CSP}^{*}(\mathcal{F}), \# \operatorname{CSP}_{d}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$, and $\operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(\mathcal{F}_{1} \mid \mathcal{F}_{2}\right)$, respectively.

In the end, as a concrete example of counting problem, we introduce a complex-weighted version of the counting satisfiability problem, denoted \#SAT $\mathbb{C}_{\mathbb{C}}$ in [14]. Let $\phi$ be any propositional formula and let $V(\phi)$ denote the set of all variables that appear in $\phi$. For this formula $\phi$, we consider a series $\left\{w_{x}\right\}_{x \in V(\phi)}$ of node-weight functions $w_{x}:\{0,1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}-\{0\}$. Given the pair $\left(\phi,\left\{w_{x}\right\}_{x \in V(\phi)}\right)$, \#SAT $\mathbb{C}_{\mathbb{C}}$ asks to compute the sum of all weights $w(\sigma)$ for every truth assignment $\sigma$ that satisfies $\phi$, where $w(\sigma)$ is the product of all $w_{x}(\sigma(x))$ for any $x \in V(\phi)$.

## 2.3. $F P_{\mathbb{C}}$ and AP-reducibility

To compare the exact complexities of two Holant problems, Cai et al. [3] utilized a complex-valued analogue of (polynomial-time) Turing reducibility. In contrast, for approximation complexity, Dyer et al. [5] introduced so-called "APreducibility" to measure the approximation complexity of various unweighted \#CSPs. Here, we adapt their notion of APreducibility. Since all \#CSP*s can be treated as complex-valued functions mapping from $\{0,1\}^{*}$ to $\mathbb{C}$, it suffices for us to develop necessary methodology concerning only complex-valued functions.

The following notational conventions are taken from [14,15]. The notation $\mathrm{FP}_{\mathbb{C}}$ denotes the collection of all string-based functions $f:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ that can be computed deterministically in time polynomial in the lengths of inputs. A randomized approximation scheme for (complex-valued) $F$ is a randomized algorithm that takes a standard input $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ together with an error tolerance parameter $\varepsilon \in(0,1)$, and outputs values $w$ with probability at least $3 / 4$ for which

$$
2^{-\epsilon} \leq\left|\frac{w}{F(x)}\right| \leq 2^{\epsilon} \quad \text { and } \quad\left|\arg \left(\frac{w}{F(x)}\right)\right| \leq 2^{\epsilon}
$$

where we conventionally assume that, whenever $|F(x)|=0$ or $\arg (F(x))=0$, we instead require $|w|=0$ or $|\arg (w)| \leq 2^{\epsilon}$, respectively. Furthermore, when a randomized approximation scheme for $F$ runs in time polynomial in $(|x|, 1 / \varepsilon)$, we call it a fully polynomial(-time) randomized approximation scheme (or simply, FPRAS) for $F$.

Now, we are ready to introduce the desired reduction between complex-valued functions in our approximation context. Given two functions $F$ and $G$, a polynomial-time randomized approximation-preserving reduction (or AP-reduction) from $F$ to $G$ is a randomized algorithm $M$ that takes a pair $(x, \varepsilon) \in \Sigma^{*} \times(0,1)$ as input instance, uses an arbitrary randomized approximation scheme $N$ for $G$ as oracle, and satisfies the following three conditions: (i) $M$ is still a randomized approximation scheme for $F$ independent of a choice of $N$ for $G$; (ii) every oracle call made by $M$ is of the form ( $w, \delta$ ) in $\Sigma^{*} \times(0,1)$ with $1 / \delta \leq p(|x|, 1 / \varepsilon)$, where $p$ is a fixed polynomial, and its answer is the outcome of $N$ on $(w, \delta)$; and (iii) the running time of $M$ is upper-bounded by a certain polynomial in $(|x|, 1 / \varepsilon)$, which is not depending on the choice of $N$ for $G$. If such an AP-reduction exists, then we say that $F$ is AP-reducible to $G$ and we write $F \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} G$. If $F \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} G$ and $G \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} F$, then $F$ and $G$ are said to be $A P$-equivalent and we use the notation $F \equiv_{\text {AP }} G$.

The following basic properties of AP-reductions are straightforward from the definition of \#CSP ${ }_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ 's: given two signature sets $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$, if $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$, then $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{F}) \leq{ }_{\mathrm{AP}} \# \mathrm{CSP}_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{g})$.

Lemma 2.1 gives additional useful properties. To prove the lemma, we need the following results proven in [15]: for any signature set $\mathcal{F}, \# \operatorname{CSP}^{*}(\mathcal{F}) \equiv{ }_{\mathrm{AP}} \# \operatorname{CSP}_{3}^{*}(\mathcal{F}) \equiv_{\mathrm{AP}} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{3} \mid \mathcal{F}\right)$ and $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{F}) \equiv_{\mathrm{AP}} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{2} \mid \mathcal{F}\right)$.
Lemma 2.1. (1) For any signature $f$, $\operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{2} \mid f\right) \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{3} \mid f\right)$. (2) For any set $\mathcal{F}$ of signatures, $\operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{2} \mid \mathcal{F}\right) \leq_{\mathrm{AP}}$ \# $\operatorname{CSP}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$.
Proof. (1) This can be easily shown by replacing, with $\sum_{x_{3} \in\{0,1\}} E Q_{3}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \cdot[1,1]\left(x_{3}\right)$, each signature $E Q_{2}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ that appears in any signature grid to Holant* $\left(E Q_{2} \mid \mathcal{F}\right)$.
(2) Using (1), we obtain $\operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{2} \mid \mathcal{F}\right) \leq_{A P} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{3} \mid \mathcal{F}\right)$. The remaining AP-equivalence Holant* $\left(E Q_{3} \mid \mathcal{F}\right) \equiv_{\mathrm{AP}}$ \#CSP* $(\mathcal{F})$ follows from [15].

### 2.4. Holographic transformation

The notion of holographic transformation was introduced by Valiant [11,13] to extend the scope of the application of holographic algorithms. Cal and Lu [1] later contributed to its abstract formulation. Holographic transformation is one of the few technical tools that still work together with AP-reducibility. Since each signature $f$ is expressed as a row vector, whenever we want to use a column-vector form of $f$, we formally write $f^{T}$ to avoid any confusion that may incur.

We fix a $2 \times 2$ nonsingular matrix $M$ and let $f$ and $g$ be signatures of arity $k$ and $m$, respectively. For any signature grid $\Omega=(G,\{g\} \mid\{f\}, \pi)$, we define another signature grid $\Omega^{\prime}$ by simply replacing the nodes' label $g$ and $f$ respectively with $f\left(M^{T}\right)^{\otimes k}$ and $g\left(M^{-1}\right)^{\otimes m}$, where $\otimes$ means the tensor product. A key observation made by Valiant is that Holant ${ }_{\Omega}$ equals Holant ${ }_{\Omega^{\prime}}$. More generally, let $\mathcal{F}$ and $g$ be any two sets of signatures. We conveniently write $\mathcal{g}\left(M^{-1}\right)^{\otimes}$ for the set $\left\{g\left(M^{-1}\right)^{\otimes k} \mid g \in \mathcal{G}, g\right.$ has arity $\left.k\right\}$ and $\mathcal{F}\left(M^{T}\right)^{\otimes}$ for the set $\left\{f\left(M^{T}\right)^{\otimes k} \mid f \in \mathcal{F}, f\right.$ has arity $\left.k\right\}$. (Note that, for any vectors $f, g$ of dimension $k$, the equation $h=f\left(M^{T}\right)^{\otimes k}$ is equivalent to the equation $h^{T}=M^{\otimes k} f^{T}$.) By the above observation, holographic transformation obviously preserves the exact complexity of Holant problems under Turing reductions, and thus obtain Valiant's so-called Holant theorem: $\operatorname{Holant}(\mathcal{G} \mid \mathcal{F})$ is Turing equivalent to $\operatorname{Holant}\left(\mathcal{G}\left(M^{-1}\right)^{\otimes} \mid \mathcal{F}\left(M^{T}\right)^{\otimes}\right)$ for any $2 \times 2$ nonsingular complex matrix $M$ (see, e.g., [1-3] for a discussion). It is important to note that the Holant theorem is still valid under AP-reductions, because we can trivially construct an AP-reduction machine computing, e.g., Holant $\Omega_{\Omega^{\prime}}$ from Holant $\Omega$ defined above. Since unary signatures are transformed into unary signatures, we therefore obtain the following statement.
Lemma 2.2. Holant $^{*}(\mathcal{g} \mid \mathcal{F}) \equiv{ }_{\mathrm{AP}}$ Holant $^{*}\left(\mathcal{G}\left(M^{-1}\right)^{\otimes} \mid \mathcal{F}\left(M^{T}\right)^{\otimes}\right)$ for any $2 \times 2$ nonsingular complex matrix $M$.
This lemma will be extensively used to prove one of the four key propositions, namely, Proposition 4.3.

## 3. Main theorems

Now, we challenge an unsolved question of determining the approximation complexity of degree- 2 \#CSP* . With a great help of two new powerful techniques for "arbitrary" signatures, we can give a partial answer to this question by presenting two main theorems - Theorems 3.4 and 3.5 - for the degree- 2 \#CSP*s with ternary signatures. The first technical tool is a modification of T-constructibility, which was shown effective for unbounded-degree \#CSP*s [14]. The second tool is a clear, systematic method of transforming arbitrary signatures into slightly more complicated but "symmetric" signatures. These techniques will be explained in details in the subsequent sections. The two theorems may suggest a future direction of the intensive research on \#CSPs (on an arbitrary domain).

### 3.1. Symmetric signatures of arity 3

To state our main theorems, we begin with a short discussion on symmetric signatures of arity 3 . Recently, a crucial progress was made by Cai et al. [3] in the field of Holant problems, in particular, "symmetric" Holant* problems. A counting problem Holant* $(f)$ with a symmetric signature $f$ is shown to be classified into only two types: either it is polynomial-time solvable or it is at least as hard as $\# S A T_{\mathbb{C}}$. In this classification, Cai et al. recognized two useful categories of ternary symmetric signatures. A ternary signature of the first category has the form $[a, b,-a,-b]$ with two constants $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$. In contrast, a ternary signature $[a, b, c, d]$ of the second category satisfies the following technical condition: there exist two constants
$\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ (not both zero) for which $\alpha a+\beta b-\alpha c=0$ and $\alpha b+\beta c-\alpha d=0$. For later convenience, we call this pair $(\alpha, \beta)$ the binding coefficients of the signature. To simplify our description, the notations Sig ${ }^{(1)}$ and $\mathrm{Sig}^{(2)}$ respectively denote the sets of all signatures of the first category and of the second category.

Regarding $\operatorname{Sig}^{(1)}$ and $\operatorname{Sig}^{(2)}$, Cai et al. proved three key lemmas, which lead to their final dichotomy theorem for symmetric Holant* problems: unless target Holant* problems are in $\mathrm{FP}_{\mathbb{C}}$, they are Turing reducible to one of the following three problems, Holant* $\left(E Q_{3} \mid O R\right)$, Holant ${ }^{*}\left(E Q_{3} \mid N A N D\right)$, and Holant* $\left(O N E_{3} \mid E Q_{2}\right)$. For later convenience, we define $\mathscr{B}=$ $\left\{\left(E Q_{3} \mid O R\right),\left(E Q_{3} \mid N A N D\right),\left(O N E_{3} \mid E Q_{2}\right)\right\}$. Notice that the proofs of their lemmas require only a holographic transformation technique and a "realizability" technique. Since these tools still work in our approximation context, we obtain the following three statements, which become a preparation to the description of our main theorems.

Lemma 3.1. Let $f$ be any ternary non-degenerate symmetric signature and let $g=\left[c_{0}, c_{1}, c_{2}\right]$ be any non-degenerate signature. Each of the following statements holds.
(1) Iff $\notin \operatorname{Sig}^{(1)} \cup \operatorname{Sig}^{(2)}$, then there exists a pair $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \in \mathcal{B}$ such that Holant* $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \leq_{\text {AP }} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{2} \mid f\right)$.
(2) If $f \in \operatorname{Sig}^{(1)}, g \notin\{[\lambda, 0, \lambda] \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{C}\}$, and $c_{0}+c_{2} \neq 0$, then there exists a pair $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \in \mathscr{B}$ such that Holant* $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \leq_{\text {AP }}$ Holant* $\left(E Q_{2} \mid f, g\right)$.
(3) If $f \in \operatorname{Sig}^{(2)}$ with its binding coefficients $(\alpha, \beta), g \notin\{[2 \alpha \lambda, \beta \lambda, 2 \alpha \lambda] \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{C}\}$, and $\alpha c_{0}+\beta c_{1}-\alpha c_{2} \neq 0$, then there exists a pair $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \in \mathscr{B}$ such that Holant* $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \leq_{\text {AP }} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{2} \mid f, g\right)$.

Proof. Here, we will prove only (2). In this proof, we need a notion of $T_{2}$-constructibility as well as Lemma 4.2 , which will be described in Section 4. Following an argument of Cai et al. [3], for given signatures $f$ and $g$, we first choose a pair $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \in \mathscr{B}$, a signature $h$, and a $2 \times 2$ nonsingular matrix $M$ such that $E Q_{2}=g_{2}\left(M^{-1}\right)^{\otimes 2}$ and $h=g_{1}\left(M^{T}\right)^{\otimes 3}$; in other words, Holant* $\left(g_{2} \mid g_{1}\right)$ is transformed into Holant* $\left(E Q_{2} \mid h\right)$ by Valiant's holographic transformation. Notice that Holant* $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right)$ and Holant* $\left(g_{2} \mid g_{1}\right)$ are essentially identical. By Lemma 2.2 , we conclude that Holant* $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \leq_{\text {AP }}$ Holant $^{*}\left(E Q_{2} \mid h\right)$. By analyzing the argument in [3], we can show that, with a certain finite subset $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{U}, h$ is $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-constructed from signatures in $\mathcal{F} \cup\{f, g\}$. Therefore, by applying Lemma 4.2, we immediately obtain the desired AP-reduction: Holant* $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \leq_{\text {AP }}$ Holant* $\left(E Q_{2} \mid f, g\right)$.

As discussed earlier, Holant* problems Holant* $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right)$ with $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \in \mathscr{B}$ are at least as hard as \#SAT $\mathbb{C}$ under Turing reductions [3]. When dealing with complex numbers, in general, it is not immediately clear that Turing reductions can be automatically replaced by AP-reductions, because a number of "adaptive" queries made by Turing reductions might possibly violate certain requirements imposed on the definition of AP-reduction. Despite such a concern, we will be able to prove in Proposition 4.3 that those problems are indeed AP-reduced from $\# S A T_{\mathbb{C}}$, and thus Lemma 3.1 is still applicable to obtain the $\# \mathrm{P}_{\mathbb{C}}$-hardness of certain \# $\operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ 's.

### 3.2. Arbitrary signatures of arity 3

Finally, we turn our attention to arbitrary signatures of arity 3 and their associated degree- 2 \#CSP* . We have already seen the dichotomy theorem of Cai et al. [3] for symmetric Holant* problems hinge on two particular signature sets $\operatorname{Sig}^{(1)}$ and $\operatorname{Sig}^{(2)}$. In order to obtain a similar classification theorem for all ternary signatures, we wish to take the first systematic approach by introducing two useful tools. Since these tools are not limited to a particular type of signatures, as a result, we will obtain a general classification of the approximation complexity of degree- 2 \#CSP*s. The first new technical tool is "symmetrization" of arbitrary signatures. Another new technical tool is "constructibility" that bridges between symmetrization and degree-2 \#CSP*s. Throughout this section, let $f$ denote any ternary signature with complex components; in particular, we assume that $f=(a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w)$. Here, we introduce a simple form of symmetrization of $f$, denoted $\operatorname{Sym}(f)$, as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Sym}(f)\left(x_{1}, y_{1}, z_{1}\right)=\sum_{x_{2}, y_{2}, z_{2} \in\{0,1\}} f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, z_{2}\right) f\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, x_{2}\right) f\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, y_{2}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

This symmetrization $\operatorname{Sym}(f)$ plays a key role in the description of our main theorems. As its name suggests, the symmetrization transforms any signature into a symmetric signature.

