and

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\operatorname{perm} A(4;1) & = & \operatorname{perm} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
& = & 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \\
& = & 0 \cdot
\end{array}$$

The full adjacency matrix B with submatrices A corresponding to these four-node widgets counts 1 for each good cycle cover in H and 0 for each bad cycle cover, thus its permanent is equal to $(k!)^2$ times the number of vertex covers in G.

We have argued that computing the permanent of a matrix containing elements in $\{-1, 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1\}$ is #P-hard, but there is still a ways to go. The next step is to note that

$$perm 2B = 2^n \cdot perm B$$

and this implies that computing the permanent of a matrix with elements in $\{-2,0,1,2\}$ is hard for #P. We now show that this problem reduces to computing the permanents of polynomially many matrices over $\{0,1\}$. The reduction we use here is somewhat weaker than the one we have been using in that it will require several instances of the $\{0,1\}$ permanent problem to encode a given instance of the $\{-2,0,1,2\}$ permanent problem, but the reduction still has the property that any fast algorithm for the $\{0,1\}$ problem would give a fast algorithm for the $\{-2,0,1,2\}$ problem.

Let B be an $n \times n$ matrix over $\{-2, 0, 1, 2\}$. A bound on the absolute value of perm B is given by the case in which each entry of B is 2; then

$$|\text{perm } B| \leq 2^n n!$$

It thus suffices to compute perm B modulo any $N > 2^{n+1}n!$, and from this we will be able to recover the value of perm B.

Let p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k be the first k primes, where k is the least number such that

$$N = \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_i > 2^{n+1} n!$$

It is not hard to show that $k \leq n+1$. Moreover, since p_m is $\Theta(m \log m)$ (see [49, p. 10]), we can generate the first k primes in polynomial time using the sieve of Eratosthenes. Before proceeding further, we need the following theorem.

Theorem 27.2 (Chinese Remainder Theorem) Let $m_1, m_2, ..., m_k$ be pairwise relatively prime positive integers, and let $m = \prod_{i=1}^k m_i$. Let \mathcal{Z}_n

denote the ring of integers modulo n. The ring \mathcal{Z}_m and the direct product of rings

$$\mathcal{Z}_{m_1} \times \mathcal{Z}_{m_2} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{Z}_{m_k}$$

are isomorphic under the function

$$f: \mathcal{Z}_m \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}_{m_1} \times \mathcal{Z}_{m_2} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{Z}_{m_k}$$

given by

$$f(x) = (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2, \dots, x \bmod m_k).$$

This just says that the numbers mod m and the k-tuples of numbers mod m_i , $1 \le i \le k$, are in one-to-one correspondence, and that arithmetic is preserved under the map f. For example, in the following table, we have compared \mathcal{Z}_{15} to $\mathcal{Z}_3 \times \mathcal{Z}_5$.

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
$x \mod 3$	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
$x \bmod 5$	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4

Note that each pair in $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_5$ occurs exactly once. This is because 3 and 5 are relatively prime. Arithmetic is preserved as well: for example, 4 and 7 correspond to the pairs (1,4) and (1,2), respectively; multiplying these pairwise gives the pair (1,3) (mod 3 and 5, respectively), which occurs under 13; and $4 \times 7 = 28 = 13$ (mod 15).

Also, f and f^{-1} are computable in polynomial time. To compute f(x), we just reduce x modulo m_1, \ldots, m_k . To compute $f^{-1}(x_1, \ldots, x_k)$, we first compute, for each $1 \le i \le k$, integers s and t such that

$$sm_i + t \prod_{\substack{1 \le j \le k \\ j \ne i}} m_j = 1$$

and take

$$u_i = t \prod_{\substack{1 \le j \le k \\ j \ne i}} m_j .$$

The numbers s and t are available as a byproduct of the Euclidean algorithm. For each $1 \le i, j \le k, u_i \equiv 1 \mod m_i$ and $u_i \equiv 0 \mod m_j, i \ne j$. Take

$$f^{-1}(x_1,\ldots,x_k) = x_1u_1 + \cdots + x_ku_k \mod m$$
.

For further details and a proof of the Chinese Remainder Theorem see [3, pp. 289ff.].