Lemma 3.2. For any ternary signature $f, \operatorname{Sym}(f)$ is a symmetric signature.
Proof. Let $x_{1}, y_{1}, z_{1}$ be any three variables. First, we want to show that the value $\operatorname{Sym}(f)\left(x_{1}, y_{1}, z_{1}\right)$ coincides with $\operatorname{Sym}(f)\left(y_{1}, z_{1}, x_{1}\right)$. Let us focus on $\operatorname{Sym}(f)\left(x_{1}, y_{1}, z_{1}\right)$, which is calculated according to Eq. (1). To terms inside the summation of Eq. (1), we apply the following map: $x_{2} \mapsto z_{2}, z_{2} \mapsto y_{2}$, and $y_{2} \mapsto x_{2}$. Although this map does not change the actual value of $\operatorname{Sym}(f)\left(x_{1}, y_{1}, z_{1}\right)$, exchanging the order of three $f(\cdot)$ 's inside the summation immediately produces the valid definition of $\operatorname{Sym}(f)\left(y_{1}, z_{1}, x_{1}\right)$. Thus, $\operatorname{Sym}(f)\left(x_{1}, y_{1}, z_{1}\right)$ equals $\operatorname{Sym}(f)\left(y_{1}, z_{1}, x_{1}\right)$. Similarly, we can handle the other remaining cases. Since the signature $\operatorname{Sym}(f)$ is independent of the input-variable order, it should be symmetric.

Although most of the fundamental properties will be provided in Section 6.2, here we present a significant nature of the symmetrization: $\operatorname{Sym}(\cdot)$ behaves quite differently on $\operatorname{Sig}^{(1)}$ and $\operatorname{Sig}^{(2)}$.

Lemma 3.3. Let $f=(a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w)$ be any ternary symmetric signature. (1) If $f \in \operatorname{Sig}^{(1)}$, then Sym( $f$ ) is in $\mathfrak{D} g$. (2) Assume that $f \in$ Sig $^{(2)}$ with binding coefficients $(\alpha, \beta)$. If either $\alpha \beta=0$ or $\alpha \beta \neq 0 \wedge(\beta / \alpha+b / a)^{2}=-1$, then Sym( $f$ ) is in Sig ${ }^{(2)}$.

Proof. Let us consider any ternary symmetric signature $f=(a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w)$. When $f \in \operatorname{Sig}^{(1)}, f$ can be expressed as $[a, b,-a,-b]$. Hence, it follows that ( $1^{\prime}$ ) $a+d=x+w=0$ and ( $2^{\prime}$ ) $a^{2}+b c=b c+d^{2}=a^{2}+b^{2}$. Using these equations, the value $h_{1}$ described in Eq. (27) can be simplified to $\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right) x+\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right) w$, which obviously equals 0 . Similarly, with a help of ( $\left.1^{\prime}\right)-\left(2^{\prime}\right)$, Eqs. (26) \& (28)-(29) imply $h_{0}=h_{2}=h_{3}=0$. Therefore, we obtain Sym $(f)=[0,0,0,0]$, and thus Sym( $f$ ) is degenerate.

Next, assume that $f \in \operatorname{Sig}^{(2)}$ with binding coefficients $(\alpha, \beta)$, which satisfy two equations, (3') $\alpha(a-z)+\beta b=0$ and (4') $\alpha(b-w)+\beta z=0$. Notice that $\alpha$ and $\beta$ cannot be both zero. For simplicity, write $\delta=\frac{\beta}{\alpha}+\frac{b}{a}$. Henceforth, we consider two separate cases.
[Case: $\alpha \beta=0$ ] First, assume that $\alpha=0$ and $\beta \neq 0$. From ( $3^{\prime}$ )-( $4^{\prime}$ ), it follows that $f$ should have the form $[a, 0,0, d]$. By a direct calculation of Eqs. (26)-(29), we obtain $\operatorname{Sym}(f)=\left[a^{3}, 0,0, d^{3}\right]$. Next, assume that $\alpha \neq 0 \wedge \beta=0$. Since $f$ must have the form $[a, b, a, b]$ by ( $\left.3^{\prime}\right)-\left(4^{\prime}\right)$, Eqs. (26)-(29) imply that $\operatorname{Sym}(f)=[A, B, A, B]$, where $A=2 a\left(a^{2}+3 b^{2}\right)$ and $B=2 b\left(3 a^{2}+b^{2}\right)$. In both cases, we conclude that Sym $(f) \in \operatorname{Sig}^{(2)}$.
[Case: $\alpha \beta \neq 0 \wedge \delta^{2}=-1$ ] Since $f$ is symmetric, we can assume that $f=[a, b, z, w]$. Since $\alpha \beta \neq 0$, the determinant $\operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{cc}a-z & b \\ b-w & z\end{array}\right)$ equals zero; thus, $\left(5^{\prime}\right) z(a-z)=b(b-w)$ follows. Now, we set $\gamma=\frac{z}{b}$. It is not difficult to show that ( $3^{\prime}$ ) implies $\gamma=\frac{\beta}{\alpha}+\frac{b}{a}$, which clearly equals $\delta$. Now, using (5'), we instantly obtain $z=\delta b$ and $w=-\delta a$. In short, $f=[a, b, \delta b,-\delta a]$ holds. A vigorous calculation of Eqs. (26)-(29) shows the following: $h_{0}=a^{3}+3 a b^{2}+2 \delta b^{3}, h_{1}=-b(b-\delta a)^{2}$, $h_{2}=\delta b(b-\delta a)^{2}$, and $h_{3}=\delta\left(a^{3}+3 a b^{2}+2 \delta b^{3}\right)$. Therefore, we conclude that Sym $(f)=\left[h_{0}, h_{1}, \delta^{\prime} h_{1},-\delta^{\prime} h_{0}\right]$, where $\delta^{\prime}=-\delta$. By its similarity to $f, \operatorname{Sym}(f)$ belongs to $\operatorname{Sig}^{(2)}$.

Concerning the aforementioned signature sets $\mathrm{Sig}^{(1)}$ and $\mathrm{Sig}^{(2)}$, we define a unique signature set, called SIG. To describe this set, we introduce a new notation $f_{\sigma}$ as follows. Given any ternary signature $f$ and any permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$, the notation $f_{\sigma}$ expresses the signature $g$ defined by $g\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)=f\left(x_{\sigma(1)}, x_{\sigma(2)}, x_{\sigma(3)}\right)$ for any values $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3} \in\{0,1\}$. The SIG is then defined as

$$
\operatorname{SIG}=\left\{f \mid \forall \sigma \in S_{3}\left[\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right) \notin \mathscr{D} g \longrightarrow \operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right) \in \operatorname{Sig}^{(1)} \cup \operatorname{Sig}^{(2)}\right]\right\} .
$$

Our first theorem, Theorem 3.4, gives a complete classification of the approximation complexity of degree-2 \#CSP*s when their signatures fall into outside of SIG.

Theorem 3.4. For any ternary signature $f$, iff $\notin \operatorname{SIG}$, then $\# \operatorname{SAT}_{\mathbb{C}} \leq_{A P} \# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f)$.
Since the proof of Theorem 3.4 requires a new notion of $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-constructibility, it is postponed until Section 4.2. The theorem makes it sufficient to concentrate only on signatures residing within SIG. To analyze those signatures, we roughly partition SIG into three parts. Firstly, we let $S I G_{0}$ denote the set of all ternary signatures $f$ for which $\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)$ is always degenerate for every permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$. By Lemma 3.3 follows the inclusion $\operatorname{Sig}^{(1)} \subseteq \operatorname{SIG}_{0}$. Secondly, for each index $i \in\{1$, 2$\}$, let SIG $_{i}$ denote the set of all ternary signatures $f$ such that, for a certain permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$, both $\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right) \in \operatorname{Sig}{ }^{(i)}$ and $\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right) \notin \mathscr{D} \mathcal{G}$ hold. It is obvious that $S I G \subseteq S I G_{0} \cup S I G_{1} \cup S I G_{2}$. Therefore, if we successfully classify all degree-2 \#CSP*s whose signatures belong to each of SIG's, then we immediately obtain the desired complete classification of all degree-2 \#CSP*s. Since a whole analysis of SIG seems quite lengthy, this paper is focused only on the signature set SIG $_{1}$, which can be rewritten as

$$
\operatorname{SIG}_{1}=\left\{f \mid \exists \sigma \in S_{3} \exists a, b \in \mathbb{C} \text { s.t. } \operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)=[a, b,-a,-b] \& a^{2}+b^{2} \neq 0\right\}
$$

where the condition $a^{2}+b^{2} \neq 0$ indicates that $\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)$ is non-degenerate because $\operatorname{rank}\left(\begin{array}{ccc}a & b \\ b & -a \\ -a & -a \\ -b\end{array}\right)=\operatorname{rank}\left(\begin{array}{cc}a \\ b & b \\ -a\end{array}\right)=2$. In what follows, we will describe a dichotomy theorem for the associated degree-2 \#CSP*s. For ease of notational complication in later sections, we introduce the following useful terminology: a ternary signature $f$ is said to be SIG -legal $^{\text {leg }}$ if Sym ( $f$ ) has the from $[a, b,-a,-b]$ for certain numbers $a, b$ satisfying $a^{2}+b^{2} \neq 0$. Using this terminology, it follows that $f$ is in SIG ${ }_{1}$ iff $f_{\sigma}$ is in SIG $G_{1}$-legal for a certain $\sigma \in S_{3}$.

The second theorem - Theorem 3.5 - deals with all signatures residing within SIG $_{1}$. To state the theorem, however, we need to introduce another signature set DUP. For our purpose, we begin with a quick explanation of the following abbreviation. For any two ternary signatures $f_{0}, f_{1}$, the notation ( $f_{0}, f_{1}$ ) expresses the signature $f$ defined as follows: $f\left(0, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)=f_{0}\left(x_{2}, x_{3}\right)$ and $f\left(1, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)=f_{1}\left(x_{2}, x_{3}\right)$ for all pairs $\left(x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in\{0,1\}^{2}$. A vector expression of $f$ makes this definition simpler; when $f_{0}=(a, b, c, d)$ and $f_{1}=(x, y, z, w)$, we obtain $\left(f_{0}, f_{1}\right)=(a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w)$. At last, the basic signature set DUP is defined as the set of all ternary signatures $f$ such that, after appropriate permutations $\sigma$ of variables, $f_{\sigma}$ becomes of the form $u\left(x_{\sigma(1)}\right) \cdot\left(f_{0}, f_{0}\right)$, where $u \in U$, and $f_{0}$ is a certain binary signature. We note that SIG $\cap$ DUP is not empty; for instance, the signature $f=(1,0,-1,0, i,-2,-i, 2)$ is not symmetric but it belongs to both DUP and SIG $_{1}$, because $f_{\sigma}=[1,-i]\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot(1,0, i,-1,1,0, i,-1)$ and $\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)=7 \cdot[1,-1,-1,1]$ for $\sigma=\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right)$, where $i=\sqrt{-1}$. Two examples of important signatures in DUP include: $f=(0,0,0,0, x, y, z, w)$ and $f=(a, b, c, d, 0,0,0,0)$.

Finally, the second classification theorem is stated as follows.

Theorem 3.5. Let $f$ be any ternary signature in $\operatorname{SIG}_{1}$. Iff is in DUP , then $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f)$ is in $\mathrm{FP}_{\mathbb{C}}$. Otherwise, $\# \mathrm{SAT}_{\mathbb{C}}$ is AP-reducible to \#CSP ${ }_{2}^{*}(f)$.

Theorem 3.5 follows from three key propositions, Propositions 4.3-4.5, which will be explained in Section 4, and the proof of Theorem 3.5 will be presented in Section 4.3.

## 4. $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-constructibility technique

To prove our main theorems stated in Section 3, we intend to employ two new technical tools. In this section, we will introduce the first technical tool, called $T_{2}$-constructibility. Applying this technical tool to degree- 2 \#CSP*s with a help of three supplemental propositions, Propositions 4.3-4.5, we will be able to give the proof of the main theorems.

## 4.1. $T_{2}$-constructibility

When we wish to calculate approximate solutions of degree-2 \#CSP*s, in place of the exact solutions, standard tools like "polynomial interpolation" are no longer applicable. A useful tool in determining the approximation complexity of unbounded-degree \#CSP*'s used in [14] is the notion of T-constructibility. Because degree-2 \#CSP*s are quite different from unbounded-degree \#CSP*s, its appropriate modification is needed to meet our requirement.

To pursue notational succinctness, we use the following notations. For any index $i \in[k]$ and any bit $c \in\{0,1\}$, the notation $f^{x_{i}=c}$ denotes the function $g$ satisfying that $g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, c, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$. Similarly, let $f^{x_{i}=*}$ express the function $g$ defined as $g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=\sum_{x_{i} \in\{0,1\}} f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_{i}, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$. When two indices $i, j \in[k]$ satisfy $i<j$, we write $f^{x_{i}=x_{j}=*}$ for the function $g$ defined as $g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{j-1}, x_{j+1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=$ $\sum_{x_{i} \in\{0,1\}} f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_{i}, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{j-1}, x_{i}, x_{j+1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$, where the second $x_{i}$ appears at the $j$ th position. Moreover, let $\left(g_{1} \cdot g_{2}\right)\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k^{\prime}}\right)=g_{1}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right) g_{2}\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k^{\prime}}\right)$ whenever $g_{1}$ and $g_{2}$ take "disjoint" sets of variables $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right\}$ and $\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k^{\prime}}\right\}$, respectively. In a similar way, $\lambda \cdot g$ is defined as $(\lambda \cdot g)\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=\lambda \cdot g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$.

We say that a signature $f$ of arity $k$ is $T_{2}$-constructible (or $T_{2}$-constructed) from a set $g$ of signatures if $f$ can be obtained, initially from signatures in $\mathcal{g}$, by recursively applying a finite number (possibly zero) of operations described below.

1. Permutation: for two indices $i, j \in[k]$ with $i<j$, by exchanging two columns $x_{i}$ and $x_{j}$, we transform $g$ into $g^{\prime}$ that is defined by $g^{\prime}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i}, \ldots, x_{j}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{j}, \ldots, x_{i}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$.
2. Pinning: for an index $i \in[k]$ and a bit $c \in\{0,1\}$, we build $g^{x_{i}=c}$ from $g$.
3. Projection: for an index $i \in[k]$, we build $g^{x_{i}=*}$ from $g$.
4. Linked Projection: for two indices $i, j \in[k]$ with $i<j$, we build $g^{x_{i}=x_{j}=*}$ from $g$.
5. Expansion: for an index $i \in[k]$, we introduce a new "free" variable, say, $y$ and transform $g$ into $g^{\prime}$, which is defined by $g^{\prime}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i}, y, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i}, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$.
6. Exclusive Multiplication: from two signatures $g_{1}$ of arity $k$ and $g_{2}$ of arity $k^{\prime}$, if $g_{1}$ and $g_{2}$ take disjoint variable sets, then we build $g_{1} \cdot g_{2}$ from $\left\{g_{1}, g_{2}\right\}$.
7. Normalization: for a constant $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}-\{0\}$, we build $\lambda \cdot g$ from $g$.

Main features of $T_{2}$-constructibility are two special operations: linked projection and exclusive multiplication. These operations reflect the structure of a signature grid, and therefore they are quite different from their associated operations used for the T-constructibility. When $f$ is $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-constructible from $g$, we use the notation $f \leq_{\text {con }}^{*} g$; in particular, when $g=\{g\}$, we simply write $f \leq_{c o n}^{*} g$ instead of $f \leq_{c o n}^{*}\{g\}$.

The most useful claim at this moment is the $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-constructibility of $\operatorname{Sym}(f)$ from $f$, and we state this claim as a lemma for later referencing.
Lemma 4.1. For any ternary signature $f$, it holds that $\operatorname{Sym}(f) \leq_{\text {con }}^{*} f$.
Proof. To $T_{2}$-construct $\operatorname{Sym}(f)$ from $f$, we first generate a product of $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, z_{2}\right), f\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, x_{2}^{\prime}\right)$, and $f\left(z_{1}, z_{2}^{\prime}, y_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ using Exclusive Multiplication with all distinct variables. We then apply Linked Projection by identifying $x_{2}^{\prime}, y_{2}^{\prime}, z_{2}^{\prime}$ with $x_{2}, y_{2}, z_{2}$, respectively.

The following lemma bridges between the $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-constructibility and the AP-reducibility.
Lemma 4.2. Let $f$ be any signature and let $\mathcal{F}$, $\mathcal{g}$ be any two signature sets. If $f \leq_{\text {con }}^{*} \mathcal{G}$, then $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f, \mathcal{F}) \leq \leq_{\text {AP }} \# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{F})$.
Proof. Our proof is similar in nature to the T-constructibility proof of [14, Lemma 5.2]. All operations except for Expansion, Linked Projection, and Exclusive Multiplication can be handled in such a way similar to the case of the T-constructibility. Therefore, in what follows, we will show the lemma for those three exceptional operations. Now, let $\mathcal{F}$ denote any signature set and let $\Omega=\left(G, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}, \pi\right)$ express any signature grid given as input instance to \#CSP ${ }_{2}^{*}(f, \mathcal{F})$.
[Expansion] For simplicity, let $f\left(y, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$, where $y$ is a new free variable. Let us consider a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ such that it consists of node $v$ labeled $f$ and node $w$ adjacent to $v$ by an edge labeled $y$. Now, we want to define a new subgraph $\tilde{G}^{\prime}$ to replace $G^{\prime}$. First, we remove the edge $y$ so that we split $G^{\prime}$ into two disconnected subgraphs. Second, we replace the node $v$ by a new node $v^{\prime}$ whose label is $g$. Third, we insert a new node $u$ with label $[1,1]$ between the two nodes
$v^{\prime}$ and $w$ by two new edges. Let $\Omega^{\prime}$ be obtained from $\Omega$ by applying this modification to all nodes with the label $f$. It thus holds that Holant ${ }_{\Omega}=\operatorname{Holant}_{\Omega^{\prime}}$. This leads to $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f, \mathcal{F}) \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} \# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(g, \mathcal{F})$.
[Linked Projection] Let $f=g^{x_{i}=x_{j}=*}$. To improve readability, we assume that $i=1$ and $j=2$; that is, $f\left(x_{3}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=$ $\sum_{x_{1} \in\{0,1\}} g\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$. We are focused on node $v$ labeled $f$ in $G$. Let us consider a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ consisting of this node $v$ and all the other nodes adjacent to $v$. We replace $G^{\prime}$ by another graph $\tilde{G}^{\prime}$ that is defined as follows. First, we replace the label $f$ of the node $v$ with $g$. Second, we add a new edge $(v, v)$. Now, define $\Omega^{\prime}$ as the signature grid obtained by replacing $G^{\prime}$ with $\tilde{G}^{\prime}$. It is not difficult to show that Holant ${ }_{\Omega}=$ Holant $_{\Omega^{\prime}}$. Therefore, if we recursively replace all nodes labeled $f$, we finally obtain an AP-reduction: $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f, \mathcal{F}) \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} \# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(g, \mathcal{F})$.
[Exclusive Multiplication] For two disjoint sets of variables $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}\right\}$ and $\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k^{\prime}}\right\}$, we assume that $g_{1}$ and $g_{2}$ take variable series $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ and $\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k^{\prime}}\right)$, respectively, and let $f=g_{1} \cdot g_{2}$. Now, we consider a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ that contains node $v$ labeled $f$ and all the other nodes adjacent to $v$. We wish to define a new subgraph $\tilde{G}^{\prime}$ as follows. First, we split $G^{\prime}$ into two subgraphs $G_{1}^{\prime}$ and $G_{2}^{\prime}$, where $G_{1}^{\prime}$ (resp., $G_{2}^{\prime}$ ) is obtained from $G^{\prime}$ by deleting the edges $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k^{\prime}}$ (resp., $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ ) as well as all nodes, except for $v$, attached to those edges. In the subgraph $G_{1}^{\prime}$ (resp., $G_{2}^{\prime}$ ), we replace the node $v$ by a new node $v_{1}^{\prime}$ (resp., $v_{2}^{\prime}$ ) with the label $g_{1}$ (resp., $g_{2}$ ). After eliminating all nodes with the label $f$ in this way, we finally obtain from $\Omega$ a signature grid, say, $\Omega^{\prime}$. The equation Holant ${ }_{\Omega}=$ Holant $_{\Omega^{\prime}}$ easily follows, and we then obtain $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f, \mathcal{F}) \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} \# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}\left(g_{1}, g_{2}, \mathcal{F}\right)$.

By a direct application of Lemma 4.2 with Lemma 4.1 to $\operatorname{Sym}(f)$, it immediately follows that \#CSP ${ }_{2}^{*}(S y m(f), \mathcal{F}) \leq_{\mathrm{AP}}$ $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f, \mathcal{F})$ for any signature set $\mathcal{F}$. This simple fact is actually a key to our main theorems, which will be proven in the subsequent subsections.

## 4.2. $\# S A T_{\mathbb{C}}$-hardness under AP-reducibility

When dealing with all complex numbers, Turing reducibility does not always induce AP-reducibility; as a result, the computational hardness of a counting problem under Turing reducibility may not immediately result in its computational hardness under AP-reducibility. Since there has been little work on the approximation complexity of Holant problems, there is no written proof for the fact that $\# S_{S A T} \leq_{\text {AP }}$ Holant $^{*}\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right)$ for every $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \in \mathscr{B}$. To use Lemma 3.1 in our setting of approximation complexity, we first need to establish this hardness result of Holant* $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right)$ under AP-reductions.
Proposition 4.3. For every pair $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \in \mathscr{B}$, it holds that $\# S A T_{\mathbb{C}} \leq{ }_{\text {AP }}$ Holant* $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right)$.
Proof. First, we show that $\# S A T_{\mathbb{C}} \leq_{A P} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{3} \mid O R\right)$. Now, let us recall a few known results from [14,15]. It is known that $\# \operatorname{SAT}_{\mathbb{C}} \leq_{A P} \# \operatorname{CSP}^{*}(O R)[14]$ and that $\# \operatorname{CSP}^{*}(O R) \equiv_{\mathrm{AP}} \# \operatorname{CSP}_{3}^{*}(O R) \equiv_{\mathrm{AP}} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{3} \mid O R\right)$ [15]. Combining these results, we conclude that $\# S_{S A T}^{C} \leq_{A P}$ Holant $^{*}\left(E Q_{3} \mid O R\right)$.

Next, we show that $\# S A T_{\mathbb{C}} \leq_{\text {AP }}$ Holant* $\left(O N E_{3} \mid E Q_{2}\right)$. Let $f=\operatorname{Sym}\left(O N E_{3}\right)$ for brevity. Our proof is made up of five steps. Recall that all signatures in this paper are represented as row vectors.
(1) By a simple calculation, we obtain $f=[4,2,1,1]$. Since $f \leq_{\text {con }}^{*} O N E_{3}$, Lemma 4.2 implies that Holant* $\left(f \mid E Q_{2}\right) \leq_{\mathrm{AP}}$ Holant* (ONE ${ }_{3} \mid E Q_{2}$ ).
(2) Let $M=\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)$, where $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$ are defined later. We consider a holographic transformation from $\operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(f \mid E Q_{2}\right)$ to $\operatorname{Holant}\left(E Q_{3} \mid g\right)$ for a certain binary signature $g$. To make this transformation possible, $M$ needs to satisfy that $f=E Q_{3} M^{\otimes 3}$ and $g^{T}=M^{\otimes 2} E Q_{2}^{T}$. With this $M$, Lemma 2.2 establishes the AP-equivalence: Holant* $\left(f \mid E Q_{2}\right) \equiv_{A P}$ Holant* $\left(E Q_{3} \mid g\right)$. Note that $E Q_{3} M^{\otimes 3}=\left[a^{3}+c^{3}, a^{2} b+c^{2} d, a b^{2}+c d^{2}, b^{3}+d^{3}\right]$. Since $f=[4,2,1,1]$, we obtain $a^{3}+c^{3}=4, a^{2} b+c^{2} d=2, a b^{2}+c d^{2}=1$, and $b^{3}+d^{3}=1$. Here, we consider the case of $a=2 b$. Since $a^{3}+c^{3}=4$, we obtain $a^{3}+c^{3}=2\left(a^{2} b+c^{2} d\right)$, which implies $c^{2}(c-2 d)=0$. Now, we claim that $c=0$. Assuming otherwise, we obtain $c=2 d$, which yields $a^{3}+c^{3}=8\left(b^{3}+d^{3}\right)=4$. Thus, $b^{3}+d^{3} \neq 1$ follows; this is a contradiction. Hence, it must hold that $c=0$. With this $c, a^{3}+c^{3}=4$ implies $b^{3}=1 / 2$, and $b^{3}+d^{3}=1$ also implies $d^{3}=1 / 2$. Overall, it suffices to define $M$ as $\gamma\left(\begin{array}{ll}2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)$, where $\gamma=(1 / 2)^{1 / 3}$.
(3) Since $g^{T}=M^{\otimes 2} E Q_{2}^{T}$, g equals $\gamma^{2} \cdot(5,1,1,1)$. As discussed in Section 2.3 , it holds that Holant ${ }^{*}\left(E Q_{3} \mid g\right) \equiv_{A P} \# C^{*}(g)$; thus, we obtain $\# \operatorname{CSP}^{*}(g) \leq_{\text {AP }} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(O N E_{3} \mid E Q_{2}\right)$.
(4) We want to show that \#CSP* $(O R) \leq_{A P} \# \operatorname{CSP}^{*}(g)$. In this step, we use the notion of T-constructibility [14]. Let $g^{\prime}=[5,1,1]$ so that $g^{\prime} \leq_{\text {con }}^{*} g$. Now, define $h(x, y)=-(1 / 4) \sum_{z \in\{0,1\}} g^{\prime}(x, z) g^{\prime}(z, y) u(z)$, where $u=[1$, -25]. It is not difficult to show that $h=[0,5,6]$. Since $h$ is T-constructible from $\left\{g^{\prime}, u\right\}$, by applying a result of [14, Lemma 5.2], we obtain \#CSP* $(h) \leq_{\text {AP }} \# \operatorname{CSP}^{*}\left(g^{\prime}\right)$. It is also shown in [14, Lemma 6.4] that \#CSP* $(O R) \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} \# \operatorname{CSP}^{*}([0, w, v])$ for any constants $w, v \in \mathbb{C}-\{0\}$. Hence, we conclude that \#CSP* $(O R) \leq{ }_{\text {AP }}$ \#CSP $^{*}(h)$.
(5) Since $\# S A T_{\mathbb{C}} \leq_{A P} \# C S P^{*}(O R)$, we finally establish the desired AP-reduction: \#SAT ${ }_{\mathbb{C}} \leq_{A P}$ Holant* $\left(O N E_{3} \mid E Q_{2}\right)$.

We are now ready to prove the first main theorem, Theorem 3.4. Proposition 4.3 greatly simplifies the proof of the theorem.
Proof of Theorem 3.4. Let $f$ be any ternary signature not in SIG; namely, there exists a permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$ for which $\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right) \notin \operatorname{Sig}^{(1)} \cup \operatorname{Sig}^{(2)}$ and $\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right) \notin \mathscr{D} \mathcal{G}$. With the help of Proposition 4.3, Lemma 3.1(1) leads to the conclusion that $\# \operatorname{SAT}_{\mathbb{C}} \leq \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{2} \mid \operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)\right)$. By Lemma 2.1(2), it follows that Holant* $\left(E Q_{2} \mid \operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)\right) \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} \#^{2} \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}\left(\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)\right)$. Since $\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right) \leq_{\text {con }}^{*} f_{\sigma}$ by Lemma 4.1, Lemma 4.2 implies that $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}\left(\operatorname{Sym}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)\right) \leq_{\text {AP }} \# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)$. Finally, because $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)$ and $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f)$ are AP-equivalent to each other, we immediately obtain $\# \operatorname{SAT}_{\mathbb{C}} \leq_{A P} \# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f)$, as required.

### 4.3. Two key propositions

The proof of Theorem 3.5 is composed of three propositions. The first proposition - Proposition 4.3 - has already proven in Section 4.2. The second proposition below concerns the computability result of degree- 2 \#CSP*s whose signatures are all drawn from DUP. For completeness, we include the proof of this proposition.
Proposition 4.4. For any subset $\mathcal{F} \subseteq$ DUP, it holds that $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ is in $\mathrm{FP}_{\mathbb{C}}$.
Proof. Let $\mathcal{F} \subseteq$ DUP. We demonstrate how to solve the counting problem $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$ in polynomial time. Let $\Omega=$ $\left(G, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}, \pi\right)$ be any input signature grid to $\# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(\mathcal{F})$. Our proof proceeds by induction on the number of degree- 3 nodes in $G$. We recursively "break down" ternary signatures into binary ones. Let us consider the base case: all nodes are of degree 1. We conveniently express a binary signature $f=(a, b, c, d)$ as $\left(\begin{array}{ll}a \\ c & b \\ d\end{array}\right)$.
[Case 1] Consider the case where all nodes are of degree 1; thus, $G$ consists of disconnected subgraphs, each of which is composed of two degree- 1 nodes connected by one edge. For each $G^{\prime}$ of such subgraphs, let $\Omega^{\prime}$ denote its associated signature grid. If $G^{\prime}$ contains two nodes labeled $f=(a, b)$ and $g=(x, y)$, then the value Holant ${\Omega^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ equals $\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b\end{array}\right)\binom{x}{y}$. The whole Holant ${ }_{\Omega}$ is then calculated as the product of Holant ${ }_{\Omega^{\prime}}$ over all possible $\Omega^{\prime}$ 's. The computation time of Holant ${ }_{\Omega}$ is obviously proportional to the number of $\Omega^{\prime \prime}$ s.
[Case 2] Assume that all nodes are of degrees at most 2. In a recursive way, we wish to replace nodes of degree 2 by nodes of degree 1. In the end, all remaining nodes become degree 1 . This recursive process halts after steps less than or equal to the number of nodes in $G$. Now, we choose a node $f_{1}$ of degree 2 and assume that node $f_{1}$ has two edges $e_{1}=\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right)$ and $e_{2}=\left(f_{1}, f_{3}\right)$, where $f_{2}$ and $f_{3}$ are nodes of degrees at most 2 . Let $f_{1}=(a, b, c, d)$. By permuting $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$, without loss of generality, we may assume that an instance to $f_{1}$ has the form ( $e_{2}, e_{1}$ ). Consider a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ consisting of the nodes $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ and the edge $e_{1}$.
(1) Assume that the node $f_{2}$ has degree 1 and let $f_{2}=(x, y)$. We introduce a new signature $f^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}x & y\end{array}\right)$ over the variable $e_{2}$. Finally, we replace $G^{\prime}$ by a node with label $f^{\prime}$. Let $\Omega^{\prime}$ be the signature grid obtained from this replacement. It is not difficult to show that Holant ${ }_{\Omega}=$ Holant $_{\Omega^{\prime}}$.
(2) Next, we assume that the node $f_{2}$ is of degree 2 and assume that $f_{2}=(x, y, z, w)$ takes a variable series $\left(e_{1}, e_{3}\right)$, where $e_{3}$ is another edge. A new signature $f^{\prime}$ is defined as $\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}x & y \\ z & w\end{array}\right)$. We then replace $G^{\prime}$ by a node labeled $f^{\prime}$. This replacement does not change the value Holant ${ }_{\Omega}$.
[Case 3] We assume that certain nodes still have degree 3. We recursively replace each node of degree 3 by two nodes of degree 2 and of degree 1 . First, choose a node $f_{1}$ of degree 3 and assume that $f_{1}$ has edges $e_{1}=\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right), e_{2}=\left(f_{1}, f_{3}\right)$, and $e_{3}=\left(f_{1}, f_{4}\right)$. Since $f_{1} \in$ DUP, $f_{1}$ has the form $u\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot\left(f_{0}, f_{0}\right)$, where $f_{0}$ is of arity 2 . Next, we consider a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ made up of four nodes labeled $f_{1}, f_{2}, f_{3}, f_{4}$ and four edges $e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}, e_{4}$. We then delete the edge $e_{1}$ from $G^{\prime}$ and split $G^{\prime}$ into two disconnected subgraphs, say, $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$. Assume that $G_{1}$ consists of the node $f_{2}$ and $G_{2}$ consists of the three nodes $f_{1}, f_{3}, f_{4}$. For $G_{1}$, we prepare a new node labeled $u$ and attach it to the node $f_{2}$ by a new edge $e_{1}^{\prime}$. For $G_{2}$, we replace the node $f_{1}$ by the node $f_{0}$. Let $\Omega^{\prime}$ be the signature grid obtained by this modification. It is not difficult to show that Holant ${ }_{\Omega}=$ Holant $_{\Omega^{\prime}}$.

Finally, we state the third proposition, which gives a crucial property of signatures in SIG $_{1}$.
Proposition 4.5. Let $f$ be an arbitrary signature in SIG $_{1}$. Iff is not in DUP, then there exists a non-degenerate symmetric signature $g=\left[g_{0}, g_{1}, g_{2}\right]$ such that $g \leq_{\text {con }}^{*} g \cup\{f\}$, where $g$ is a finite subset of $u$, and $\left(g_{0} \neq g_{2} \vee g_{1} \neq 0\right) \wedge g_{0}+g_{2} \neq 0$.

With a use of Propositions 4.3-4.5, Theorem 3.5 can be succinctly proven below.
Proof of Theorem 3.5. Let $f$ be any ternary signature in $\operatorname{SIG}_{1}$. If $f$ is in DUP, then Proposition 4.4 imposes \#CSP ${ }_{2}^{*}(f)$ to be inside $\mathrm{FP}_{\mathbb{C}}$. Next, we assume that $f \notin$ DUP. By Proposition 4.5 , there exists a non-degenerate symmetric binary signature $g$ such that $g$ is either not of the form $[a, b,-a]$ or not of the form $[a, 0, a]$ for any numbers $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$. This $g$ is $\mathrm{T}_{2}$-constructed from $g \cup\{f\}$, where $g$ is a finite subset of $\mathcal{U}$. Hence, it follows by Lemma 4.2 that \#CSP ${ }_{2}^{*}(f, g) \leq_{A P} \# \operatorname{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f)$. Moreover, Lemma $3.1(2)$ ensures the existence of a pair $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \in \mathcal{B}$ satisfying that Holant* $\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right) \leq_{A P} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(E Q_{2} \mid f, g\right)$. Proposition 4.3 shows that \#SAT $\mathbb{C}_{\mathrm{C}} \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} \operatorname{Holant}^{*}\left(g_{1} \mid g_{2}\right)$. By Lemma 2.1(2), Holant* $\left(E Q_{2} \mid f, g\right) \leq_{\mathrm{AP}} \# \mathrm{CSP}_{2}^{*}(f, g)$ also holds. Combining those AP-reductions, we conclude that $\# S A T_{C} \leq_{A P} \#$ CSP $_{2}^{*}(f)$, as requested.

Now, the remaining task is to prove Proposition 4.5 and the rest of this paper is devoted to giving its proof. For our purpose, we will need another new idea, called parametrized symmetrization.

## 5. Parametrized symmetrization technique

We have shown in Section 3.2 how to transform arbitrary ternary signatures into symmetric ternary signatures. To prove Proposition 4.5, we also need to produce symmetric "binary" signatures from arbitrary "ternary" signatures so that we can make use of Lemma 3.1(2). Here, we will introduce the second scheme of symmetrization, which is quite different from the first scheme given in Section 3.2; in fact, this new scheme is "parametrized." In other words, it is not a fixed symmetrized signature as in Eq. (1); instead, it consists of an "infinite series" of symmetrized signatures. In this section, we assume that our target ternary signature $f$ has the form $(a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w)$. Later in Section 5.2, we will give the proof of Proposition 4.5.

### 5.1. Parametrized symmetrization scheme

A parametrized symmetrization scheme produces a set of degree-2 polynomials. This scheme is simple and easy to apply in the proof of Proposition 4.5. We first fix an arbitrary unary signature $u$ and we introduce $\operatorname{SymL}(f)$ as a new signature defined as

$$
\operatorname{SymL}(f)\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)=\sum_{x_{1}, x_{3}, y_{1} \in\{0,1\}} f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) f\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, x_{3}\right) u\left(x_{1}\right) u\left(y_{1}\right)
$$

It is important to note that $\operatorname{SymL}(f) \leq_{\text {con }}^{*}\{f, u\}$. A simple calculation shows that, in particular, when $u=[0,1], \operatorname{SymL}(f)$ equals $\left[x^{2}+y^{2}, x z+y w, z^{2}+w^{2}\right]$. In contrast, when $u=[1, \varepsilon]$ for a complex value $\varepsilon, \operatorname{SymL}(f)=\left[g_{0}, g_{1}, g_{2}\right]$ satisfies:

1. $g_{0}=\varepsilon^{2}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)+2 \varepsilon(a x+b y)+a^{2}+b^{2}$,
2. $g_{1}=\varepsilon^{2}(x z+y w)+\varepsilon(a z+b w+c x+d y)+a c+b d$, and
3. $g_{2}=\varepsilon^{2}\left(z^{2}+w^{2}\right)+2 \varepsilon(c z+d w)+c^{2}+d^{2}$.

In the rest of this paper, we fix $u=[1, \varepsilon]$. To emphasize the parameter $\varepsilon$ inside $u$, we also write $\operatorname{SymL}(f)_{\varepsilon}$ and [ $g_{0, \varepsilon}, g_{1, \varepsilon}, g_{2, \varepsilon}$ ]. One of the most important and useful properties is the non-degeneracy of $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)_{\varepsilon}$. Here, we prove that, when $f$ does not belong to DUP, $\operatorname{SymL}(f)$ cannot be a degenerate signature.
Proposition 5.1. Let $f$ be any ternary signature. If $\notin \operatorname{DUP}$, then $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)_{\varepsilon}$ is non-degenerate for any permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$ and for all but finitely many numbers $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{C}$.

Since the proof of this proposition demands fundamental properties of $\operatorname{SymL}(f)$ that are listed in Section 6, we postpone the proof until Section 7.

### 5.2. Proof of Proposition 4.5

In Sections 3.2 and 5.1, we have introduced two schemes of symmetrization. These schemes are powerful enough to prove Proposition 4.5, which is a basis of the proof of Theorem 3.5. Henceforth, we will present the proof of Proposition 4.5. Our goal is to prove that, for a given ternary signature $f$ in $\operatorname{SIG}_{1}$, if $f \notin \operatorname{DUP}$, then $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)_{\varepsilon}$ becomes the desired $g$ stated in the proposition for certain values of $\sigma$ and $\varepsilon$. We proceed our argument by way of contradiction. Let us describe this argument in more details.

Let $f$ be any ternary signature not in DUP. Without loss of generality, we fix a permutation (123) and assume that Sym(f) is non-degenerate and is $\operatorname{SIG}_{1}$-legal. For any given permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$, we write $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)_{\varepsilon}=\left[g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}, g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}, g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}\right]$, as done in Section 5.1. Hereafter, we want to prove that there exists a permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$ such that both $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}+g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \neq 0$ and $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \neq g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \vee g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \neq 0$ hold for all but finitely many values $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{C}$. Now, assume otherwise; that is,
$\left(^{*}\right)$ for every permutation $\sigma$ and for all but finitely many values of $\varepsilon$, either (i) $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}+g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$ or (ii) $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \wedge g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$ holds.

We first note that the above two conditions (i) and (ii) do not hold simultaneously. To see this, assume that the two conditions hold together; thus, $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$ follows. In short, it holds that $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)_{\varepsilon}=[0,0,0]$. This clearly indicates the degeneracy of $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)_{\varepsilon}$, contradicting Proposition 5.1. Therefore, exactly one of the two conditions should hold. This fact will be frequently used in Sections 7-10.

Our assumption $\left(^{*}\right)$ can be nailed down to the following three cases so that each case can be discussed separately. First, let us consider the case where the condition (ii) always holds for every permutation $\sigma$ and for almost all values of $\varepsilon$. For each fixed $\sigma \in S_{3}$, since the equations $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}$ and $g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$ can be viewed as a set of polynomial equations in $\varepsilon$ of degrees at most two, the condition (ii) fails for at most two values of $\varepsilon$. Since $f$ is SIG $G_{1}$-legal, this case obviously contradicts the consequence of Proposition 5.2 given below. For readability, we postpone the proof of this proposition until Section 8 .

Proposition 5.2. Let $f$ be any ternary signature not in DUP. Iff is SIG ${ }_{1}$-legal, then there exists a permutation $\sigma$ such that either $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \neq g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}$ or $g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \neq 0$ holds for at least three distinct values of $\varepsilon$.

Next, let us consider the case where two distinct permutations $\sigma$ and $\tau$ satisfy the conditions (i) and (ii), respectively, for almost all values of $\varepsilon$. As the following proposition indicates, Statement $\left({ }^{*}\right)$ forces this case to fail. The proposition will be proven in Section 9.
Proposition 5.3. Let $f$ be any ternary signature such that $f$ is SIG - legal. Assume that $f \notin$ DUP. If Statement ( ${ }^{*}$ ) holds, then the following property is never satisfied: there are two distinct permutations $\sigma$ and $\tau$ for which $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \wedge g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$ and $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\tau}+g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\tau}=0$ for all but finitely many values of $\varepsilon$.

Finally, we consider the remaining situation that the condition (i) holds for every permutation $\sigma$ and for almost all values of $\varepsilon$. Proposition 5.4 implies that $f \in$ DUP; however, this contradicts our assumption that $f \notin$ DUP. In Section 10 , we will give the proof of this proposition.

Proposition 5.4. Let $f$ be any ternary signature that is SIG ${ }_{1}$-legal. Assume that, for every permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$ and for all but finitely many $\varepsilon$ 's , $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}+g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$ holds. It then holds that $f \in$ DUP.

Since all the above three cases lead to contradictions, we then conclude that Statement $\left(^{*}\right)$ does not hold. Hence, there exist a permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$ and a value $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{C}$ for which $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}+g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \neq 0$ and $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \neq g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \vee g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \neq 0$. Choose such a pair ( $\sigma, \varepsilon$ ) and define the desired $g$ (stated in Proposition 4.5) to be $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)_{\varepsilon}$. Notice that, since $f \notin$ DUP, Proposition 5.1 guarantees the non-degeneracy of $g$. Therefore, the proof is now completed.

## 6. Fundamental properties of symmetrization schemes

To simplify proofs that will be given in Sections $7-10$, we wish to list useful properties, equations, and conditions that fulfill the requirements of $\operatorname{Sym}(f)$ as well as $\operatorname{SymL}(f)$. Throughout this section, we fix a ternary signature $f=$ ( $a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w)$.

In the subsequent subsections, we will take the following convention. A permutation $\sigma$ in $S_{3}$ should be formally expressed as, e.g., $\sigma=(312)$; for clarity, we slightly abuse this notation and treat it as a permutation over three different variables $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$. Thus, we write $\sigma=\left(x_{3} x_{1} x_{2}\right)$ instead of $\sigma=(312)$ to stress the central roles of those variables.

### 6.1. Basic properties of $\operatorname{SymL}(f)$

Let us consider the parametrized symmetrization $\operatorname{SymL}(f)_{\varepsilon}=\left[g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}, g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}, g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}\right]$ of $f$. We want to present necessary conditions for three different situations in which each of the following holds: (i) $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}+g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$, (ii) $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} \wedge g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$, and (iii) $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=\left(g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}\right)^{2}$. The parameter $\varepsilon$ tends to be omitted whenever it is clear from the context.

### 6.1.1. Situation 1: $g_{0}+g_{2}=0$

Meanwhile, we fix $\sigma=\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)$ and omit subscript " $\sigma$." Let us consider the first situation that $g_{0, \varepsilon}+g_{2, \varepsilon}=0$ holds for all but two values of $\varepsilon$. Clearly, the equation $g_{0, \varepsilon}+g_{2, \varepsilon}=0$ is equivalent to

$$
\varepsilon^{2}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}\right)+2 \varepsilon(a x+b y+c z+d w)+a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0
$$

Since at least three different values of $\varepsilon$ satisfy the above equation, the coefficient of each term $\varepsilon^{i}(i \in\{0,1,2\})$ should be zero. Therefore, the following Eq. (2) should hold. Eq. (2) also holds for $\sigma=\left(x_{1} x_{3} x_{2}\right)$ because an exchange of the two variables $x_{2}$ and $x_{3}$ does not change those equations.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right) \text { or }\left(x_{1} x_{3} x_{2}\right) x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=a x+b y+c z+d w=0 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

By permuting variable indices further, we obtain two more properties:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right) \text { or }\left(x_{2} x_{3} x_{1}\right) & a^{2}+b^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}=c^{2}+d^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=a c+b d+x z+y w=0 . \\
\left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right) \text { or }\left(x_{3} x_{1} x_{2}\right) & a^{2}+c^{2}+x^{2}+z^{2}=b^{2}+d^{2}+y^{2}+w^{2}=a b+c d+x y+z w=0 \tag{4}
\end{array}
$$

For later convenience, we claim that if all the above properties hold then Eqs. (5)-(6) described below hold. This claim is proven as follows. From $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=c^{2}+d^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=0$ (Eqs. (2)-(3)), we obtain $a^{2}+b^{2}-z^{2}-w^{2}=0$. Similarly, from $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=a^{2}+c^{2}+x^{2}+z^{2}=0$ (Eqs. (2) \& (4)) follows $a^{2}+c^{2}-y^{2}-w^{2}=0$. By combining these two obtained equations, we conclude that $b^{2}+y^{2}-c^{2}-z^{2}=0$. Moreover, $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=a^{2}+c^{2}+x^{2}+z^{2}=0$ (Eqs. (2) \& (4)) implies $b^{2}+d^{2}-x^{2}-z^{2}=0$. From $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=a^{2}+b^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}=0$ (Eqs. (2)-(3)), we obtain $c^{2}+d^{2}-x^{2}-y^{2}=0$, and $a^{2}+b^{2}-z^{2}-w^{2}=b^{2}+d^{2}-x^{2}-z^{2}=0$ also implies $a^{2}+x^{2}-d^{2}-w^{2}=0$. In summary, we obtain two conditions given below.

$$
\begin{align*}
& a^{2}+b^{2}-z^{2}-w^{2}=a^{2}+c^{2}-y^{2}-w^{2}=b^{2}+y^{2}-c^{2}-z^{2}=0  \tag{5}\\
& b^{2}+d^{2}-x^{2}-z^{2}=c^{2}+d^{2}-x^{2}-y^{2}=a^{2}+x^{2}-d^{2}-w^{2}=0 \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

We can further draw Eq. (7) by the following argument. Assuming $b^{2}+d^{2}+y^{2}+w^{2}=a^{2}+b^{2}-z^{2}-w^{2}=0$ (Eqs. (4) \& (5)), $a^{2}=d^{2}$ leads to $x^{2}=w^{2}$. Since its opposite direction holds as well, we conclude that $a^{2}=d^{2}$ iff $x^{2}=w^{2}$. In a similar way, we obtain three more equivalence relations: $a^{2}=z^{2}$ iff $b^{2}=w^{2}, a^{2}=y^{2}$ iff $c^{2}=w^{2}$, and $b^{2}=c^{2}$ iff $y^{2}=z^{2}$. Overall, we can establish the following conditions.

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{2}=d^{2} \Longleftrightarrow x^{2}=w^{2}, \quad a^{2}=z^{2} \Longleftrightarrow b^{2}=w^{2}, \quad a^{2}=y^{2} \Longleftrightarrow c^{2}=w^{2} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, let us recall $x y+z w=-(a b+c d)$ (Eq. (4)) and $x z+y w=-(a c+b d)$ (Eq. (3)). Using these equations, we can transform $(x+w)(y+z)$ into $-(a+d)(b+c)$ as follow.

$$
(x+w)(y+z)=(x y+z w)+(x z+y w)=-(a b+c d)-(a c+b d)=-(a+d)(b+c)
$$

Thus, we immediately obtain the following equation.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right) \quad(a+d)(b+c)+(x+w)(y+z)=0 . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

By permuting variable indices, we also obtain the two more equations shown below.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right) & (a+y)(b+x)+(c+w)(d+z)=0 \\
\left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right) & (a+z)(c+x)+(b+w)(d+y)=0 \tag{10}
\end{array}
$$

### 6.1.2. Situation 2: $g_{0}=g_{2} \wedge g_{1}=0$

Let us assume that both $g_{0, \varepsilon}=g_{2, \varepsilon}$ and $g_{1, \varepsilon}=0$ hold for at least three distinct values of $\varepsilon$. In what follows, we will discuss these two conditions separately.
[Case: $g_{0}=g_{2}$ ] Consider the first case where $g_{0, \varepsilon}=g_{2, \varepsilon}$ holds for at least three distinct values of $\varepsilon$. Using the value [ $g_{0, \varepsilon}, g_{1, \varepsilon}, g_{2, \varepsilon}$ ] given in Section 5.1, the equation $g_{0, \varepsilon}-g_{2, \varepsilon}=0$ is equivalent to

$$
\varepsilon^{2}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}-w^{2}\right)+2 \varepsilon(a x+b y-c z-d w)+a^{2}+b^{2}-c^{2}-d^{2}=0
$$

Since there are three distinct values $\varepsilon$ satisfying the above equation, it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right) \quad x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}-w^{2}=a^{2}+b^{2}-c^{2}-d^{2}=a x+b y-c z-d w=0 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Permuting variable indices further produces the following five more conditions.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left(x_{1} x_{3} x_{2}\right) & x^{2}+z^{2}-y^{2}-w^{2}=a^{2}+c^{2}-b^{2}-d^{2}=a x+c z-b y-d w=0 \\
\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right) & c^{2}+d^{2}-z^{2}-w^{2}=a^{2}+b^{2}-x^{2}-y^{2}=a c+b d-x z-y w=0 \\
\left(x_{2} x_{3} x_{1}\right) & c^{2}+z^{2}-d^{2}-w^{2}=a^{2}+x^{2}-b^{2}-y^{2}=a c+x z-b d-y w=0 \\
\left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right) & b^{2}+y^{2}-d^{2}-w^{2}=a^{2}+x^{2}-c^{2}-z^{2}=a b+x y-c d-z w=0 \\
\left(x_{3} x_{1} x_{2}\right) & b^{2}+d^{2}-y^{2}-w^{2}=a^{2}+c^{2}-x^{2}-z^{2}=a b+c d-x y-z w=0 \tag{16}
\end{array}
$$

Now, we claim, by the argument that follows, that Eqs. (11)-(12) imply $a^{2}=d^{2}, b^{2}=c^{2}, x^{2}=w^{2}, y^{2}=z^{2}, a x=d w$, and by $=c z$. From $x^{2}+y^{2}=z^{2}+w^{2}$ (Eq. (11)) and $x^{2}+z^{2}=y^{2}+w^{2}$ (Eq. (12)) follows $y^{2}=z^{2}$; thus $x^{2}=w^{2}$ also holds. Similarly, using both $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}+d^{2}$ (Eq. (11)) and $a^{2}+c^{2}=b^{2}+d^{2}$ (Eq. (12)), we obtain $b^{2}=c^{2}$ and $a^{2}=d^{2}$. In addition, we obtain $b y=c z$ and $a x=d w$ from $a x+b y=c z+d w$ (Eq. (11)) and $a x+c z=b y+d w$ (Eq. (12)). Therefore, the claim should be true.

Similarly, Eqs. (13)-(14) imply that $a^{2}=z^{2}, b^{2}=w^{2}, c^{2}=x^{2}, d^{2}=y^{2}, a b=z w$, and $c d=x y$. Moreover, from Eqs. (15)-(16), it follows that $a^{2}=y^{2}, b^{2}=x^{2}, c^{2}=w^{2}, d^{2}=z^{2}, a c=y w$, and $b d=x z$.
[Case: $g_{1}=0$ ] Let us consider the second case where $g_{1, \varepsilon}=0$ holds for at least three distinct values of $\varepsilon$. This case can be rephrased as

$$
\varepsilon^{2}(x z+y w)+\varepsilon(a z+b w+c x+d y)+a c+b d=0
$$

Since this equation has degree at most 2 with respect to the parameter $\varepsilon$, we can conclude the following.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right) \quad a z+b w+c x+d y=a c+b d=x z+y w=0 . \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

When permuting variable indices further, the following five conditions can be also induced.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(x_{1} x_{3} x_{2}\right) \quad a y+b x+c w+d z=a b+c d=x y+z w=0 .  \tag{18}\\
& \left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right) \quad a z+b w+c x+d y=a x+b y=c z+d w=0 .  \tag{19}\\
& \left(x_{2} x_{3} x_{1}\right) \quad a d+b c+x w+y z=a b+x y=c d+z w=0 .  \tag{20}\\
& \left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right) \quad a d+b c+x w+y z=a c+x z=b d+y w=0 .  \tag{21}\\
& \left(x_{3} x_{1} x_{2}\right) \quad a y+b x+c w+d z=a x+c z=b y+d w=0 . \tag{22}
\end{align*}
$$

### 6.1.3. Situation 3: $g_{0} g_{2}=g_{1}^{2}$

Let us consider the third situation that $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=\left(g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}\right)^{2}$ holds for at least five distinct values of $\varepsilon$. This situation can be expressed as a degree-4 polynomial equation in $\varepsilon$. First, we fix $\sigma=\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)$ and omit superscript " $\sigma$." Using the values $g_{0, \varepsilon}, g_{1, \varepsilon}, g_{2, \varepsilon}$ given in Section 5.1, the terms $g_{0, \varepsilon} g_{2, \varepsilon}$ and $\left(g_{1, \varepsilon}\right)^{2}$ can be calculated as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{0, \varepsilon} g_{2, \varepsilon}= & \left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)\left(z^{2}+w^{2}\right) \varepsilon^{4}+2\left[(a x+b y)\left(z^{2}+w^{2}\right)+(c z+d w)\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)\right] \varepsilon^{3} \\
& +\left[\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)\left(c^{2}+d^{2}\right)+\left(z^{2}+w^{2}\right)\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)+4(a x+b y)(c z+d w)\right] \varepsilon^{2} \\
& +2\left[(a x+b y)\left(c^{2}+d^{2}\right)+(c z+d w)\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)\right] \varepsilon+\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)\left(c^{2}+d^{2}\right) . \\
\left(g_{1, \varepsilon}\right)^{2}= & (x z+y w)^{2} \varepsilon^{4}+2(x z+y w)(a z+b w+c x+d y) \varepsilon^{3} \\
& +\left[2(x z+y w)(a c+b d)+(a z+b w+c x+d y)^{2}\right] \varepsilon^{2} \\
& +2(a c+b d)(a z+b w+c x+d y) \varepsilon+(a c+b d)^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $g_{0, \varepsilon} g_{2, \varepsilon}=\left(g_{1, \varepsilon}\right)^{2}$ holds for at least five distinct values of $\varepsilon$, coefficients of each term $\varepsilon^{i}(i \in\{0,1,2,3\})$ in both $g_{0, \varepsilon} g_{2, \varepsilon}$ and $\left(g_{1, \varepsilon}\right)^{2}$ coincide. For instance, two coefficients of the term $\varepsilon^{0}$ in $g_{0, \varepsilon} g_{2, \varepsilon}$ and $\left(g_{1, \varepsilon}\right)^{2}$ are equal, and thus we obtain $\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)\left(c^{2}+d^{2}\right)=(x z+y w)^{2}$, which is equivalent to $a d=b c$. By a similar calculation of each term $\varepsilon^{i}$, the equation $g_{0, \varepsilon} g_{2, \varepsilon}=\left(g_{1, \varepsilon}\right)^{2}$ implies the following.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right) \quad a d-b c=x w-y z=a w-b z-c y+d x=0 \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

By permuting variable indices, we also obtain additional two sets of equations.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right) \quad a y-b x=c w-d z=a w-b z+c y-d x=0  \tag{24}\\
& \left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right) \quad a z-c x=b w-d y=a w+b z-c y-d x=0 \tag{25}
\end{align*}
$$

### 6.2. Basic properties of Sym(f)

Finally, we will present a set of basic properties concerning the symmetrization $\operatorname{Sym}(f)$, where $f=(a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w)$ is any ternary signature. Here, we fix $\sigma \in\left\{\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right),\left(x_{1} x_{3} x_{2}\right)\right\}$. Each element of $\operatorname{Sym}(f)=\left[h_{0}, h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}\right]$ can be calculated as follows.

$$
\begin{align*}
& h_{0}=(a+d)\left[(a+d)^{2}+3(b c-a d)\right]  \tag{26}\\
& h_{1}=\left(a^{2}+b c\right) x+(a+d)(b z+c y)+\left(b c+d^{2}\right) w  \tag{27}\\
& h_{2}=a\left(x^{2}+y z\right)+(b z+c y)(x+w)+d\left(y z+w^{2}\right)  \tag{28}\\
& h_{3}=(x+w)\left[(x+w)^{2}+3(y z-x w)\right] \tag{29}
\end{align*}
$$

## 7. Proof of Proposition 5.1

As promised in Section 5.1, we will present the proof of Proposition 5.1. Our argument that will follow shortly is quite elementary and it requires only a straightforward analysis of a set of low-degree polynomial equations listed in Section 6.1.3. An underlying goal of the analysis is to prove that such a set of equations has no common solution.

Let $f=(a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w)$ denote an arbitrary ternary signature and assume that $f \notin \operatorname{DUP}$. In addition, we denote by $\sigma$ an arbitrary permutation in $S_{3}$ and we set $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)=\left[g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}, g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}, g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}\right]$. To lead to a contradiction, we first assume that $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)$ is degenerate. More precisely, we assume that $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma} g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=\left(g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}\right)^{2}$ for at least five distinct values of $\varepsilon$. As discussed in Section 6.1.3, this assumption implies Eqs. (23)-(25). We split the proof into three situations, depending on the choice of $\sigma$. Since the third situation, in which $\sigma=\left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right)$ or $\left(x_{3} x_{1} x_{2}\right)$, is essentially the same as the first two situations, for readability, we omit this situation. Finally, we conveniently set $\sigma_{1}=\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)$, $\sigma_{2}=\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right)$, and $\sigma_{3}=\left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right)$.

### 7.1. Situation: $\sigma=\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)$ or $\left(x_{1} x_{3} x_{2}\right)$

Here, we consider only the situation where $\sigma=\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)$. For this $\sigma$, Eq. (23) must hold; that is, $a d=b c, x w=y z$, and $a w+d x=b z+c y$. In what follows, we intend to show that $f$ belongs to DUP using Eq. (23), because this clearly contradicts our assumption of $f \notin$ DUP.
[Case: $a x \neq 0$ ] Initially, we set $\gamma=\frac{b}{a}$ and $\delta=\frac{y}{x}$. From $a d=b c$ and $x w=y z$, we obtain $b=\gamma a, d=\gamma c, y=\delta x$, and $w=\delta z$. At this point, $f$ is expressed as ( $a, \gamma a, c, \gamma c, x, \delta x, z, \delta z$ ). From $a w+d x=b z+c y$, it easily follows that (1') $(\delta-\gamma)(a z-c x)=0$; thus, either $\delta=\gamma$ or $a z=c x$ holds. Now, we discuss these two cases separately. When $\delta=\gamma, f_{\sigma_{3}}$ equals $[1, \gamma]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot(a, x, c, z, a, x, c, z)$; thus, $f$ belongs to DUP. If $\delta \neq \gamma$, then ( $\left.1^{\prime}\right)$ implies $a z=c x$. Next, let $\theta=\frac{c}{a}$, implying $c=\theta a$ and $z=\theta x$ from $a z=c x$. Since $d=\gamma c=\theta \gamma a$ and $w=\delta z=\theta \delta x, f_{\sigma_{2}}$ becomes $[1, \theta]\left(x_{2}\right) \cdot(a, \gamma a, x, \delta x, a, \gamma a, x, \delta x)$. This proves $f$ to be in DUP.
[Case: $a x=0$ ] Since this case is more involved, we split it into three subcases.
[Subcase: $a=x=0$ ] From $a d=b c$, we immediately obtain (3') $b c=0$, which implies either $b=0$ or $c=0$. Similarly, $x w=y z$ implies (4') $y z=0$, which means either $y=0$ or $z=0$. Firstly, we assume that $b=y=0$. For the permutation $\sigma_{2}$, this assumption makes $f_{\sigma_{2}}$ equal ( $0,0,0,0, c, d, z, w$ ), and thus $f$ belongs to DUP. Secondly, we assume that $b=0 \wedge y \neq 0$. From ( $4^{\prime}$ ) follows $z=0$. By $a w+d x=b z+c y$, we obtain $c y=0$, which yields $c=0$. For $\sigma_{3}, f_{\sigma_{3}}$ becomes $(0,0,0,0,0, y, d, w)$, again in DUP. Thirdly, we consider the case where $b \neq 0 \wedge y=0$. Using (3'), we deduce $c=0$. From $a w+d x=b z+c y$, we also obtain $b z=0$, implying $z=0$. Since $f_{\sigma_{3}}=(0,0,0,0, b, y, d, w)$, obviously $f$ belongs to DUP. Finally, we discuss the case where $b \neq 0 \wedge y \neq 0$. The two equations ( $3^{\prime}$ ) and ( $4^{\prime}$ ) indicate that $c=z=0$. Moreover, we obtain $f_{\sigma_{3}}=[1, \gamma]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot(0, x, 0,0,0, x, 0,0)$, making $f$ fall into DUP. In all the cases, contradictions follow.
[Subcase: $a=0 \wedge x \neq 0$ ] From $a d=b c$, we have (5') $b c=0$, which implies either $b=0$ or $c=0$. Setting $\gamma=\frac{y}{x}$, we obtain $y=\gamma x$ and $w=\gamma z$ from $x w=y z$. Now, we begin with examining the case of $b=0$. Since $a w+d x=b z+c y$, it holds that $x(d-\gamma c)=0$; thus, $d=\gamma c$ follows. This concludes that $f_{\sigma_{3}}=[1, \gamma]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot(0, x, c, z, 0, x, c, z)$. Obviously, this makes $f$ fall into DUP. Next, let us consider the case of $b \neq 0$. From (5') follows $c=0$. We also obtain $d x=b z$ from
$a w+d x=b z+c y$. Letting $\delta=\frac{z}{x}$, we further obtain $z=\delta x$ and $d=\delta b$ from $d x=b z$. Note that $x w=y z$ implies $\gamma x(z-\delta x)=0$, yielding $z=\delta x$. It thus holds that $w=\gamma z=\delta \gamma z$. For the permutation $\sigma_{2}, f_{\sigma_{2}}$ can be written in the form $[1, \delta]\left(x_{2}\right) \cdot(0, b, x, \gamma x, 0, b, x, \gamma x)$, which is clearly in DUP.
[Subcase: $a \neq 0 \wedge x=0$ ] Because this subcase is essentially the same as the previous subcase $a=0 \wedge x \neq 0$, we omit this subcase for readability.

### 7.2. Situation: $\sigma=\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right)$ or $\left(x_{2} x_{3} x_{1}\right)$

In this subsection, we assume that $\sigma=\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right)$. Notice that our assumption $g_{0}^{\sigma} g_{2}^{\sigma}=\left(g_{1}^{\sigma}\right)^{2}$ ensures Eq. (24); that is, $a y=b x, c w=d z$, and $a w+c y=b z+d x$. With these equations, we wish to lead to a contradiction.
[Case: $a z \neq 0$ ] Using $a y=b x$ and $c w=d z$, we conveniently set $\gamma=\frac{b}{a}$ and $\delta=\frac{w}{z}$; thus, $\gamma$ and $\delta$ satisfy that $b=\gamma a$, $d=\delta c, y=\gamma x$, and $w=\delta z$. From $a w+c y=b z+d x$, it follows that $\left(1^{\prime}\right)(\delta-\gamma)(a z-c x)=0$. Hereafter, let us consider two subcases: $\delta=\gamma$ and $\delta \neq \gamma$. First, we assume that $\delta=\gamma$. Obviously, $f_{\sigma_{3}}$ equals $[1, \gamma]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot(a, x, c, z, a, x, c, z)$, and thus $f$ belongs to DUP. Next, we assume that $\delta \neq \gamma$. Clearly, ( $1^{\prime}$ ) implies $a z=c x$. Note that $c \neq 0$ because of $a z \neq 0$. Now, let $\theta=\frac{c}{a}$; thus, $c=\theta a$ and $z=\theta x$ hold. Using this $\theta, f$ can be expressed as $[a, x]\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot(1, \gamma, \theta, \theta \delta, 1, \gamma, \theta, \theta \delta)$, which is clearly in DUP.
[Case: $a z=0$ ] To handle this case, we will consider three subcases.
[Subcase: $a=z=0$ ] By $a y=b x$, we obtain (2') $b x=0$, implying either $x=0$ or $b=0$. Similarly, $c w=d z$ implies (3') $c w=0$; thus, either $c=0$ or $w=0$ holds. Firstly, we assume that $c=x=0$. This implies that $f_{\sigma_{3}}$ is of the form $(0,0,0,0, b, y, d, w)$, which forces $f$ to be in DUP. Secondly, we assume that $c=0 \wedge x \neq 0$. From (2') follows $b=0$. Since $x \neq 0$, we obtain $d=0$ from $a w+c y=b z+d x$. Therefore, it holds that $f=(0,0,0,0, x, y, z, \gamma z)$, proving that $f \in$ DUP. Thirdly, we assume that $c \neq 0 \wedge x=0$. Note that $w=0$ by ( 3 '). The equation $a w+c y=b z+c y$ yields $c=0$; hence, $f_{\sigma_{3}}$ becomes $(0,0,0,0, b, y, d, 0) \in$ DUP. The remaining case is that $c \neq 0 \wedge x \neq 0$. From (2') \& (3') follows $b=w=0$. The equation $a w+c y=b z+d x$ is thus equivalent to $d x=c y$. If we set $\gamma=\frac{c}{d}$, then we obtain $c=\gamma d$ and $x=\gamma y$ from $d x=c y$, and thus $f_{\sigma_{3}}$ can be written as $[\gamma, 1]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot(0, y, d, 0,0, y, d, 0)$. Clearly, $f$ belongs to DUP.
[Subcase: $a=0 \wedge z \neq 0$ ] From $a y=b x$, we obtain (4') $b x=0$. Letting $\gamma=\frac{w}{z}$, we obtain $w=\gamma z$ and $d=\gamma c$ from $c w=d z$. Firstly, we assume that $b=c=0$; thus, $d=\gamma c=0$. We immediately obtain $f=(0,0,0,0, x, y, z, \gamma z) \in$ DUP. Secondly, assume that $b=0 \wedge c \neq 0$. Since $a w+c y=b z+d x$ is equivalent to $c(y-\gamma x)=0, c \neq 0$ implies $y=\gamma x$. Thus, $f_{\sigma_{3}}$ becomes $[1, \gamma]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot(0, x, c, z, 0, x, c, z)$. This implies that $f \in$ DUP. Finally, let us handle the case of $b \neq 0$. Here, we obtain $x=0$ by ( $4^{\prime}$ ). Using $a w+c y=b z+d x$, we also obtain $c y=b z$. Now, let $\delta=\frac{y}{b}$ since $b \neq 0$. With this $\delta$, it follows that $y=\delta b$ and $z=\delta c$. Obviously, $f$ equals $[1, \delta]\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot(0, b, c, \gamma c, 0, b, c, \gamma c)$. Obviously, $f$ belongs to DUP.
[Subcase: $a \neq 0 \wedge z=0$ ] Note that (5') $c w=0$ is obtained from $c w=d z$. Now, let $\gamma=\frac{b}{a}$; thus, $a y=b x$ implies both $b=\gamma a$ and $y=\gamma x$. First of all, we consider the case where $c=0$. Note that $a w+c y=b z+d x$ immediately leads to $a w=d x$. Conveniently, we set $\delta=\frac{d}{a}$. It then follows from $a w=d x$ that $d=\delta a$ and $w=\delta x$. Hence, we obtain $f=[a, x]\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot(1, \gamma, 0, \delta, 1, \gamma, 0, \delta) \in$ DUP. What still remains is the case where $c \neq 0$. By ( $5^{\prime}$ ), we immediately obtain $w=0$. Moreover, $a w+c y=b z+d x$ implies $x(d-\gamma c)=0$. If $x \neq 0$, then $d=\gamma c$ also follows. In summary, $f_{\sigma_{3}}$ must have the form $[1, \gamma]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot(a, x, c, 0, a, x, c, 0)$, proving that $f \in D U P$. On the contrary, if $x=0$, then we immediately obtain $f=(a, \gamma a, c, \gamma c, 0,0,0,0)$. This makes $f$ fall into DUP, as requested.

## 8. Proof of Proposition 5.2

Here, we will prove Proposition 5.2. In this proof, we assume that $f$ is of the form ( $a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w)$ and let $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)_{\varepsilon}=$ [ $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}, g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}, g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}$ ] for each permutation $\sigma$ and each value $\varepsilon$. Furthermore, we assume that $f$ is SIG Slegal $_{1}$; that is, the signature $\operatorname{Sym}(f) \stackrel{\varepsilon}{=}\left[h_{0}, h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}\right]$ satisfies $h_{0}+h_{2}=h_{1}+h_{3}=0$ and $h_{0} \neq \xi h_{1}$ for any constant $\xi \in\{ \pm i\}$. Toward a contradiction, we further assume that, for every permutation $\sigma$ and almost all values of $\varepsilon$, both $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}$ and $g_{1, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$ hold. Notice that this assumption implies Eqs. (11)-(22). As shown in Section 6.1.2, Eqs. (11)-(16) imply that $a^{2}=d^{2}=y^{2}=z^{2}$ and $b^{2}=c^{2}=x^{2}=w^{2}$. From these equations, we can set $z=e_{1} a, y=e_{2} a, d=e_{3} a, b=e_{4} w, c=e_{5} w$, and $x=e_{6} w$ using appropriate constants $e_{i} \in\{ \pm 1\}$. Eqs. (11)-(16) also provide with the following equations: $a x=d w, b y=c z, a c=y w$, $b d=x z, a b=z w$, and $c d=x y$. Now, we split our proof into two cases, depending on whether $a w=0$ or not, and we try to argue that each case indeed leads to a contradiction.
[Case: $a w \neq 0$ ] From $a x=d w$, we obtain $e_{6} a w=e_{3} a w$, or equivalently $\left(e_{6}-e_{3}\right) a w=0$; thus, $e_{3}=e_{6}$ must hold since $a w \neq 0$. Similarly, from $a c=y w$ and $a b=z w$, it follows that $e_{1}=e_{4}$ and $e_{2}=e_{5}$, respectively. Moreover, $a c+b d=0$ (Eq. (17)) implies ( $e_{2}+e_{1} e_{3}$ ) aw $=0$, which yields $e_{3}=-e_{1} e_{2}$. Similarly, from $a z+b w+c x+d y=0$ (Eq. (17)) follows $2 e_{1}\left(a^{2}+w^{2}\right)=0$; hence, we obtain $a^{2}+w^{2}=0$. Let us assume that $w=\gamma a$ for an appropriate constant $\gamma \in\{ \pm i\}$. At present, $f$ equals ( $\left.a, e_{1} \gamma a, e_{2} \gamma a,-e_{1} e_{2} a,-e_{1} e_{2} \gamma a, e_{2} a, e_{1} a, \gamma a\right)$. Next, let us consider the values $h_{0}$ and $h_{1}$. Making a direct calculation of Eqs. (26)-(27), we obtain $h_{0}=\left(1-e_{1} e_{2}\right)^{3} a^{3}$ and $h_{1}=\gamma\left(1-e_{1} e_{2}\right)\left(3-e_{1} e_{2}\right) a^{3}$. When $e_{1} e_{2}=1$, it clearly follows that $h_{0}=h_{1}=0$, a contradiction against $h_{0} \neq \xi h_{1}$ for every $\xi \in\{ \pm i\}$; therefore, $e_{1} e_{2}$ must be -1 , or equivalently $e_{2}=-e_{1}$. Using this result, we further simplify $h_{0}$ and $h_{1}$ as $h_{0}=8 a^{3}$ and $h_{1}=8 \gamma a^{3}$. These values imply $h_{1}=\gamma h_{0}$. Since $\gamma \in\{ \pm i\}$, this equality leads to a contradiction, as requested.
[Case: $a w=0$ ] First, note that both $a=0$ and $w=0$ never happen simultaneously because, otherwise, $f$ becomes an all-zero function, and thus $f$ belongs to DUP, a contradiction. When $a=0, f$ equals $\left(0, e_{1} w, e_{2} w, 0, e_{3} w, 0,0, w\right)$. From $a z+b w+c x+d y=0$ (Eq. (17)) follows $\left(e_{1}+e_{2} e_{3}\right) w^{2}=0$, which implies $e_{3}=-e_{1} e_{2}$. Hence, we obtain $f=w \cdot\left(0, e_{1}, e_{2}, 0,-e_{1} e_{2}, 0,0,1\right)$. By Eqs. (26)-(27), it follows that $h_{1}=e_{1} e_{2}-1$ and $h_{3}=2+e_{1} e_{2}$; as a result, $h_{1}+h_{3}=1+2 e_{1} e_{2} \neq 0$ follows. This consequence clearly contradicts the assumption that $h_{1}+h_{3}=0$. Similarly, when $w=0$, since $a \neq 0$, $f$ equals ( $a, 0,0, e_{3} a, 0, e_{2} a, e_{1} a, 0$ ). Using $a z+b w+c x+d y=0$ (Eq. (17)), we obtain $\left(e_{1}+e_{2} e_{3}\right) a^{2}=0$, implying $e_{3}=-e_{1} e_{2}$. This makes $f$ equal $a \cdot\left(1,0,0,-e_{1} e_{2}, 0, e_{2}, e_{1}, 0\right)$. Since $h_{0}=2+e_{1} e_{2}$ and $h_{2}=e_{1} e_{2}-1$, we then conclude that $h_{0}+h_{2}=1+2 e_{1} e_{2} \neq 0$, a contradiction against $h_{0}+h_{2}=0$.

## 9. Proof of Proposition 5.3

Assume that $f=(a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w) \notin \operatorname{DUP}$ is $\operatorname{SIG}_{1}$-legal and let $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)=\left[g_{0}^{\sigma}, g_{1}^{\sigma}, g_{2}^{\sigma}\right]$ for any permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$. Here, we aim at proving Proposition 5.3 by contradiction. To achieve this goal, we first assume that, together with Statement $\left(^{*}\right)$, there are two distinct permutations $\sigma$ and $\tau$ for which (i) $g_{0}^{\sigma}=g_{2}^{\sigma} \wedge g_{1}^{\sigma}=0$ and (ii) $g_{0}^{\tau}+g_{2}^{\tau}=0$ hold. From this assumption, we want to lead to a contradiction. As shown in Section 5.2, Statement (*) implies that, for every $\sigma^{\prime} \in S_{3}$, the two conditions (i) and (ii) are not satisfied simultaneously. Since $f$ is SIG ${ }_{1}$-legal, it also holds that $h_{0}+h_{2}=h_{1}+h_{3}=0$ and $h_{0}^{2}+h_{1}^{2} \neq 0$, provided that $\operatorname{Sym}(f)=\left[h_{0}, h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}\right]$. Notice that $h_{2}^{2}+h_{3}^{2} \neq 0$ also holds.

### 9.1. Situation: $\sigma=\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)$ and $\tau=\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right)$

For our choice of $\sigma$ and $\tau$, we assume that $g_{0}^{\sigma}=g_{2}^{\sigma} \wedge g_{1}^{\sigma}=0$ and $g_{0}^{\tau}+g_{2}^{\tau}=0$. Letting $\sigma^{\prime}=\left(x_{1} x_{3} x_{2}\right)$, we first claim that $g_{0}^{\sigma^{\prime}}+g_{2}^{\sigma^{\prime}} \neq 0$ holds. Meanwhile, assume otherwise. Because of the close similarity between $\sigma$ and $\sigma^{\prime}$, as seen in Section 6.1.1, $g_{0}^{\sigma}+g_{2}^{\sigma}=0$ should hold for $\sigma$. This indicates the condition $g_{0}^{\sigma}=g_{2}^{\sigma} \wedge g_{1}^{\sigma}=0$ to fail; thus, we obtain a contradiction. Therefore, since $g_{0}^{\sigma^{\prime}}+g_{2}^{\sigma^{\prime}} \neq 0$, we conclude that $g_{0}^{\sigma^{\prime}}=g_{2}^{\sigma^{\prime}} \wedge g_{1}^{\sigma^{\prime}}=0$.

From our assumption, Eqs. (11)-(12) and Eqs. (17)-(18) hold respectively for $\sigma$ and $\sigma^{\prime}$, and Eq. (3) holds for $\tau$. As Section 6.1 .2 showed, Eqs. (11)-(12) produce the following six simple equations: $a^{2}=d^{2}, b^{2}=c^{2}, x^{2}=w^{2}, y^{2}=z^{2}$, (1') $a x=d w$, and (2') by $=c z$. Since $a^{2}=d^{2}$, we assume that $d=e_{1} a$ for a certain constant $e_{1} \in\{ \pm 1\}$. Similarly, using three relations, $b^{2}=c^{2}, x^{2}=w^{2}$, and $y^{2}=z^{2}$, it is possible to set $c=e_{2} b, w=e_{3} x$ and $z=e_{4} y$ using appropriate constants $e_{2}, e_{3}, e_{4} \in\{ \pm 1\}$. Let us examine the following two cases.
[Case: $a=0$ ] We split this case into two subcases, depending on whether $x=0$ or not. The first subcase is rather simple. Note that $d=0$ holds because $d=e_{1} a$.
[Subcase: $x=0$ ] Clearly, $w=e_{3} x=0$ holds. We also obtain $b^{2}+y^{2}=0$ because $a^{2}+b^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}=0$ (Eq. (3)) holds. From this equation, we conclude that $b=0$ iff $y=0$. In particular, if $b y=0$, then $f$ is composed of all zeros, forcing $f$ fall into DUP, a contradiction. It thus suffices to assume that by $\neq 0$. By ( $2^{\prime}$ ), we obtain $\left(1-e_{2} e_{4}\right)$ by $=0$; thus, $e_{2} e_{4}=1$, or equivalently, $e_{4}=e_{2}$ holds. A vigorous calculation of Eqs. (26)-(27) shows that $h_{0}=h_{1}=0$. This is a contradiction against our requirement that $h_{1} \neq \xi h_{0}$ for any $\xi \in\{ \pm i\}$.
[Subcase: $x \neq 0$ ] First, we want to claim that $b \neq 0$. Assume otherwise. Since $b=0$ implies $c=e_{2} b=0$, it follows that $a=b=c=d=0$. We therefore conclude that $f$ is in DUP. This is a clear contradiction; therefore, $b \neq 0$ should hold. Using Eqs. (26)-(28), we obtain $h_{0}=0, h_{1}=\left(1+e_{3}\right) e_{2} b^{2} x$, and $h_{2}=\left(e_{2}+e_{4}\right)\left(1+e_{3}\right) b x y$. Since $h_{0} \neq \xi h_{1}$ for any $\xi \in\{ \pm i\}$, $h_{1} \neq 0$ must hold; thus, $e_{3} \neq-1$, or equivalently $e_{3}=1$ follows. Therefore, $h_{2}$ is of the form $h_{2}=2\left(e_{2}+e_{4}\right) b x y$. First, let us consider the case where $y \neq 0$. Since $h_{0}+h_{2}=0$, we obtain $2\left(e_{2}+e_{4}\right) b x y=0$, which yields $e_{4}=-e_{2}$. By contrast, from (2') follows $\left(1-e_{2} e_{4}\right) b y=0$. We thus conclude that $e_{2} e_{4}=1$, or equivalently $e_{4}=e_{2}$. This is obviously a contradiction. Next, consider the case where $y=0$. We can simplify $a z+b w+c x+d y=0$ (Eq. (17)) to ( $1+e_{2}$ ) bx $=0$; thus, $e_{2}=-1$ follows. Similarly, from $a^{2}+b^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}=0$ (Eq. (3)), we deduce ( $3^{\prime}$ ) $b^{2}+x^{2}=0$. The values $h_{1}$ and $h_{3}$ take $h_{1}=-2 b^{2} x$ and $h_{3}=2 x^{3}$ by Eqs. (27) \& (29). The requirement $h_{1}+h_{3}=0$ implies $2 x\left(x^{2}-b^{2}\right)=0$; thus, $x^{2}=b^{2}$ follows. By combining this equation with ( $3^{\prime}$ ), we conclude that $x=b=0$. This is obviously a contradiction against $b \neq 0$.
[Case: $a \neq 0$ ] This case is more involved. Similar to the previous case, we split this case into two subcases.
[Subcase: $x=0$ ] Note that $w=e_{3} x=0$.
(i) We start with assuming by $\neq 0$. Using $a z+b w+c x+d y=0$ (Eq. (17)), we deduce $\left(e_{1}+e_{4}\right) a y=0$, from which $e_{4}=-e_{1}$ follows. Similarly, from $a c+b d=0$ (Eq. (17)), we obtain $\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right) a y=0$ and then $e_{2}=-e_{1}$. Now, let us determine the value $e_{1}$ using Eqs. (26)-(29). Since $h_{3}=0$ and $h_{1}=-2 e_{1}\left(1+e_{1}\right)$ aby by a direct calculation, the requirement $h_{1}+h_{3}=0$ leads to $e_{1}\left(1+e_{1}\right) a b y=0$, further implying $e_{1}=-1$. At present, $f$ has the form $(a, b, b,-a, 0, y, y, 0)$. Since the value $h_{2}$ becomes 0 , we therefore conclude that $h_{2}=h_{3}=0$, contradicting the requirement $h_{1}^{2}+h_{3}^{2} \neq 0$.
(ii) Next, we assume that $b=y=0$. Since $a^{2}+b^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}=0$ (Eq. (3)), we immediately obtain $a=0$. This contradicts our assumption $a \neq 0$.
(iii) Let us assume that $b=0 \wedge y \neq 0$. Note that $c=e_{2} b=0$. The equation $a z+b w+c x+d y=0$ (Eq. (17)) implies $\left(e_{1}+e_{4}\right) a y=0$, which yields $e_{4}=-e_{1}$. It thus follows by Eqs. (28)-(29) that $h_{2}=-\left(1+e_{1}\right) a y^{2}$ and $h_{3}=0$. Here, we claim that $e_{1} \neq-1$ because, otherwise, we obtain $h_{2}=h_{3}=0$, a contradiction. Since $e_{1} \neq-1, e_{1}=1$ must hold. The value $h_{2}$ then becomes $h_{2}=-2 a y^{2}$. Since $h_{0}=2 a^{3}$, the requirement $h_{0}+h_{2}=0$ implies $2 a\left(a^{2}-y^{2}\right)=0$, which is equivalent to
(4') $a^{2}=y^{2}$. Next, we use $a^{2}+b^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}=0$ (Eq. (3)) to obtain $a^{2}+y^{2}=0$. From (4'), we conclude that $a=y=0$. This is a clear contradiction.
(iv) Finally, we assume that $b \neq 0 \wedge y=0$. Obviously, $z=e_{4} y=0$ holds. We then obtain $\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right) a b=0$ from $a c+b d=0$ (Eq. (17)). This yields $e_{2}=-e_{1}$. By a simple calculation, we obtain $h_{2}=h_{3}=0$, from which a contradiction follows.
[Subcase: $x \neq 0$ ] We use ( $1^{\prime}$ ) to obtain $\left(1-e_{2} e_{3}\right) a x=0$, from which we conclude that $e_{2} e_{3}=1$, or equivalently $e_{2}=e_{3}$.
(i) Assume that $b y \neq 0$. It follows from (2') that $\left(1-e_{2} e_{4}\right) b y=0$; thus, $e_{4}=e_{2}$ holds. Because of $x z+y w=0$ (Eq. (17)), we conclude that $2 e_{2} x y=0$. This implies that either $x=0$ or $y=0$, and it clearly contradicts our current assumption.
(ii) Assuming that $b=y=0$, we can simplify $a x+b y-c z-d w=0$ (Eq.(11)) to ( $1-e_{1} e_{2}$ ) $a x=0$, further implying $e_{2}=e_{1}$. Now, we show that $e_{1}=1$. For this purpose, we first calculate $h_{2}$ and $h_{3}$ as $h_{2}=\left(1+e_{1}\right) a x^{2}$ and $h_{3}=\left(1+e_{1}\right)\left(2-e_{1}\right) x^{3}$. If $e_{1}=-1$, then $h_{2}=h_{3}=0$ follows. Since this is a contradiction, it must hold that $e_{1} \neq-1$, or equivalently $e_{1}=1$, as requested. The equation $a^{2}+b^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}=0$ (Eq. (3)) then becomes $a^{2}+x^{2}=0$. Now, we set $x=\gamma a$ using an appropriate constant $\gamma \in\{ \pm i\}$. It is easy to show that $h_{0}=2 a^{3}$ and $h_{1}=2 \gamma a^{3}$; thus, $h_{1}=\gamma h_{0}$ holds, a contradiction.
(iii) Next, we assume that $b=0 \wedge y \neq 0$. It follows from $x z+y w=0$ (Eq. (17)) that $\left(e_{2}+e_{4}\right) x y=0$; thus, $e_{4}=-e_{2}$ holds. By $a z+b w+c x+d y=0$ (Eq. (17)), we also obtain $\left(e_{1}-e_{2}\right) a y=0$, from which $e_{2}=e_{1}$ follows. Now, we want to claim that $e_{1}=1$. This is shown as follows. Note that $h_{0}=\left(1+e_{1}\right)\left(2-e_{1}\right) a^{3}$ and $h_{1}=\left(1+e_{1}\right) a^{2} x$. If $e_{1}=-1$, then we immediately obtain $h_{0}=h_{1}=0$, contradicting the requirement $h_{0}^{2}+h_{1}^{2} \neq 0$. Since $e_{1} \in\{ \pm 1\}, e_{1}=1$ follows. Therefore, it holds that $h_{0}=2 a^{3}$ and $h_{2}=2 a\left(x^{2}-y^{2}\right)$. Since $h_{0}+h_{2}=0$, we obtain $2 a\left(a^{2}+x^{2}-y^{2}\right)=0$; thus, $a^{2}+x^{2}-y^{2}=0$ follows. Now, $a^{2}+b^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}=0$ (Eq. (3)) becomes $a^{2}+x^{2}+y^{2}=0$. These two equations clearly imply $y=0$, a contradiction against $y \neq 0$.
(iv) The remaining case is that $b \neq 0 \wedge y=0$. By $a c+b d=0$ (Eq. (17)), it follows that $\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right) a b=0$; thus, we have $e_{2}=-e_{1}$. Moreover, from $a x+b y-c z-d w=0$ (Eq. (11)) follows $\left(1+e_{1}\right) a x=0$, yielding $e_{1}=-1$. The equation $a z+b w+c x+d y=0$ (Eq. (17)) therefore becomes equivalent to $b x=0$, leading to a contradiction against $b \neq 0$ and $x \neq 0$.

### 9.2. Situation: $\sigma=\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right)$ and $\tau=\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)$

Let us assume that $g_{0}^{\sigma}=g_{2}^{\sigma} \wedge g_{1}^{\sigma}=0$ for $\sigma=\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right)$ and $g_{0}^{\tau}+g_{2}^{\tau}=0$ for $\tau=\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)$. For brevity, we set $\sigma^{\prime}=\left(x_{2} x_{3} x_{1}\right)$ and $\sigma_{3}=\left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right)$. Following a similar argument given in Section 9.1, we can conclude another condition that $g_{0}^{\sigma^{\prime}}=g_{2}^{\sigma^{\prime}} \wedge g_{1}^{\sigma^{\prime}}=0$ for $\sigma^{\prime}$. Notice that our assumption guarantees Eqs. (13)-(14) and Eqs. (19)-(20) for $\sigma$ and $\sigma^{\prime}$, respectively, and also Eq. (2) for $\tau$. As discussed in Section 6.1.2, Eqs. (13)-(14) implies the following equations: $a^{2}=z^{2}$, $b^{2}=w^{2}, c^{2}=x^{2}, d^{2}=y^{2},\left(1^{\prime}\right) a b=z w$, and (2') $c d=x y$. With appropriate constants $e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}, e_{4} \in\{ \pm 1\}$, we can set $z=e_{1} a, w=e_{2} b, x=e_{3} c$, and $y=e_{4} d$.
[Case: $a=0$ ] First, we obtain $z=0$ from $z=e_{1} a$. In what follows, we will discuss two subcases.
[Subcase: $b=0$ ] Since $b=0, w=0$ follows. Now, we claim that $e_{4}=e_{3}$. To show this claim, assume that $e_{4} \neq e_{3}$, or equivalently $e_{3} e_{4} \neq 1$. From (2'), we obtain $\left(1-e_{3} e_{4}\right) c d=0$, which means $c d=0$. The equation $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) is then equivalent to $c^{2}+d^{2}=0$. Moreover, $c d=0$ and $c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ imply $c=d=0$. Hence, $f$ is composed of all zeros, and thus it is in DUP, a contradiction. As a consequence, we conclude that $e_{4}=e_{3}$. For $\sigma_{3}, f_{\sigma_{3}}$ becomes $\left(0, e_{3} c, c, 0,0, e_{3}, d, d, 0\right)$, which is written as $[c, d]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot\left(0, e_{3}, 1,0,0, e_{3}, 1,0\right)$. Thus, $f$ belongs to DUP.
[Subcase: $b \neq 0$ ] There are two situations to consider separately.
(i) Let us consider the case where $d=0$. Note that $b^{2}=c^{2}$ follows from $a^{2}+x^{2}=b^{2}+y^{2}$ (Eq. (14)). Moreover, from $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)), we conclude that $b^{2}+c^{2}=0$. These two equations immediately yield $b=c=0$, which contradicts $b \neq 0$.
(ii) Next, consider the case where $d \neq 0$. Note that $\left(e_{2}+e_{4}\right) b d=0$ holds since $a x+b y+c z+d w=0$ (Eq. (2)); thus, $e_{4}=-e_{2}$ holds. Firstly, we assume that $c \neq 0$. It follows by (2') that $\left(1+e_{2} e_{3}\right) c d=0$; hence, we obtain $e_{3}=-e_{2}$. From $a^{2}+b^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}$ (Eq. (13)) and $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)), it also follows that $b^{2}-c^{2}-d^{2}=0$ and $b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$, respectively. Combining these two equations, we lead to $2 b^{2}=0$, a contradiction. Secondly, we assume that $c=0$. Note that $x=z=0$. The equation $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) implies $b^{2}+d^{2}=0$. Furthermore, from $c^{2}+d^{2}-z^{2}-w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (13)), we obtain $b^{2}=d^{2}$. Combining these two consequences, we conclude that $b=d=0$. Hence, $f$ is an all-zero function and belongs to DUP, a contradiction.
[Case: $a \neq 0$ ] Here, we will consider two subcases.
[Subcase: $b d \neq 0$ ] From ( $1^{\prime}$ ), we have $\left(1-e_{1} e_{2}\right) a b=0$. Thus, we have $e_{2}=e_{1}$.
(i) Assume that $c=0$; thus, $x=e_{3} c=0$ holds. We deduce from $a x+b y+c z+d w=0$ (Eq. (2)) the equation $\left(e_{1}+e_{4}\right) b d=0$, which leads to $e_{4}=-e_{1}$. Use $a c+b d=x z+y w$ (Eq. (13)), and we then obtain $2 b d=0$; however, this is a contradiction against our assumption.
(ii) Next, assume that $c \neq 0$. The equation (2') implies $\left(1-e_{3} e_{4}\right) c d=0$, yielding $e_{4}=e_{3}$. From $a x+b y+c z+d w=0$ (Eq. (2)), it follows that ( $3^{\prime}$ ) $\left(e_{1}+e_{3}\right)(a c+b d)=0$. This implies either $e_{1}+e_{3}=0$ or $a c+b d=0$. Here, we will examine these two possibilities.
(a) Assume that $e_{1}+e_{3}=0$, or equivalently $e_{3}=-e_{1}$. From $c^{2}+d^{2}=z^{2}+w^{2}$ (Eq. (13)), we obtain $a^{2}+b^{2}-c^{2}-d^{2}=0$. Combining this equation with $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)), we also obtain $a^{2}+b^{2}=0$, from which $c^{2}+d^{2}=0$
immediately follows. Now, we set $b=\gamma a$ and $d=\delta c$ for two constants $\gamma, \delta \in\{ \pm i\}$. From $a c+b d=x z+y w$ (Eq. (13)), it follows that $2(1+\delta \gamma) a c=0$. Since $a c \neq 0$, we conclude that $\gamma \delta=1$, or equivalently $\delta=\gamma$. Overall, $f_{\sigma_{3}}$ has the form $[1, \gamma]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot\left(a,-e_{1} c, c, e_{1} a, a,-e_{1} c, c, e_{1} a\right)$. Clearly, this contradicts $f \notin$ DUP.
(b) Assume that $e_{1}+e_{3} \neq 0$; thus, $e_{3} \neq-e_{1}$, or equivalently $e_{3}=e_{1}$ follows. By ( $3^{\prime}$ ), we obtain $a c+b d=0$. Letting $\gamma=\frac{b}{a}$, we obtain $b=\gamma a$ and $c=-\gamma d$ from $a c+b d=0$. Next, we claim that $\gamma^{2}=-1$. Assume otherwise. The equation $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) then becomes $\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right)\left(a^{2}+d^{2}\right)=0$, implying $a^{2}+d^{2}=0$. On the contrary, from $a^{2}+b^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}$ (Eq. (13)), we obtain $\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right)\left(a^{2}-d^{2}\right)=0$, which implies $a^{2}-d^{2}=0$. These two equations lead to $a=d=0$, a contradiction. Thus, we obtain $\gamma^{2}=-1$. For $\sigma_{3}, f_{\sigma_{3}}$ can be expressed as $[-\gamma, 1]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot\left(\gamma a, e_{3} d, d, \gamma e_{1} a, \gamma a, e_{3} d, d, \gamma e_{1} a\right)$, which implies $f \in$ DUP, a contradiction.
[Subcase: $b d=0$ ] Firstly, we assume that $b=d=0$. In this case, $f_{\sigma_{3}}$ equals ( $a, x, c, z, 0,0,0,0$ ), a contradiction against $f \notin$ DUP. Secondly, we assume that $b=0 \wedge d \neq 0$. From $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) and $a^{2}+b^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}$ (Eq. (13)), we obtain $a^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ and $a^{2}-c^{2}-d^{2}=0$, respectively. Combining these two equations leads to $2 a^{2}=0$. This is a contradiction against $a \neq 0$. Finally, we assume that $b \neq 0 \wedge d=0$. Applying ( $1^{\prime}$ ), we then obtain $\left(1-e_{1} e_{2}\right) a b=0$, which yields $e_{2}=e_{1}$. Similar to the second case, from $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) and $a^{2}+b^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}$ (Eq. (13)), we conclude that $c=0$. Hence, $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ becomes $a^{2}+b^{2}=0$. Now, we set $b=\gamma a$ with an appropriate constant $\gamma \in\{ \pm i\}$. With this $\gamma, f_{\sigma_{3}}$ is written as $a \cdot[1, \gamma]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot\left(1,0,0, e_{1}, 1,0,0, e_{1}\right)$, which clearly belongs to DUP, a contradiction.

## 10. Proof of Proposition 5.4

This last section will prove Proposition 5.4, completing the whole proof of Proposition 4.5. As we have done in Sections 79, we set $f=(a, b, c, d, x, y, z, w)$ and let $\operatorname{SymL}\left(f_{\sigma}\right)=\left[g_{0}^{\sigma}, g_{1}^{\sigma}, g_{2}^{\sigma}\right]$ for each permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$.

In this proof, we assume that $f$ is SIG $_{1}$-legal; namely, $\operatorname{Sym}(f)=\left[h_{0}, h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}\right]$ satisfies that $h_{0}+h_{2}=h_{1}+h_{3}=0$ and $h_{0} \neq \xi h_{1}$ for any value $\xi \in\{ \pm i\}$. Moreover, we assume that $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}+g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$ holds for every permutation $\sigma \in S_{3}$ and for almost all values of $\varepsilon$. Since the degree of this polynomial equation is at most two, in the rest of this proof, we fix an appropriate value $\varepsilon$ and assume that $g_{0, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}+g_{2, \varepsilon}^{\sigma}=0$ for every $\sigma \in S_{3}$. For simplicity, hereafter, we omit subscript " $\varepsilon$." To proceed our proof by contradiction, we further assume that $f \notin$ DUP. Notice that, as discussed in Section 6.1.1, Eqs. (2)-(10) should be satisfied.

First, we fix $\sigma=\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)$ and, for this $\sigma$, we want to prove that $(a+d)(y+z)(x+w) \neq 0$ and $x w=y z$. Let us begin with the poof of $(a+d)(y+z)(x+w) \neq 0$.
Claim 1. $(a+d)(y+z)(x+w) \neq 0$.
Proof. Our proof goes by way of contradiction: namely, assuming $(a+d)(y+z)(x+w)=0$, we aim at drawing a contradiction. This assumption implies that at least one of the following three terms must be zero: $a+d, y+z$, and $x+w$. In what follows, we consider the situation in which $a+d=0$ is satisfied. The other two possible situations can be treated similarly. It follows from $(a+d)(b+c)+(x+w)(y+z)=0$ (Eq. (8)) that ( $\left.1^{\prime}\right)(x+w)(y+z)=0$; thus, either $x+w=0$ or $y+z=0$ should hold.
[Case: $x+w=0$ ] Note that $w=-x$. From $a x+b y+c z+d w=0$ (Eq. (2)), we obtain (2') $2 a x+b y+c z=0$. Moreover, the equation $a c+b d+x z+y w=0$ (Eq. (3)) implies (3') $a(b-c)+x(y-z)=0$. Hereafter, we will examine four subcases, depending on the values of $a$ and $x$.
[Subcase: $a x \neq 0$ ] Let $\gamma=\frac{x}{a}$. Note that $\gamma \neq 0$. From (3'), we obtain both ( $4^{\prime}$ ) $x=\gamma a$ and ( $\left.5^{\prime}\right) b-c=-\gamma(y-z)$. Next, we use $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) and then obtain (6') $2 \gamma^{2} a^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}=0$. Since $b^{2}-c^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}=0$ (Eq. (5)) is equivalent to $(b+c)(b-c)+(y+z)(y-z)=0$, (5') implies $\left(7^{\prime}\right)(y-z)[(y+z)-\gamma(b+c)]=0$.
(i) First, assume that $y=z$; thus, $b=c$ also holds by ( $5^{\prime}$ ). We can deduce ( $8^{\prime}$ ) $y^{2}+\gamma^{2} a^{2}=0$ from ( $6^{\prime}$ ). In addition, applying ( $2^{\prime}$ ), we obtain ( $9^{\prime}$ ) $\gamma a^{2}+b y=0$. Now, we calculate $\left(8^{\prime}\right)-\left(9^{\prime}\right) \times \gamma$. We then obtain $y^{2}-\gamma b y=0$, or equivalently $y(y-\gamma b)=0$. This equation gives $y=\gamma b$, and hence $f$ becomes $(a, b, b,-a, \gamma a, \gamma b, \gamma b,-\gamma a)$, which is also written as $[1, \gamma]\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot(a, b, b,-a, a, b, b,-a)$. Obviously, $f$ belongs to DUP, a contradiction.
(ii) On the contrary, we assume that $y \neq z$. This inequality implies ( $10^{\prime}$ ) $y+z=\gamma\left(b+c\right.$ ) by ( $7^{\prime}$ ). By calculating (10') $+\left(5^{\prime}\right) \times \gamma$, we obtain $\left(11^{\prime}\right) 2 \gamma b=\left(1-\gamma^{2}\right) y+\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right) z$. Similarly, by calculating (10') $-\left(5^{\prime}\right) \times \gamma$, we easily obtain (12') $2 \gamma c=\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right)+\left(1-\gamma^{2}\right) z$. It then follows from $a x+b y+c z+d w=0$ (Eq. (2)) that $2 \gamma a^{2}+b y+c z=0$; thus, (13') $2 \gamma\left(b y+c z+2 \gamma a^{2}\right)=0$ holds. By inserting (11') \& (12') and $2 \gamma^{2} a^{2}=-\left(y^{2}+z^{2}\right)$ obtained from ( $6^{\prime}$ ) into (13'), we deduce the equation $\left(1-\gamma^{2}\right)\left(y^{2}+z^{2}\right)+2\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right) y z-2\left(y^{2}+z^{2}\right)=0$, which is simplified as $\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right)(y-z)^{2}=0$. Since $y \neq z$, we conclude that $\gamma^{2}=-1$. Using this value, we can draw from (11') \& (12') the consequences: $y=\gamma b$ and $z=\gamma c$. Hence, $f$ is of the form $(a, b, c,-a, \gamma a, \gamma b, \gamma c,-\gamma a)$. This makes $f$ fall into DUP, a contradiction.
[Subcase: $a=x=0$ ] From the equation $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)), it follows that $b^{2}+c^{2}=0$. Similarly, $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) implies $y^{2}+z^{2}=0$. Inserting these equations into $b^{2}-c^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}=0$ (Eq. (5)), we obtain $b^{2}+y^{2}=0$. Now, let $y=\gamma b$ using an appropriate constant $\gamma \in\{ \pm i\}$. It then follows from $y^{2}+z^{2}=0$ that (14') $\gamma^{2} b^{2}+z^{2}=0$. In addition, $a x+b y+c z+d w=0$ (Eq. (2)) leads to ( $15^{\prime}$ ) $\gamma b^{2}+c z=0$. Next, we calculate (15') $\times \gamma-\left(14^{\prime}\right)$ and then obtain $\left(16^{\prime}\right) z(z-\gamma c)=0$.

Here, we assume that $z=0$. Since this assumption implies $y=b=c=0, f$ becomes an all-zero function, belonging to DUP, a contradiction. On the contrary, we assume that $z \neq 0$; thus, ( 16 ') implies $z=\gamma c$. Obviously, $f$ is of the form ( $0, b, c, 0,0, \gamma b, \gamma c, 0$ ), which is also in DUP.
[Subcase: $a=0 \wedge x \neq 0$ ] From (3'), we immediately obtain $x(y-z)=0$, yielding $y=z$. From $b^{2}-c^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}=0$ (Eq. (5)), we also obtain (18') $b^{2}=c^{2}$. Moreover, from $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) follows (19') $b^{2}+c^{2}=0$. Using (18')-(19'), we deduce $b=c=0$. Overall, $f$ must have the form ( $0,0,0,0, x, y, y,-x$ ), indicating that $f \in$ DUP, a contradiction.
[Subcase: $a \neq 0 \wedge x=0$ ] This subcase is similar to the previous subcase for $a=x=0$ and is omitted.
[Case: $x+w \neq 0$ ] Assume that $x+w \neq 0$. By ( $1^{\prime}$ ), $x+w \neq 0$ implies $y+z=0$. Let us recall the equation $a^{2}-d^{2}+x^{2}-w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (5)), which is equivalent to $(a-d)(a+d)+(x-w)(x+w)=0$. Since $a+d=0$, we obtain $(x-w)(x+w)=0$. By our assumption, it follows that $x=w$; thus, $x$ cannot be zero. Next, we use the equation $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) to obtain (17') $x^{2}+y^{2}=0$. Here, we let $y=\delta x$ for a certain constant $\delta \in\{ \pm i\}$. The equation $a x+b y+c z+d w=0$ (Eq. (2)) leads to $y(b-c)=0$; thus, either $y=0$ or $b=c$ holds.

We begin studying the case $y=0$. By (17'), we immediately conclude that $x=0$, a contradiction. Next, we consider the case $b=c$. The equation $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) then becomes $a^{2}+b^{2}=0$. Now, we set $b=\gamma a$ using an appropriate constant $\gamma \in\{ \pm i\}$. There are two subcases to examine. When $\gamma=-\delta$ is satisfied, for the permutation $\sigma_{2}=\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right), f_{\sigma_{2}}$ can be expressed as $[1, \gamma]\left(x_{2}\right) \cdot(a, \gamma a, x,-\gamma x, a, \gamma a, x,-\gamma x)$, which is obviously in DUP. On the contrary, when $\gamma=\delta$, for $\sigma_{3}=\left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right), f_{\sigma_{3}}$ becomes $[1, \gamma]\left(x_{3}\right) \cdot(a, x, \gamma a,-\gamma x, a, x, \gamma a,-\gamma x)$, and thus $f$ falls into DUP. This contradicts $f \notin$ DUP.

What we need to prove next is the equality $x w=y z$. Note that, by Claim 1, none of the following terms is zero: $a+d$, $y+z$, and $x+w$. We will use this fact in the proof of Claim 2 .

Claim 2. $x w=y z$.
Proof. Since $a+d \neq 0$, let $\gamma=\frac{x+w}{a+d}$; thus, we obtain two equations: $\left(1^{\prime}\right) x+w=\gamma(a+d)$ and (2') $b+c=-\gamma(y+z)$. Note that $b^{2}-c^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}=0$ (Eq. (5)) is equivalent to $(b-c)(b+c)+(y-z)(y+z)=0$. We insert (2') to this equation and then obtain $(y+z)[(y-z)-\gamma(b-c)]=0$. Moreover, since $y+z \neq 0$, it follows that (3') $y-z=\gamma(b-c)$. To remove the term $c$, we calculate $\left(2^{\prime}\right) \times \gamma+\left(3^{\prime}\right)$ and then obtain (10') $2 \gamma b=\left(1-\gamma^{2}\right) y-\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right) z$. Similarly, by calculating (2') $\times \gamma-\left(3^{\prime}\right)$, we obtain (11') $2 \gamma c=-\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right) y+\left(1-\gamma^{2}\right) z$. These equations help evaluate the term $2 \gamma(b y+c z)$ as $2 \gamma(b y+c z)=\left(1-\gamma^{2}\right)\left(y^{2}+z^{2}\right)-2\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right) y x$, which is obviously equivalent to (7') $2 \gamma(b y+c z)=\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right)(y-z)^{2}-2 \gamma^{2}\left(y^{2}+z^{2}\right)$.

In a similar manner, since $a^{2}-d^{2}+x^{2}-w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (6)) is equivalent to $(a-d)(a+d)+(x-w)(x+w)=0$, we insert ( $1^{\prime}$ ) and then obtain $(a+d)[(a-d)+\gamma(x-w)]=0$, implying ( $\left.4^{\prime}\right) a-d=-\gamma(x-w)$. By calculating ( $\left.1^{\prime}\right)+\left(4^{\prime}\right) \times \gamma$, we obtain (5') $2 \gamma a=\left(1-\gamma^{2}\right) x+\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right) w$. Similarly, the calculation of $\left(1^{\prime}\right)-\left(4^{\prime}\right) \times \gamma$ shows $\left(6^{\prime}\right) 2 \gamma d=\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right) x+\left(1-\gamma^{2}\right) w$. This implies (8') $2 \gamma(a x+d w)=\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right)(x+w)^{2}-2 \gamma^{2}\left(x^{2}+w^{2}\right)$.

Inserting (7')-(8') into $2 \gamma(a x+b y+c z+d w)=0$ (Eq. (2)), we obtain $\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right)\left[(x+w)^{2}+(y-z)^{2}\right]-2 \gamma\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}\right)=$ 0 . Since $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)), it holds that ( $9^{\prime}$ ) $\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right)\left[(x+w)^{2}+(y-z)^{2}\right]=0$. Now, we examine two possible cases.
(i) First, assume that $\gamma^{2}=-1 . \operatorname{By}\left(5^{\prime}\right)-\left(6^{\prime}\right)$ and (10')-(11'), it follows that $2 \gamma b=2 y, 2 \gamma c=2 z, 2 \gamma a=2 x$, and $2 \gamma d=2 w$; in other words, $y=\gamma b, z=\gamma c, x=\gamma a$, and $w=\gamma d$. These values make $f$ equal $(a, b, c, d, \gamma a, \gamma b, \gamma c, \gamma d)$, which can be written as $[1, \gamma]\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot(a, b, c, d, a, b, c, d)$. Hence, $f$ clearly belongs to DUP, a contradiction.
(ii) Assume that $\gamma^{2} \neq-1$; thus, ( $\left.9^{\prime}\right)$ implies $(x+w)^{2}+(y-z)^{2}=0$, which is the same as $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}+2(x w-y z)=0$. Since $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)), we conclude that $x w=y z$.

By this point, we have proven, for $\sigma=\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)$, that both $(a+d)(y+z)(x+w) \neq 0$ and $x w=y z$ hold. By simply permuting the variable indices, a similar argument can show that, for $\sigma_{2}=\left(x_{2} x_{1} x_{3}\right)$, both $(a+y)(d+z)(c+w) \neq 0$ and $c w=d z$ hold. Similarly, when $\sigma_{3}=\left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right)$, we obtain both $(a+z)(d+y)(b+w) \neq 0$ and $b w=d y$. To complete the proof of Proposition 5.4, we consider four cases separately.
[Case: $x y \neq 0$ ] Now, let $\delta=\frac{y}{x}$. This implies that $y=\delta x$ and $w=\delta z$. The assumption $y \neq 0$ implies that $\delta \neq 0$. From $c w=d z$, we obtain $\delta c z=d z$, implying $z(d-\delta c)=0$. Hence, $d=\delta c$ follows. Using $b^{2}+d^{2}+y^{2}+w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (4)), we obtain $b^{2}+\delta^{2}\left(c^{2}+x^{2}+z^{2}\right)=0$. Applying $a^{2}=-\left(c^{2}+x^{2}+z^{2}\right)$, which is obtained from $a^{2}+c^{2}+x^{2}+z^{2}=0$ (Eq. (4)), we conclude that $b^{2}-\delta^{2} a^{2}=0$; thus, either $b=\delta a$ or $b=-\delta a$ holds. First, let us consider the case where $b=-\delta a$. It follows from $a b+c d+x y+z w=0$ (Eq. (4)) that $-\delta a^{2}+\delta\left(c^{2}+x^{2}+z^{2}\right)=0$. As discussed before, this is equivalent to $-\delta a^{2}+\delta\left(-a^{2}\right)=0$, which yields $-2 \delta a^{2}=0$. Since $a^{2}=0$, we obtain $b=0$. This implies that, for the permutation $\sigma_{3}=\left(x_{3} x_{2} x_{1}\right), f_{\sigma_{3}}=(0, x, c, z, 0, \delta x, \delta c, \delta z)$; thus, $f$ is in DUP, a contradiction. For the next case where $b=\delta a, f_{\sigma_{3}}$ also equals ( $a, x, c, z, \delta a, \delta x, \delta c, \delta z$ ) and $f$ thus falls into DUP, a contradiction.
[Case: $x=y=0$ ] Note that, since $x+w \neq 0, x=0$ implies $w \neq 0$. Since $(y+z)(a+y)(d+y) \neq 0, y=0$ implies zad $\neq 0$. Moreover, from $b w=d y$, we obtain $b w=0$; thus, $b=0$ follows. From $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)), we obtain $z^{2}+w^{2}=0$. Here, let $z=\gamma w$ for a certain constant $\gamma \in\{ \pm i\}$. It then follows from $a x+b y+c z+d w=0$ (Eq. (2)) that $\gamma c w+d w=0$, implying $w(d+\gamma c)=0$. Hence, we obtain $d=-\gamma c$. Finally, $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) implies $a^{2}=0$. This proves that $a+y=0$, a contradiction.
[Case: $x=0 \wedge y \neq 0$ ] Since $x+w \neq 0$, it holds that $w \neq 0$. Let $\gamma=\frac{w}{y}$. By $b w=d y$, we obtain $w=\gamma y$ and $d=\gamma b$. Moreover, from $x w=y z$ follows $z=0$. We thus obtain $c=0$ from $c w=d z$. It then follows from $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) that $\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right) y^{2}=0$; thus, $\gamma^{2}=-1$. Here, the equation $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}=0$ (Eq. (2)) implies $a^{2}+\left(1+\gamma^{2}\right) b^{2}=0$, which immediately yields $a^{2}=0$. Hence, $f_{\sigma_{3}}$ is of the form ( $0, b, 0, y, 0, \gamma b, 0, \gamma y$ ), making $f$ fall into DUP, a contradiction.
[Case: $x \neq 0 \wedge y=0]$ Since $(y+z)(a+y)(d+y) \neq 0, y=0$ implies $z a d \neq 0$. The equation $x w=y z$ leads to $x w=0$, implying $w=0$. Moreover, $c w=d z$ implies $d z=0$. This contradicts the result zad $\neq 0$.

In this end, we have completed the proof of Proposition 5.4.

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